

The Relationship between Exposure to Violence,
Acceptance of Violence and Engagement in Violence: A
study of Turkish Adolescence

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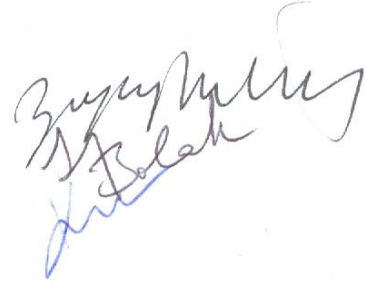
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The Relationship between Exposure to Violence, Acceptance of Violence
and Engagement in Violence: A study of Turkish Adolescence

Şiddete Maruz Kalma, Şiddeti Kabullenme ve Şiddet Uygulama
arasındaki İlişki: Türk Ergenleriyle bir Çalışma

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Abstract

Violence is a public health problem that has adverse effects on every single individual in today's world. On the other hand, adolescence is a crucial period in lifespan in which individuals become vulnerable to different kinds of risky behaviors including violence. In this study, the violence experiences of Turkish adolescents, as the victim and as the perpetrator, and their attitudes towards violence were investigated. Exposure to violence includes direct exposure by being the victim of violence and indirect exposure by witnessing violence. Four different types of violence; verbal, physical, sexual and relational, were studied. 1023 8th and 9th grade students participated to the study. The demographic information form, exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence questionnaires, which were developed by the researcher, were filled in a classroom setting by the students. The results of the study showed that there is a significant relationship between exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and violent behaviors. In terms of different types of aggression, it was found that for males; exposure to verbal and physical, for girls; exposure to sexual violence was more frequent. Contrary to expectations, while males were more frequently exposed to direct relational aggression, there was no significant difference between genders in terms of indirect exposure to relational aggression. On the other hand, males found to have a higher acceptance for all kinds of violence and they engage in violence more frequently compared to females. The relation between demographic characteristics and violence perceptions and experiences was also

investigated. Finally, the limitations of the study and implications for further research were emphasized.

Özet

Bugünün dünyasında şiddet, her bireyin üzerinde olumsuz etkiler bırakan bir halk sağlığı sorunudur. Bunun yanı sıra, ergenlik dönemi bireylerin şiddeti de içeren farklı riskli davranışlara yatkın olduğu kritik bir dönemdir. Bu çalışmada Türk ergenlerinin, mağdur ve uygulayıcı olarak, şiddet deneyimleri ve şiddete yönelik algıları incelenmiştir. Şiddete maruz kalma şiddetin kurbanı olarak direkt maruz kalmayı ve şiddete tanık olarak dolaylı maruz kalmayı içermektedir. Sözel, fiziksel, cinsel ve ilişkisel olmak üzere dört farklı şiddet türü üzerinde çalışılmıştır. Çalışmaya 1023 8. ve 9. sınıf öğrencisi katılmıştır. Araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen demografik bilgi formu, şiddete maruz kalma, şiddeti kabullenme ve şiddet uygulama anketleri öğrenciler tarafından sınıf ortamında doldurulmuştur. Araştırmanın sonuçları şiddete maruz kalma, şiddeti kabullenme ve şiddet davranışları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Farklı şiddet türleri bakımından incelendiğinde; erkeklerin sözel ve fiziksel, kadınların ise cinsel şiddete daha sık maruz kaldığı görülmüştür. Beklentilerin aksine, erkekler direkt ilişkisel şiddete kadınlardan daha sık maruz kalırken, dolaylı ilişkisel şiddete maruz kalma açısından cinsiyetler arasında bir fark bulunamamıştır. Bunun yanı sıra, erkeklerin her türlü şiddeti kadınlara göre daha kabul edilebilir algıladığı ve daha sık şiddet uyguladığı bulunmuştur. Bu çalışmada demografik özelliklerin şiddet algısı ve şiddet yaşantılarıyla ilişkisi de incelenmiştir. Son olarak, araştırmanın sınırlılıkları ve gelecek çalışmalara yönelik öneriler belirtilmiştir.

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Abbreviations

EV:	Exposure to violence
DEV:	Direct exposure to violence
InDEV:	Indirect exposure to violence
AV:	Acceptance of violence
EIV:	Engagement in violence
EVA:	Exposure to verbal aggression
DEVA:	Direct exposure to verbal aggression
InDEVA:	Indirect exposure to verbal aggression
AVA:	Acceptance of verbal aggression
EIVA:	Engagement in verbal aggression
EPA:	Exposure to physical aggression
DEPA:	Direct exposure to physical aggression
InDEPA:	Indirect exposure to physical aggression
APA:	Acceptance of physical aggression
EIPA:	Engagement in physical aggression
ESA:	Exposure to sexual aggression
DESA:	Direct exposure to sexual aggression
InDESA:	Indirect exposure to sexual aggression
ASA:	Acceptance of sexual aggression
EISA:	Engagement in sexual aggression
ERA:	Exposure to relational aggression
DERA:	Direct exposure to relational aggression
InDERA:	Indirect exposure to relational aggression

ARA: Acceptance of relational aggression

EIRA: Engagement in relational aggression

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“The twentieth century will be remembered as a century marked by violence.”

- Nelson Mandela¹

Violence is a public health problem that affects millions of people around the world. Although it has always been a part of human life, it is a growing problem that causes death of thousands of people each year (WHO, 2002).

Violence is a term that can be defined in various ways and also while defining violence one should take into consideration the fact that it has many forms. World Health Organization, in the World Report on Violence and Health (2002), defines 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 in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation.” (p.5, WHO, 2002).

While on the one hand, violence and aggression are viewed as a major part of human nature, it is also viewed as a concept that can be learned throughout human development. Adolescence is one of these periods in life in which individuals become vulnerable to different kinds of

¹ WHO (2002). World report on violence and health. p. ix. 12 July, 2011
http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2002/9241545615_eng.pdf

risky behaviors. Aggressive behaviors and tendency to use violence increase in adolescence and young adulthood (Dahlberg and Potter, 2001).

When children become adolescents they don't just start to use violence all of a sudden. There are many factors such as family characteristics (Baumrind, 1983; Farrington, 1989; Crouter et al., 1990), school and social environment (Elliot, 1994; Lerner & Galambos, 1998), and so forth that cause adolescents to use violence or be a victim of violence. In order to understand the underlying factors of violence, the dynamics that cause adolescents to use aggressive behaviors should be analyzed.

While some types of violence such as wars and civil wars, terror attacks, homicides and so on become visible through media, most of the violent acts are invisible since they take place out of sight. Violence can be everywhere; at homes between partners, mostly applied by men to women or applied by parents to their children, at the work place or school, on the street and even in some public institutions in which victims are somehow too weak to protect themselves (WHO, 2002). Individuals learn from their environment, from their parents and peers and also from media. Thus, a question emerges: "What is the role of being exposed to violence, by media or environment or by being a direct victim of it, on the attitudes towards violence and engaging in violent behaviors?" Therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate underlying factors of violence and analyze the relationship between being exposed to violence, acceptance of violence and engaging in violent behaviors.

1.1 Violence and Aggression

Violence and aggression are two terms that are closely related to each other. However, it is not possible to come up with a universally agreed definition or with a single theoretical framework to describe violence and aggression. Thus researchers who investigate violence and aggression are confronted with definitional challenges (Gendreau & Archer, 2005; as cited in Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008).

In the dictionary of Cambridge violence is defined as “actions or words which are intended to hurt people”. The definition in the dictionary is very limited compared to the definition of World Health Organization. On the other hand, “spoken or physical behavior which is threatening or involves harm to someone or something” is the definition for aggression in the dictionary. Since the definitions for violence and aggression are overlapping there is an intention to use these terms interchangeably in the literature. On the other hand, there are also theoreticians that emphasize the difference between aggression and violence. For example, Anderson and Bushman (2002) defined violence as a form of aggression. Aggression is any kind of behavior that includes the intention of hurting the other (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Any harm that is caused without any intention to do so can not be defined as aggression. On the other hand, violence includes the intention of causing serious levels of harm such as death or injury. According to Anderson and Bushman (2002), all types of violence is a form of aggression however not all types of aggression can be defined as violence.

Two general components have been proposed to define aggression. One of these components is the feeling of anger (Crick & Dodge, 1996) and the other is intention to hurt (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). These two components seem to be also valid for violence. Violence comes from the Latin word “violentia” which is used for behaviors that harm others, for mean personalities and also for power (Ünsal, 1996). Thus, in this study the words violence and aggression are used interchangeably to address any kind of behavior that has the intention to hurt others.

1.2 Types of Aggression

1.2.1. Verbal Aggression

Verbal aggression is a type of aggression that is employed by many individuals in different circumstances. However, no standard definition in the literature is present for verbal aggression or related concepts (Hart, Germain & Brassard, 1987; as cited in Vissing et al., 1991). There are differing but overlapping definitions. For example, Vissing et al. (1991) defined verbal aggression as “... a communication intended to cause psychological pain to another person, or a communication perceived as having that intent.” (p. 224). Name calling was presented as an example to verbal aggression. Infante and Wigley (1986; as cited in Roberto & Finucane, 1997), on the other hand, presents another dimension of verbal aggressiveness by stating that verbally aggressive behaviors involve the intention to attack the self concept of the person. Verbal aggression may

include attacks to character, competence, physical appearance and background in many forms such as maledictions, name calling, ridiculing etc. Verbally aggressive behaviors are viewed as a destructive form of communication because intention of these behaviors is to cause psychological pain (Roberto & Finucane, 1997).

In the report of Türk Eğitim-Sen (2005), researchers investigated the 7th and 8th grade students' conceptualizations of different types of violence. In this study, students included swearing, humiliation, commanding, sauciness, slandering, lying, gossiping, name calling, ridiculing and snappishness in the verbally aggressive behaviors. In this report, verbal aggression was found to count for 44% of all aggressive behaviors which was the most preferred form of aggression. Similar findings were obtained in another study by Artz et al. (2008) which showed that adolescents most commonly engaged in verbally aggressive behaviors.

There are some contradictory findings for gender differences in the use of verbally aggressive behaviors. In a study by Roberto et al. (2003), 7th grade boys found to demonstrate greater insulting behavior than girls. On the other hand, Lagerspetz et al. (1988), found no significant difference between genders in terms of verbal aggression when the sample consisted of 11-12 year olds. Rivers and Smith (1994) found that secondary school girls were bullied verbally slightly more than their male counterparts. The results of the study also yielded that the frequency of verbally aggressive behaviors increases with age whereas the frequency of physically aggressive behaviors decreases. This was supported by the study of Craig (1998) that more

verbally aggressive behaviors were reported by older students. This shows that verbal aggression requires the development of verbal skills and especially for boys, as they grow up they acquire new aggressive strategies in addition to physical aggressive strategies (Craig, 1998).

1.2.2 Physical Aggression

Among all violence types physical aggression is the most noticeable and overt form. This may be the reason why studies on aggression and violence mostly focus on physically aggressive behaviors (Crick, 1996). Physical aggression can be defined as “the use of physical force against another person with an object (e.g., stick, rock, bullet) or without (e.g., slap, push, punch, kick, bite)” (p. 83, Tremblay & Nagin, 2005).

Studies that trace developmental origins of physical aggression yield that engaging in physically aggressive behaviors has an age onset of 2 (Tremblay, 2000b). Studies on physical aggression with a sample of children under age 6 is very rare however the findings suggest that children start to engage in physically aggressive behaviors when they reach a physical capacity to do so (Tremblay et al., 1999). On the other hand, no evidence have been found for the onset of physical aggression after age 6 (Nagin & Tremblay, 1999). When the developmental trajectory of physical aggression is analyzed in terms of social learning theory (Bandura, 1973) it can be suggested that the individuals learn how to aggress physically before school entry (Tremblay & Nagin, 2005).

The feeling of anger when a child can not get what s/he wants is suggested to be the general cause of physically aggressive behaviors in early childhood (Hay, 2005). As majority of children grow older the frequency of physically aggressive behaviors decrease. It could be hypothesized that as children grow older the reasons for physical aggression decreases however the fact that children start to engage in other kinds of aggression such as verbal and relational aggression reveals that it is not likely. Rather children learn alternative ways to express feelings of anger and not to engage in physically aggressive behaviors. The children observes the negative consequences of aggression and they realize that in order to get what they want they need to learn alternatives to physical aggression (Tremblay & Nagin, 2005). After examining longitudinal data on physical aggression from infancy to adulthood, Tremblay and Nagin (2005) conclude that physically aggressive behaviors are not learned but rather they are impulsive behaviors which emerges when the conditions are provoking and individuals learn to control it as they grow older.

1.2.3 Sexual Aggression

Sexuality is one of the main drives of human nature. Individuals engage in sexual interactions for several reasons such as receiving pleasure, feeling intimacy, passing his genes onto next generations, satisfying his/her partner etc. When sexuality is defined by these terms it is assumed that sexual interactions take place only if both sides agree to do so. However this is not always the case. Sexual aggression may be simply defined as forcing

an individual to take part in sexual interactions without his/her consent. There are several strategies used by the aggressors to fulfill their sexual desires while ignoring the other's protestations (Christopher & Pflieger, 2007). Exerting physical violence is not the only way to force an individual to engage in undesired sexual acts. Sexual aggression may or may not include physical violence and researchers state that there is a complex relation between the two types of aggression (Marshall & Holtzworth-Munroe, 2002). Manipulating the partner by psychological and emotional abuse is one of the strategies that the aggressors use to receive sexual pleasure without using physical violence. Threatening, belittling or deceiving the partner is some of the forms of psychological and emotional abuse. By using such tactics the partner who is not willing to engage in sexual interactions is faced with a conflict of rather performing the expected behaviors or feeling guilty, ashamed and incompetent (Christopher & Pflieger, 2007). Last but not the least, some individuals prefer taking advantage of alcohol or drugs to initiate sexuality. Alcohol or drugs serve as catalysts by lowering the inhibitions of the unwilling partner in addition to providing the aggressor an excuse for his/her behaviors (Testa, 2004).

Based on the previous research Christopher (2001; as cited in Christopher & Pflieger, 2007) conceptualized sexual aggression as having two forms; sexual coercion and sexual assault. According to Christopher sexual coercion involved manipulation and psychological pressure by persisting constantly, lying and using alcohol or drugs whereas sexual assault involved physical pressure and aggression to accomplish the desired

sexual interactions. Research in the area of sexual aggression supported Christopher's formulation since significant differences between the two dimensions of sexually aggressive strategies were documented.

Sexual aggression in adolescence is a growing problem especially in dating relationships. In a research by Buzy et al. (2004), it is estimated that one third of high school girls were victims of sexual aggression in their dating relationships. In another study that investigated the prevalence of sexual aggression in a sample of Spain youth, it is found that approximately %35 of males and % 14 of females used sexual aggression to force their partners to engage in sexual interactions (Munoz-Rivas et al. 2009). Despite the significance, the issue of sexual aggression is disregarded when studying adolescence. Dating relationships of adolescents are generally viewed as short term and insignificant. However, research findings about the prevalence of dating relationship in adolescence show that dating and experiencing serious close relationships is a very common phenomena in adolescence (Collins, 2003). In addition, adolescents' dating relationships share many similar characteristics with adult close relationships such as involving passion, sharing feelings and supporting each other (Levesque, 1993). Thus, it is important to understand the dynamics of dating relationships in adolescence to understand the foundations of adult relationships. One of the main differences between adult and adolescent dating relationships is that adults are more experienced compared to adolescents. Due to lack of relationship knowledge, an adolescent may experience difficulties understanding or noticing the manipulative acts of

his/her partner which in turn makes the adolescent more vulnerable to sexual abuse. Thus, sexual aggression is an important phenomenon in adolescence that needs to be taken into consideration rather than left out (Christopher & Pflieger, 2007).

1.2.4 Relational Aggression

There are many studies that investigate aggression and violence. Most of the studies in the literature focus on observable aggressive behaviors thus the main focus of these studies is prominently on physical aggression. It is shown in these studies that aggressive individuals experience difficulties in social life (Crick, 1996). Since most of the studies focus on physical aggression and since males are found to be more physically aggressive than females, male aggressive behavior patterns and consequences of these behaviors are well-known. However, knowledge on female aggression and the problems that females experience due to their aggressiveness is limited. Thus, relational aggression is emerged as the most prominent type of aggression that females engage in. In order to understand the dynamics of female aggression and the consequences, recent studies focus on relational aggression (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Crick, 1996; Werner & Nixon, 2005).

When different types of aggression are categorized; physical, verbal and sexual aggression can be grouped as observable or direct aggression. Relational aggression, on the other hand, is different from other types of aggression since it is non-observable and indirect. There are different terms

that have been employed by different researchers in the literature for relational aggression. Crick (1996) was the first researcher that used the term “relational aggression” to refer behaviors that have an intention to damage social relations of people. Relational aggressive behaviors include excluding someone from a group, spreading rumors and threatening someone with ending the friendship to make him/her do something.

Galen and Underwood (1997) came up with a different term called “social aggression” to refer to behaviors that intend to harm other person’s self-esteem. Socially aggressive behaviors make the victim feel bad about him/herself. Social aggression is different from relational aggression since it focuses on the person’s self-esteem but not on social relations.

The third term “indirect aggression” was used by Lagerspetz (1988) and refers to manipulating others to harm the victim. Indirect aggression includes behaviors such as spreading rumors or telling lies, instigating others to dislike the person, telling his/her secrets to others etc. The definition of “indirect aggression” by Lagerspetz (1988) is close to the definition of relational aggression. Both terms focus on the social relations of the person being attacked. However, the term “indirect aggression” is also used to distinguish physical aggression from non-physical aggression. Tremblay (2000a) defined indirect aggression as “Behavior aimed at hurting someone without the use of physical aggression” (p.20). Since there are different terms used to describe non-physical aggression researchers need to make a choice in which term to use (Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008).

Although there are some contradictory findings, research on relational aggression show that females engage in relational aggression more than males (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). In a study by Phelps (2001), self reports showed that boys and girls were equally victimized for relational aggression however girls were more confronted with relationally aggressive behaviors than physically aggressive behaviors. Also in another study by Cullerton-Sen and Crick (2005), girls and boys differed in terms of remembered incidences of relational and physical aggression. Girls remembered more incidences of relational aggression than boys and boys remembered more incidences about physical aggression. Taken together, it can be concluded that although males and females may be equally relationally aggressive, relational aggression is seen to be related more with female aggression. According to Crick and Grotpeter (1995), girls prefer relationally aggressive behaviors because these kinds of behaviors are more effective in female peer relationships. They propose that goals of the victim are taken into consideration when certain type of aggressive behavior is chosen. Girls and boys have different social values and goals; girls primarily focus on establishing close relationships with peers whereas boys focus on physical dominance (Block, 1983; as cited in Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Thus, relationally aggressive behaviors that damage the social relations of the victim are preferred by girls whereas males' preference is physically aggressive behaviors. They also suggest that the degree of female aggressiveness was underestimated in the previous research since relevant type of aggression for females was not assessed in these studies.

Studies that investigate the consequences of relational aggression have revealed that those who engage in relationally aggressive behaviors are at risk for peer rejection and future social and psychological problems (Crick, 1996; Crick and Grotpeter, 1995). However, there are also studies which show that relational aggression is related with social intelligence (Kaukiainen et al., 1999) and social network centrality (Xie, Cairns & Cairns, 2002). These studies propose that relational aggression generally involves a triadic relationship. Thus, in order to be able to use relational aggression an individual needs to have a social network and an ability to manipulate and influence others (Kaukiainen et al., 1999; Xie, Cairns & Cairns, 2002).

As mentioned above, different from other types of aggression, relational aggression includes behaviors that are not easily observed by others. Thus, relationally aggressive behaviors are preferred when an individual wants to avoid detection. By this way, s/he manages to dominate the victim while protecting her/his social reputation (Werner & Nixon, 2005) and also avoids the possibility of retaliation (Lagerspetz, Björkqvist & Peltonen, 1988).

Relational aggression is a relatively new term in the literature of aggression and violence. Studies provide evidence that relational aggression is distinct from other types of aggression and thus should be investigated independently (Werner & Nixon, 2005).

1.3 Violence and Gender

Many studies that have been implemented on violence and aggression investigated the gender differences and researchers reached a consensus that males tend to engage in aggressive behaviors more than girls (Lagerspetz, Björkqvist & Peltonen, 1988; Schoiack-Edstrom, Frey & Beland, 2002; Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008). In a meta-analysis review (Eagly & Steffen, 1986), 89% of the studies showed that males are more aggressive than girls. Although researchers agreed that general aggression is higher in males, a consensus was not established for different types of aggression. Some researchers argued that studies which investigate overt aggression underestimated the degree of aggressiveness in females, since females tend to engage in relationally aggressive behaviors which are more subtle and harder to observe (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Thus studies on direct aggression which mostly include physical aggression conclude that males are more aggressive than females whereas studies that investigate indirect aggression, in other words relational aggression, show that females are more aggressive than males (Crick, Bigbee & Howes, 1996; Schoiack-Edstrom, Frey & Beland, 2002). Therefore, it is proposed that females are also aggressive as males but they engage in different kinds of aggressive behaviors that are not easily assessed and observed. However research results are contradictory for indirect aggression. There are also studies that show no difference between genders in terms of relational aggression (Archer, 2004). Thus different types of aggression should be taken into consideration when analyzing gender differences.

Despite there are some different findings for different kinds of aggression, there is a consensus on the target of the violence. In other words, studies show that aggressiveness among males is higher when the opponent is another male (Archer & Haigh, 1997). This may be related with attitudes; aggression between males is more acceptable than applying aggression to opposite sex (Harris, 1994, Archer & Haigh, 1997).

Evolutionary theory and social perspective both bring an explanation to understand the underlying mechanism for the phenomena about male aggression. According to evolutionary perspective males and females had different selection pressures. The parental investment on the offspring was remarkable for females thus they needed to be selective and choose the male with the best genes whereas the parental investment of males was minimal thus they needed numerous mates to maximize survival. Since females tended to choose a male with the best resources and males tended to mate numerously, the competition between males was great. To attract the opposite sex, males needed to be dominant and convince the female that he had better genes than his opponents. Thus aggression was one of the instruments in competition between males. On the other hand, aggression was also an instrument to fulfill the responsibility of protecting their mate and offspring. To sum up, according to evolutionary perspective gender differences in aggression is somewhat related with different selection pressures for males and females (Archer, 1996).

Social perspective, on the other hand, is focused on the traditional male gender role. It proposes that males are traditionally socialized to act in

a masculine manner which includes suppressing emotions, being dominant, though and aggressive (Feder, Levant & Dean, 2007). Thus traditional masculine male gender role legitimizes engaging in aggressive behaviors especially to other males. In a study by Harris (1994), it was found that male graduate students were expecting more approval from their friends in circumstances in which aggression was directed to males than scenarios which included aggression to opposite sex. The results of a study by Björkqvist et al. (1982) showed that aggressive males were content with their own domineering whereas aggressive girls wished to be less domineering which supports the social perspective.

When evolutionary theory and social perspective are taken together to explain gender differences in terms of aggression, it could be said that males are predisposed to act more aggressively when compared to females and even though the mating conditions is totally different in today's civilized society, social norms reinforce and sustain aggressiveness of males (Lim & Ang, 2009).

1.4 Violence in Adolescence

Adolescence is a transition period from childhood to adulthood which includes most of the changes in the biological, cognitive and psychological characteristics (Lerner & Spanier, 1980; as cited in Lerner & Galambos, 1998). It is the period of drastic changes and the adolescent needs to adapt to the new self and social relations with peers and family.

Both adolescents and their parents may experience complex feelings in this confusing period of life span (Lerner & Galambos, 1998).

Since adolescence is a period marked by changes and exploration in every aspect of life it is also a hazardous period for the development of risk behaviors such as substance use, unsafe sex, engagement in violence etc. (Hurrelman, 1990). Some of these risk behaviors are normative that the general adolescent population gets involved in these kinds of behaviors such as smoking or experiencing sexual intimacy with the opposite sex (Shedler & Block, 1990). Some of these behaviors, on the other hand, may start and end in adolescence whereas others may continue developing in the adulthood (Maggs, Almeida & Galambos, 1995). Thus, it is important to differentiate behaviors that are normative to adolescence and do not constitute a risk for the long-term from those that needs attention to prevent future problems.

The social development model which was proposed by Catalano and Hawkins (1996) classifies risk and protective factors according to different developmental settings such as family, school, peer groups and community. According to the model violent behaviors are influenced from the risk factors that occur in different levels.

1.4.1 Risk Factors for Violence and Aggression in Adolescence

1.4.1.1 Individual risk factors

1.4.1.1.1 History of violence:

The effect of history of violence in engaging in aggressive behaviors is analyzed in detail below in the “Violence Exposure and Engagement in Violence” section. Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that according to the empirical findings, one of the best predictors of future violent behaviors is prior violent behaviors (Mossman, 1994; Tolan, Guerra & Kendall, 1995). Empirical findings yield that those with a history of abuse and/or maltreatment are more vulnerable to engage in violence (Widom, 1989).

1.4.1.1.2 Age of onset of violent behaviors:

Studies show that engaging in risk behaviors at an earlier age particularly before fourteen (Tolan & Thomas, 1995) is a risk factor for experiencing long term problems. In addition to age of onset, continuity of the risk behavior is also an important predictor of future difficulties. Continued engagement in risk behavior may be related with living in a life style which includes other risk behaviors and hanging out with peers who engage in these kinds of behaviors. Thus, risk behavior life style is another predictor of ongoing engagement in problem behaviors in the long term (Shedler & Block, 1990).

1.4.1.1.3 Alcohol and substance use:

Adolescents' use of alcohol and other substances is found to increase the risk for engaging in violent behaviors. In a longitudinal study by Brook et al. (1996) it was found that substance abuse problem in the early adolescence is related with increased risk for delinquency. The studies show that being under the influence of alcohol or drugs is used as a justification by the aggressors for their violent behaviors (Testa, 2004).

1.4.1.1.4 Risk taking and impulsivity:

Impulsivity is a character trait and can simply be defined as engaging in a behavior without thinking of the consequences of that behavior. Impulsive individuals experience a fluctuating mood thus their behaviors are instable. Impulsivity is related with risk taking and both are found to be associated with violent behaviors (Farrington, 1989). Hyperactivity and attention deficit disorder are characterized by impulsivity and research results yield that these disorders constitute a risk factor for violent behaviors and delinquency (Sanson, Smart, Prior & Oberklaid, 1993).

1.4.1.1.5 Problems in anger management:

The feeling of anger is a major component of aggression and violence (Crick & Dodge, 1996). It is not very surprising to find an association between anger control problems and engaging in violent behaviors. Anger acts as a catalyst for aggressive behaviors and difficulties

in controlling the feeling of anger increases the risk for aggressive behaviors (Granic & Butler, 1998).

1.4.1.2 School related risk factors

Various school problems are related with engaging in violent behaviors. Academic failure, low interest in education, early dropout from school, truancy and poor attachment to school (Elliott, 1994) are associated with future risk for violence (Lerner & Galambos, 1998).

1.4.1.3 Home/Family Risk Factors

Factors related to home and family environment which are related to violent behaviors of adolescents can be examined in three categories as parenting styles, criminality in the family and family conflict. In terms of parenting styles, authoritarian and permissive styles were associated in development of problem behaviors in adolescents (Baumrind, 1983). In addition, low monitoring of adolescents by parents is also found to increase the risk for engagement in risk behaviors (Crouter et al., 1990). Criminality in the family, on the other hand, also found to be related with adolescents' violent behaviors (Farrington, 1989). This maybe related with internalization of parental attitudes towards violence (Borum, 2000). The role of attitudes on violent behaviors is examined in detail below in the "Attitudes and violence" section. Finally, family conflict constitutes a risk factor for violent behaviors in adolescents. Family conflict includes marital conflict and violent behaviors towards family members (Elliot, 1994).

1.4.1.4 Peer Risk Factors

Peer rejection and bonding with antisocial peer groups are two risk factors associated with violent behaviors. Studies show that adolescents who experience difficulties in establishing friendship with their peers are at a greater risk for engaging in aggressive behaviors when compared to their counterparts (Kupersmidt & Coie, 1990). On the other edge of negative peer relationships resides another risk factor which is bonding with antisocial peer groups. Studies show that aggressive adolescents make friends with other aggressive kids. This increases the risk for engaging in aggressive behaviors. Nevertheless, it is also known that such peer groups also have a negative effect on adolescents who do not have a violent behavior history (Kenaan et al., 1995). Fortunately, this kind of peer influence does not predict future violent behaviors, in other words, these kinds of behaviors remains limited to adolescence (Elliot, 1994).

1.4.1.5 Community/Neighborhood Risk Factors

There are some risk factors related to community or neighborhood which increase the likelihood of violent behaviors. According to results of the studies that investigate this issue, adolescents living in neighborhoods characterized by poverty, social disorganization, drug use and traffic, violence and high crime are at a greater risk for engaging in violent and other problem behaviors (Sampson, Raudenbush & Earls, 1997; Lerner & Galambos, 1998).

1.4.2 Adolescence and Engaging in Different Types of Aggression

It is important to examine the change of chosen aggressive behaviors from childhood to adolescence for a better understanding of adolescent aggression. Studies show that, during early childhood the choice of aggressive behaviors is mostly physical for both sexes (Tremblay, 2000). Perhaps, verbal and social skills are not developed fully to engage in other types of aggression. Thus, as verbal skills develop, verbally aggressive behaviors start to replace physically aggressive behaviors. Since verbal skills of females develop earlier than males they start to use verbal and relational aggression sooner than males. This kind of a developmental progression is supported by a study by Zimmer-Gembeck et al. (2005). According to the results of the study 3rd grade males and females showed no difference in terms of relational aggression whereas by 6th grade girls were engaging in relationally aggressive behaviors more than their male peers. Björkqvist et al. (1992; as cited in Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008) also found that with age both sexes used verbally and relationally aggressive behaviors more frequently.

Richardson and Green (2006), proposed a different point of view to understand adolescents' use of aggression taking into consideration the fact that as young people progress from childhood to early adolescence nature of peer groups change drastically and friendships gain greater importance (Berndt & Keefe, 1995). They hypothesized that the type of relationship is one of the main determinants in type of aggression adolescents engage in.

Indirect use of aggression is expected to be preferred in adolescence towards friends since friendships are open to conflicts and thus direct confrontation is avoided to protect the relationship. Sibling relationships, on the other hand, are stronger and do not dissolve easily thus physical aggression in sibling relationships is mostly preferred by adolescents. Direct aggression is also preferred in romantic relationships since involvement of social network is wished to be avoided. Thus Richardson and Green (2006) conclude that adolescents' use of different types of aggression depend on the context of the relationship.

1.5 Attitudes and Violence

Attitudes are hypothetical constructs which are influenced by an individual's internal value system. Attitudes are formed through the complex evaluation of life experiences. Although attitudes develop from internal and covert processes they can be observed through behaviors because it is known that attitudes have direct influence on behaviors (Kraus, 1995).

The role of attitudes on engaging in violence is one of the issues that have been studied by many researchers in the area of aggression and violence (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Guerra, Husmann & Spindler, 2003; Schoiack-Estrom, Frey & Beland, 2002). In these studies the relation between normative beliefs and behaviors was investigated. Normative beliefs can be defined as an individual's perception of acceptability of that behavior. These normative beliefs can be general such as "It is OK to

engage in aggressive behaviors” or it can be situational such as “It is OK to hit someone if s/he hits you first”. The relation between normative beliefs and engaging in aggressive behaviors appears to be mutual. In other words, when a person frequently engage in aggressive behaviors s/he may develop normative beliefs about aggression or a person may have normative beliefs about aggressiveness and thus engage in aggressive behaviors more frequently compared to others. On the other hand, the relation between normative beliefs and behaviors are found to vary developmentally (Henry et al., 2000).

Huesmann and Guerra (1997) examined the development of normative beliefs of students among first graders to fifth graders for two years. The results of the study yielded that normative beliefs was not stable for first and second grade students and moderate stability was obtained in fourth grade. Thus, they concluded that early years of school was critical in the development of normative beliefs about aggression. Normative beliefs seem to develop in early years on the basis of child’s own behavior, the way these behaviors are reinforced, through observation and from the feedback they receive from parents, peers and teachers. However once they develop, it is harder to change them and they affect subsequent behaviors. In other words, aggressiveness increases the risk for future normative beliefs about aggression for early grades whereas for middle grades normative beliefs predict future aggressive behaviors.

Huesmann and Guerra (1997) come up with three different suggestions on how normative beliefs predict future behaviors. The first

suggestion is about the effect of normative beliefs on interpreting the others' behaviors. They propose that those children and adolescents with normative beliefs about aggression are more vulnerable to perceive hostile intentions even though there may not be any. Secondly, they suggest that normative beliefs in favor of aggression may result in retrieving more aggressive alternatives from behavior repertoire. Finally, since normative beliefs about aggression favor the use of aggressive behaviors, they won't be rejected. This was supported by the study of Erdley and Asher (1998) in which they found that students with normative beliefs about aggression were more likely to adopt aggressive behaviors and less likely to engage in prosocial or withdrawn strategies in their peer relations.

There are many other studies that investigated the relation between normative beliefs and aggressive behaviors. In a study by Guerra et al. (2007) it was found that those students with normative beliefs about aggression were more aggressive compared to others. In another study by Werner and Nixon (2005), normative beliefs about physical and relational aggression were examined. They showed that beliefs about physical and relational aggression were distinct and normative beliefs about relational aggression predicted relationally aggressive behaviors whereas normative beliefs about physical aggression predicted physically aggressive behaviors. Consistent with these findings Lim and Ang (2009) also showed that normative beliefs about aggression predicted physical, verbal and indirect aggressive behaviors in elementary school boys. All these studies show that attitudes or beliefs about aggression are important predictors of aggressive

behaviors and thus they should be investigated for different types of aggression.

1.6 Violence Exposure and Engagement in Violence

The relation between violence exposure and engaging in violent behaviors is an issue that has been examined for decades. Almost fifty years ago Curtis (1963; as cited in Widom, 1989) was one of the first to investigate the intergenerational transmission of violence. In his clinical note "Violence breeds violence- perhaps?" he explored the cyclical relation of violence and he proposed that abused and neglected children would become the future murderers or perpetrators of violent crimes. For Curtis, the relation between violence exposure and violent behaviors was a question that needed to be answered. However, today, there are many empirical findings that prove the relation between exposure to violence and engagement in violent behaviors (Allwood & Bell, 2008; Flannery et al., 2001). Widom (1989) stated that abuse and neglect constitute a risk factor for future violent behaviors however not all individuals who were abused during their childhood would become perpetrators of violent crimes (DuRant et al., 1994). Thus for today's researchers the main focus of interest is understanding the mediating variables that act either as a protective or risk factor for the development of violent behaviors.

There are many different theoretical explanations that interpret the mediating factors that play a role in the cyclical process between exposure to violence and engaging in violent behaviors. According to one model,

exposure to violence may result in maladaptations in cognitive, emotional and behavioral levels which may result in violent behaviors (Allwood & Bell, 2008). It is also known that exposure to violence and victimization is related with mental health problems. Many empirical findings suggest that victims of violence suffer from PTSD symptoms. One of the major symptoms of PTSD which is emotional dysregulation is considered to play a role in the cyclical relation between exposure to violence and engaging in violent behaviors. Emotional dysregulation may appear in two different ways; either as increased arousal or as emotional detachment (Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 1990). While increased arousal was related to aggressive behaviors (Lipschitz, Morgan & Southwick, 2002), emotional detachment was linked to serious violent crimes (Steiner et al., 1997). However, there are many other studies, done with non-trauma patients, which show connection between emotional dysregulation and engaging in aggressive behaviors (Eisenberg, 2000). These findings support the cyclical process between violence exposure and engaging in violent behaviors via emotional dysregulation caused by the traumatic violence experience (Allwood & Bell, 2008).

Another explanation is proposed by social-cognitive theories which may be defined as emotional adaptation or emotional desensitization. When a child is exposed to violence frequently his/her cognitive processes may be altered. Through her experience with violence she may learn that violent and aggressive behaviors are an instrument to get what you want. In other

words, violence may be internalized as acceptable since it serves as a tool for people to fulfill their needs (Bandura, 1973, Dodge et al., 1990).

Even though, two perspectives offer different pathways for the relation between exposure and engagement, studies show that they both serve to mediate the association between exposure to violence and engaging in violent behaviors. A child who is exposed to violence may view violent behaviors as acceptable through emotional desensitization and may exhibit violent behaviors through emotional dysregulation (Allwood & Bell, 2008).

Social information processing theory proposes a different but corresponding point of view to understand the process of violence exposure and violent behaviors cycle. According to social information processing theory, an individual first perceives the environmental stimuli, interprets the relevant cues, checks his/her behavior repertoire, analyzes the consequences of these possible behaviors, decides the most appropriate one and acts accordingly (Crick & Dodge, 1994). Studies that include aggressive children show that, these children have some deficits in all these steps compared to other children. They are prone to perceive environmental stimuli and encode the cues as more provocative. On the other hand, they experience problems in finding the appropriate behavior because their behavior repertoire includes more aggressive and less competent responses. They are more likely to view the consequences of aggressive behaviors as positive and efficient. Thus they are more likely to view others as dangerous and hostile and they act in a more aggressive way. Abuse and exposure to violence during childhood may result in problems in social information processing

and play a significant role in transmission from violence victim to perpetrator of violence (Crick & Dodge, 1996). As mentioned above, social information processing theory suggests a different but parallel point of view. Attachment and social learning theory supports the idea that being a victim of violence may cause problems in social information processing. Insecure attachment which is associated with abuse and trauma may cause a perception of the world as a dangerous place in which the person needs to protect him/herself from others' (Dutton, 2000, Wekerle & Wolf, 1998).

Psychodynamic explanation for the relation between violence exposure and engagement in violent behaviors can be based on the term "identification with aggressor". Although the term was first proposed by Ferenczi in 1932 (as cited in Frankel, 2002) Anna Freud's (1936) conceptualization of the term is different from Ferenczi's and most analysts use the conceptualization of Anna Freud. The conceptualization of Anna Freud proposes that identification plays a role in the development of superego but it is also used as a defense mechanism in the relation with objects who provoke anxiety. Through the mechanism of introjection the child internalizes the characteristics of the individual that provokes anxiety which helps him/her to cope with the anxiety and fear. "By impersonating the aggressor, assuming his attributes or imitating his aggression, the child transforms himself from the person threatened into the person who makes the threat" (p. 113, Freud, 1936; as cited in Frankel, 2002). By this way, the child turns from passive object to an active one and takes his/her revenge from the perpetrator by projecting his/her identified aggression to the

victim. In other words, the process of identification with the aggressor finalizes by projecting the aggression to others (Freud, 1936).

1.7 Research on Violence in Turkey

Kapıcıoğlu (2008) investigated the violence perception of university students. The main aim of the study was to understand how university students perceive violence and which behaviors were regarded as violent in this population. Perceived intention was found to be an important contributor for perceiving a behavior as violent. In addition, consistent with other studies, previous experiences with violence was found to be related with perception and definition of violence of the university students. A similar study was conducted by Deveci, Karadağ and Yılmaz (2008) but with a sample of 5th grade primary school students. The students were asked about their perceptions on violence and kinds of violent behaviors they directly or indirectly experience in their environment. The students defined violence as fighting, kicking, swearing, shouting etc. When they were asked to report types of aggressive behaviors they were exposed to in their environment the answers of children included similar behaviors that they used to define violence. In other words, definitions of violence were consistent with the violent behaviors they experienced in their environment which is consistent with Kapıcıoğlu's study (2008).

Çetin (2004), examined the age and gender effect on attitudes towards violence in a population of adolescents aged between 14-21. The results yielded a significant difference between males and females in terms

of attitudes, in other words, males had more positive attitudes towards violence. The effect of age on attitudes was investigated by dividing the sample into two groups as 14-17 and 18-21 and it was found that adolescents in the 14-17 age group had more positive attitudes towards violence.

Avcı (2006), compared the families of aggressive and nonaggressive adolescents in terms of family functioning, trait anger, expression of anger, alcohol use and delinquency. According to the results, families of violent adolescents lack the necessary skills for a better family functioning such as problem solving, anger management, communication and affective responsiveness. Nevertheless, trait anger was higher in families of violent adolescents. Finally, the results yielded that these families also report more use of alcohol and delinquent behaviors. In another study by Fiyakalı (2008), it was found that aggressiveness of adolescents whose parents were divorced was higher than their counterparts whose parents were together. However, in another study by Kanoğlu (2008) the relationship between family status was not related with aggressiveness of adolescents. Also very high and low SES were found to be related with higher aggression in adolescents compared to their peers from middle SES families.

About the risk factors related to school, Kanoğlu (2008) found that aggressiveness was related with academic performance. Students with a lower school performance scored higher in aggressiveness and in addition scored lower in anger management compared to their peers.

Although there are many studies on violence implemented with a Turkish population, there are no studies that investigate the relationship between different violence exposures, normative beliefs and engaging in violent behaviors. In addition, different types of aggression, especially relational aggression, is not studied in Turkey. Since attitudes about violence and violent behaviors is also affected by cultural aspects, this study is aimed to provide a deeper understanding of Turkish adolescents' perception of violence, their experiences and the way they engage in these kind of behaviors.

1.8 Present Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence among 8th and 9th grade students. The age difference between 8th and 9th grade is minimal however still they are very different since 8th graders are primary school students whereas 9th graders are high school students which enables a meaningful comparison.

Based on previous research, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

- 1) A significant positive relationship between exposure, acceptance and engagement in violence is expected.
- 2) Gender differences in acceptance of violence as well as engagement in it and exposure to it are expected.

a) It is predicted that males will be more exposed to verbal and physical violence whereas females will be more exposed to sexual and relational violence.

b) Males are expected to show higher acceptance for verbal, physical and sexual violence whereas females will show higher acceptance for relational violence.

c) Males are expected to engage more in verbal, physical and sexual violence whereas females are predicted to engage more in relational violence.

In addition to these hypotheses, the relationship between demographic variables (such as grade, school type, family status, criminality in the family) with exposure, acceptance and engagement in violence is investigated.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1 Sample

The data was collected from 12 different schools in Istanbul. These schools were selected randomly to also be a part of substance abuse prevention program. 1022 students participated to the study. 23 of them were dropped due to the fact that they did not fill the entire questionnaire. 50.2% of the participants are females and 49.8% of the participants are males. All of the participants were studying in the 8th or 9th grade however the age of the participants ranged from 13 to 17 (M= 15.48, SD= .66). The demographic characteristics of the sample are given below in Table 1.

Table 1

Sociodemographic characteristics

	N	%
Gender		
Male	496	49.8
Female	499	50.2
Grade		
8 th grade	683	68.9
9 th grade	308	31.1
School type		
Public primary school	658	65.9
Private primary school	33	3.3
Anatolian high school	221	22.1
Vocational high school	87	8.7

Table 1

Sociodemographic characteristics (cont'd)

	N	%
Mother's education		
Not literate	102	10.2
Literate	24	2.4
Primary school	457	45.9
Secondary school	174	17.5
High school	155	15.6
University or higher degree	84	8.4
Father's education		
Not literate	19	1.9
Literate	18	1.8
Primary school	394	39.7
Secondary school	188	18.9
High school	237	23.9
University or higher degree	137	13.8
Family status		
Parents living together	895	90.1
Divorced	49	4.9
Separated	18	1.8
Mother passed away	5	0.5
Father passed away	22	2.2
Both mother and father passed away	4	0.4
Perceived socioeconomic status		
Very low	37	3.7
Low	126	12.7
Middle	733	73.6
High	100	10.0

Table 1

Sociodemographic characteristics (cont'd)

	N	%
Criminality in the family		
Yes	72	7.3
No	916	92.7
Alcohol consumption		
Never	811	81.3
Very rare	88	8.8
Sometimes	58	5.8
Often	40	4.0

2.2 Instruments

The instruments consisted of three questionnaires and a demographic form.

2.2.1 Demographic form

Demographic form consisted of 14 questions and included questions about gender, birth date, grade, school type, educational level of the parents, number of siblings, family status, perceived income of the family, criminality in the family, alcohol use and verification of the sincerity of given answers by asking if the participant would tell the truth if she was exposed to violence or engaged in violence.

2.2.2 Questionnaires

Three questionnaires were formed to gain information about participants' relation with violence; exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence. Since four different types of violence were being studied, the questionnaires consisted of four subcategories for verbal, physical, sexual and relational aggression.

2.2.2.1 Exposure to Violence Questionnaire

Exposure to Violence Questionnaire consists of 24 questions to measure the frequency of exposure to violence of each subject. In the literature, being a witness of a violent act is also counted as exposure to violence (Guerra, Huessmann & Spindler, 2003). Thus the questionnaire includes two versions of each question; being the direct victim of the violence and being the indirect victim of violence by witnessing. There are six items for each type of violence; while three questions measure direct exposure (ex: I've been beaten up by someone), the other three measure indirect exposure (ex: I've seen someone being beaten up).

The participants were expected to choose from four different responses according to their experiences in the last 12 months. The responses included "never", "once or twice", "three – five times" and "six times or more" (See Appendix).

2.2.2.2 Acceptance of Violence Questionnaire

Acceptance of Violence Questionnaire consists of 12 items, including three items for each subcategory. It aims to measure the extent of the acceptance of violent behaviors. The items are open-ended expressions (ex: To beat someone up in some circumstances is...) and the participant is expected to choose from four responses that range from “completely acceptable” to “completely unacceptable” the one that best suits him/her. The other responses are “quite acceptable” and “unacceptable”. The coding of the responses ranges from 0 to 3 and higher scores indicate an attitude towards acceptance (See Appendix).

2.2.2.3 Engagement in Violence Questionnaire

Engagement in Violence Questionnaire consists of 12 items, including three items for each subcategory. The questionnaire is formed to measure the frequency of engagement in violent behaviors in the last 12 months. The items and responses are identical with the items in Exposure to Violence Questionnaire (See Appendix).

2.3 Procedure

The respondents participated in a classroom setting. First, the participants were informed about the study and they were informed that the participation was voluntary and the responses were confidential. After informing the students, the questionnaires were given to the students. The application took approximately 25 minutes.

2.3.1 Development of the questionnaires

There are many questionnaires in the literature that have been used to measure aggression or violence. However the content of these questionnaires is a combination of attitudes, behaviors and character traits. In other words, to assess an individual's aggression or his/her attitudes towards violence, the questionnaires include items on personality (such as "I easily get angry with other people"), behavioral (such as "When I get angry, I lose my control and hurt others") and cognitive (such as "I think it's OK to hurt someone if you are really angry") level. Thus, independent questionnaires were needed for this study to analyze the relationship between behavioral and cognitive level.

The items in all questionnaires were coded as either measuring behavior or attitude. Since personality is not a point of consideration in this study, items measuring personality traits were left out. By this way an item pool was created to develop the questionnaires. As a second step, the items were divided into groups reflecting four types of violence.

Taking into consideration the fact that the adolescents are easily distracted it was aimed to develop short and succinct questionnaires. Thus three items that reflect different levels of violence (such as beating up, pulling a knife and seriously injuring for physical violence) were selected for each category. A pilot study was conducted to test the questionnaires and to make sure that the items were comprehensible for the students.

2.3.2 Pilot study

2.3.2.1 Sample

The pilot study took place in a public school in Beyoglu, Istanbul. Thirty four 8th grade students participated to the study. Twenty of the students were males.

2.3.2.2 Instruments

First draft of the questionnaires was used in the pilot study. The first draft of the demographic form consisted of eight questions. After the pilot study, it was decided to include more questions to gather more information that could be relevant.

In the first draft, Exposure to Violence Questionnaire consisted of eighteen questions; four for verbal, four for physical, four for sexual and six for relational violence. After the pilot study, it was preferred to equalize the number of questions for each subcategory. Thus, the number of questions was increased to six for every subcategory. In addition, in the first draft of Exposure to Violence and Engagement in Violence Questionnaires, the responses were as “never”, “rarely”, “sometimes” and “often”. According to the feedback of the participants they were hesitant to choose the correct frequency. Since this kind of categorization could also depend on individuals’ own perceptions of frequency, responses were revised as the number of times of the inquired exposure.

The number of questions was same in the first draft of the Acceptance of Violence Questionnaire however the format of the questionnaire was different. The items were close-ended expressions (eg: It's OK to hit someone if you are angry with him/her) and the participants were expected to answer as "I agree" or "I don't agree". Since this kind of response style limits the participants' position towards the acceptance of violence the items and the responses were revised. The items were changed to open-ended expressions (eg: To hit someone in some circumstances...) and the number of possible responses increased to four as "completely acceptable", "completely unacceptable", "quite acceptable" and "unacceptable".

After the pilot study, the expressions of some items were changed according to the feedback of the participants to make those items more comprehensible. There was no change in terms of content of the questions based on the feedback received from students.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1 Description of the sample

1022 participants who were students in fourteen different schools were included in the study however 23 of them were excluded because they did not fill all the questionnaires. 50.2% of the sample was female and 49.8% was male. The mean age of the sample was 15.48 (SD=.66). 68.9% of the participants were 8th grade students whereas 31.1% were 9th graders. 65.9% of the participants were students of public primary schools which were followed by Anatolian high schools with a 22.1%. Only 3.3% was private primary school students and 8.7% was vocational high school students.

For the mother's and father's educational background the most prevalent response was primary school with a percent of 45.9 and 39.7 respectively.

The parents of 90.1% of the participants were living together whereas 4.9% were divorced and 1.8% was separated. The percentage of the loss of the mother was 0.5% whereas for the loss of the father the percentage was 2.2%. The percentage of loss of both parents was 0.4. As for the perceived income of the family, 3.7% of the sample indicated their socioeconomic status as very low, 12.7% as low, 73.6% as middle and 10% as high.

Criminality in the family was measured by an item that questioned whether the participant had a relative that committed a crime. 7.3% of the

sample indicated that they had a family member that committed a crime. As for the alcohol consumption 81,3% of the participants stated that they never used alcohol.

3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics for Exposure to Violence, Acceptance of Violence and Engagement in Violence

In terms of exposure to violence the minimum score that could be obtained from the questionnaire was 0 whereas the maximum score was 72. For direct and indirect exposure a score 0 to 36 could be obtained. For each different violence type the scores could vary between 0 and 18 and when direct and indirect exposure was taken into consideration scores could be from 0 to 9. In the Acceptance of Violence Questionnaire, the possible minimum score was 0 and the possible maximum score was 36. For different types of aggression the scores changed from 0 to 9. The minimum and maximum scores that could be obtained from Engagement in Violence Questionnaire were 0 and 36 respectively whereas in terms of different aggression styles these scores were 0 and 9. In terms of exposure, verbal aggression was found to have the highest mean score, followed by relational, sexual and finally physical. On the contrary, physical aggression has the highest mean score in terms of acceptance of violence compared to acceptance of other types of aggression. As for the engagement in violence; verbal and physical violence has the highest mean scores. Mean scores and standard deviations for variables related to exposure, acceptance and engagement are given below in the Table 2.

Table 2

Mean scores for variables related to exposure, acceptance and engagement

	Mean scores (SD)
Exposure to violence	26.72 (12.13)
Direct exposure to violence	7.74 (5.99)
Indirect exposure to violence	18.98 (7.58)
Exposure to verbal aggression	10.37 (3.85)
Direct exposure to verbal aggression	3.49 (2.48)
Indirect exposure to verbal aggression	6.87 (2.03)
Exposure to physical aggression	4.88 (3.50)
Direct exposure to physical aggression	1.11 (1.63)
Indirect exposure to physical aggression	3.77 (2.35)
Exposure to sexual aggression	5.50 (3.97)
Direct exposure to sexual aggression	1.46 (1.99)
Indirect exposure to sexual aggression	4.04 (2.61)
Exposure to relational aggression	5.97 (3.69)
Direct exposure to relational aggression	1.68 (1.79)
Indirect exposure to relational aggression	4.30 (2.45)
Acceptance of violence	10.40 (6.81)
Acceptance of verbal aggression	3.32 (2.19)
Acceptance of physical aggression	3.53 (2.30)
Acceptance of sexual aggression	1.59 (2.05)
Acceptance of relational aggression	1.96 (1.93)
Engagement in violence	5.77 (6.30)
Engagement in verbal aggression	2.61 (2.38)
Engagement in physical aggression	1.55 (1.76)
Engagement in sexual aggression	.85 (1.86)
Engagement in relational aggression	.76 (1.60)

3.1.1.1 Classification of the Sample in Terms of Exposure to Violence

When the scores were used to determine the low, middle and high exposure groups; those participants that received scores from 0 to 24 for overall exposure to violence were considered to be in low exposure group, 25 to 48 to be in middle exposure group and finally 49 to 72 to be in high exposure group. For direct and indirect exposure, cut off points were determined for low exposure as 0 to 12, for middle exposure as 13 to 24 and for high exposure as 25 to 36. The distribution of the sample according to these determined cut off points are given below.

Table 3

Distribution of the sample for exposure to violence

	N	%
Exposure to violence		
Low exposure	467	46.7
Middle exposure	487	48.7
High exposure	45	4.5
Direct exposure to violence		
Low exposure	790	79.1
Middle exposure	195	19.5
High exposure	14	1.4
Indirect exposure to violence		
Low exposure	207	20.7
Middle exposure	553	55.4
High exposure	239	23.9

As it is seen in the table above, 45 participants out of 999 was included in the high exposure group. Sociodemographic characteristics of these participants were examined and the results are shown in the table below.

Table 4

Sociodemographic characteristics of high exposure group

	N	%
Gender		
Male	35	77.8
Female	10	22.2
Grade		
8 th grade	25	55.6
9 th grade	20	44.4
School type		
Public primary school	25	55.6
Private primary school	-	-
Anatolian high school	13	28.9
Vocational high school	7	15.6
Mother's education		
Not literate	2	4.4
Literate	1	2.2
Primary school	24	53.3
Secondary school	6	13.3
High school	8	17.8
University or higher degree	4	8.9

Table 4

Sociodemographic characteristics of high exposure group (cont'd)

	N	%
Father's education		
Not literate	1	2.3
Literate	-	-
Primary school	16	36.4
Secondary school	8	18.2
High school	12	27.3
University or higher degree	7	15.9
Family status		
Parents living together	40	90.9
Divorced	1	2.3
Separated	-	-
Mother passed away	-	-
Father passed away	1	2.3
Both mother and father passed away	2	4.5
Perceived socioeconomic status		
Very low	2	4.4
Low	8	17.8
Middle	30	66.7
High	5	11.1
Criminality in the family		
Yes	9	20.5
No	35	79.5
Alcohol consumption		
Never	25	55.6
Very rare	5	11.1
Sometimes	7	15.6
Often	8	17.8

3.1.1.2 Classification of the Sample in Terms of Acceptance of Violence

In terms of determining the low, middle and high acceptance groups; those participants that received scores from 0 to 12 were included in the low acceptance group, 13 to 24 in the middle acceptance group and finally 25 to 36 in the high acceptance group. The distribution of the sample according to these determined cut off points are given below.

Table 5

Distribution of the sample for acceptance to violence

	N	%
Acceptance of violence		
Low acceptance	654	65.5
Middle acceptance	320	32.0
High acceptance	25	2.5

When the cut off scores were used to determine the groups, 25 participants were included in the high acceptance group as shown in Table 5. Sociodemographic properties of these participants that were in high acceptance group are given below in Table 6.

Table 6

Sociodemographic characteristics of high acceptance group

	N	%
Gender		
Male	18	72.0
Female	7	28.0
Grade		
8 th grade	15	60.0
9 th grade	10	40.0
School type		
Public primary school	14	56.0
Private primary school	1	4.0
Anatolian high school	7	28.0
Vocational high school	3	12.0
Mother's education		
Not literate	4	16.0
Literate	-	-
Primary school	11	44.0
Secondary school	4	16.0
High school	2	8.0
University or higher degree	4	16.0
Father's education		
Not literate	2	8.0
Literate	1	4.0
Primary school	7	28.0
Secondary school	6	24.0
High school	4	16.0
University or higher degree	5	20.0

Table 6

Sociodemographic characteristics of high acceptance group (cont'd)

	N	%
Family status		
Parents living together	21	87.5
Divorced	2	8.3
Separated	-	-
Mother passed away	-	-
Father passed away	-	-
Both mother and father passed away	2	4.2
Perceived socioeconomic status		
Very low	1	4.0
Low	3	12.0
Middle	17	68.0
High	4	16.0
Criminality in the family		
Yes	5	20.0
No	20	80.0
Alcohol consumption		
Never	16	64.0
Very rare	1	4.0
Sometimes	3	12.0
Often	5	20.0

3.1.1.3 Classification of the Sample in Terms of Engagement in Violence

The sample was classified as low, middle and high engagement groups according to the scores they obtained from the Engagement in Violence Questionnaire. Those participants that scored 0 to 12 were involved in low, 13 to 24 were involved in middle and finally 25 to 36 were involved in high engagement groups. The distribution of the sample according to this classification is given below.

Table 7

Distribution of the sample for acceptance to violence

	N	%
Engagement in violence		
Low engagement	869	87.0
Middle engagement	112	11.2
High engagement	18	1.8

As shown in Table 7, only 18 participants out of 999 scored between 25 and 36 and they are included in the high engagement group. In the table below, sociodemographic characteristics of these participants are given.

Table 8

Sociodemographic characteristics of high engagement group

	N	%
Gender		
Male	17	94.4
Female	1	5.6
Grade		
8 th grade	11	61.1
9 th grade	7	38.9
School type		
Public primary school	11	61.1
Private primary school	-	-
Anatolian high school	5	27.8
Vocational high school	2	11.1
Mother's education		
Not literate	3	16.7
Literate	-	-
Primary school	6	33.3
Secondary school	4	22.2
High school	2	11.1
University or higher degree	3	16.7
Father's education		
Not literate	3	16.7
Literate	-	-
Primary school	4	22.2
Secondary school	1	5.6
High school	5	27.8
University or higher degree	5	27.8

Table 8

Sociodemographic characteristics of high engagement group (cont'd)

	N	%
Family status		
Parents living together	14	82.4
Divorced	1	5.9
Separated	1	5.9
Mother passed away	-	-
Father passed away	-	-
Both mother and father passed away	1	5.9
Perceived socioeconomic status		
Very low	3	16.7
Low	2	11.1
Middle	5	27.8
High	8	44.4
Criminality in the family		
Yes	6	33.3
No	12	66.7
Alcohol consumption		
Never	6	33.3
Very rare	1	5.6
Sometimes	3	16.7
Often	8	44.4

3.2 Relation between Exposure to Violence, Acceptance of Violence and Engagement in Violence

In order to investigate the relation between violence exposure, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence, a correlation analysis was computed.

Exposure to violence had two subcategories as direct exposure and indirect exposure. A correlation matrix was formed between total direct exposure score, total indirect exposure score, total acceptance and total engagement scores. According to the results of the correlation analysis, all of the variables were positively and significantly correlated with each other. The strongest relation was between engagement in violence and direct exposure ($r = .53, p < .01$). A significant and strong relation was also found between engagement in violence and acceptance of it ($r = .53, p < .01$). A positive but medium strength correlation was seen between acceptance and indirect and direct exposure ($r = .34, p < .01, r = .27, p < .01$ respectively). The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Correlations of DEV, InDEV, AV and EIV

	DEV	InDEV	EIV
AV	.270**	.342**	.526**
EIV	.529**	.506**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.2.1 Verbal Aggression

The relation between exposure to verbal aggression, normalizing and engaging in verbal aggression was investigated and found that there is a significant and positive relationship between these constructs. The strongest correlation was between acceptance and engagement in verbally violent behaviors ($r = .49, p < .01$). In other words as acceptance of verbal aggression increases engagement in verbally aggressive behaviors also does or vice versa. On the other hand, engagement in verbally violent behaviors was also highly correlated with direct and indirect exposure ($r = .47, p < .01$ and $r = .45, p < .01$ respectively). Acceptance of verbal aggression was positively correlated with indirect and direct exposure ($r = .25, p < .01$ and $r = .17, p < .01$ respectively) but with a small effect size. The results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Correlations of DEVA, InDEVA, AVA and EIVA

	DEVA	InDEVA	EIVA
AVA	.171**	.252**	.488**
EIVA	.474**	.453**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.2.2 Physical Aggression

Another subcategory of violence in this study was physical aggression. When the relation between exposure to physical aggression and acceptance of physical aggression was examined by a correlation analysis, the results showed that engagement in physical aggression was positively and highly correlated with direct exposure to physical aggression ($r = .50$, $p < .01$). There was also a significant and strong association between engagement and indirect exposure ($r = .47$, $p < .01$). The correlations between acceptance of physical aggression and engagement in verbally aggressive behaviors and indirect exposure to verbal aggression were significant but medium strength ($r = .39$, $p < .01$, $r = .31$, $p < .01$, respectively) and the significant correlation between acceptance and direct exposure was smaller in effect size ($r = .26$, $p < .01$). The results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Correlations of DEPA, InDEPA, APA and EIPA

	DEPA	InDEPA	EIPA
APA	.257**	.311**	.395**
EIPA	.502**	.467**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.2.3 Sexual Aggression

When the correlation analysis was applied for sexual aggression, the results yielded that all variables were correlated with each other at an alpha level of .01. As can be seen in Table 12 below, the strongest relation was between acceptance of sexual aggression and engaging in sexually aggressive behaviors ($r = .56, p < .01$). There were significant but medium strength associations between engagement in sexual aggression and indirect and direct exposure ($r = .40, p < .01$ and $r = .33, p < .01$, respectively). A medium strength correlation was also present between acceptance of verbal aggression and indirect exposure ($r = .34, p < .01$). On the other hand, the correlation between acceptance and direct exposure was small in effect size ($r = .19, p < .01$)

Table 12

Correlations of DESA, InDESA, ASA and EISA

	DESA	InDESA	EISA
ASA	.186**	.337**	.559**
EISA	.328**	.398**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.2.4 Relational Aggression

Table 13 shows the results of the correlation analysis about relational aggression. As it is seen below, there was a significant and positive relationship between all variables however the strongest correlation was between acceptance and engagement ($r = .42, p < .01$). This was followed by a medium strength correlation between engagement in relational aggression and direct exposure ($r = .34, p < .01$). On the other hand, the significant correlation between engagement and indirect exposure was smaller in effect size ($r = .27, p < .01$). The correlation between acceptance of relational aggression and direct ($r = .16, p < .01$) and indirect exposure ($r = .16, p < .01$) was small in effect size.

Table 13

Correlations of DERA, InDERA, ARA and EIRA

	DERA	InDERA	EIRA
ARA	.164**	.161**	.415**
EIRA	.345**	.271**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.3 Gender and Violence

One of the hypotheses of the study was that there would be a difference between males and females in terms of being exposed to violence, accepting violence and engaging in violence. To investigate the differences between genders a one-way ANOVA was computed. The test yielded significant results for each variable at an alpha level .01. The most significant difference between genders was for engagement in violence ($F(1, 993) = 99.12, p < .01$) which was followed by acceptance of violence ($F(1, 993) = 62.50, p < .01$). The mean scores, standard deviations and F values are shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV according to gender

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Female	Male	F
AV	8.74 (6.11)	12.06 (7.09)	62.50**
EIV	3.88 (4.54)	7.68 (7.21)	99.12**
DEV	6.80 (5.29)	8.68 (6.49)	24.97**
InDEV	17.74 (6.96)	20.22 (7.96)	27.32**

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.3.1 Gender and Verbal Aggression

To see if there was a significant difference between genders in terms of verbal aggression, one way ANOVA analysis were computed for AVA, EIVA, DEVA and InDEVA. According to the results, there was a significant difference for all variables. Engagement in verbally aggressive behaviors was found to be the variable in which the difference between genders was largest ($F(1, 993) = 56.89, p < .01$). In other words, males engage in verbally aggressive behaviors more often than females. The mean scores, standard deviations and F values for verbal aggression are given in Table 15.

Table 15

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AVA, EIVA, DEVA and InDEVA according to gender

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Female	Male	F
AVA	3.10 (2.17)	3.55 (2.19)	10.22*
EIVA	2.06 (2.05)	3.17 (2.55)	56.89**
DEVA	3.05 (2.33)	3.94 (2.55)	33.26**
InDEVA	6.69 (1.98)	7.06 (2.07)	8.48*

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.3.2 Gender and Physical Aggression

The difference between males and females in terms of physical aggression was examined by a one-way analysis. There was a significant difference between genders in all variables at an alpha level .01. As can be seen in Table 16, the most significant difference between males and females was on direct exposure ($F(1, 993) = 101.86, p < .01$) which means that males are significantly more exposed to direct physical aggression when compared with females.

Table 16

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for APA, EIPA, DEPA and InDEPA according to gender

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Female	Male	F
APA	2.94 (2.18)	4.11 (2.26)	69.13**
EIPA	1.02 (1.32)	2.08 (1.97)	99.57**
DEPA	.61 (1.13)	1.61 (1.89)	101.86**
InDEPA	3.15 (2.09)	4.40 (2.43)	76.10**

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.3.3 Gender and Sexual Aggression

When differences between genders were compared in terms of sexual aggression by one-way analysis of variance, a significant difference is established for all kinds of violence. As it was the case for verbal aggression, the most significant difference was present in engagement ($F(1, 993) = 113.68, p < .01$) which was followed by acceptance of physical aggression ($F(1, 993) = 103.72, p < .01$). In other words, males tend to view sexual aggression as more acceptable and engage in physically aggressive behaviors more compared to females. However females report being the victim of sexual aggression more frequently although males report witnessing it more often. The mean, standard deviations and F values are shown in Table 17.

Table 17

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for ASA, EISA, DESA and InDESA according to gender

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Female	Male	F
ASA	.96 (1.51)	2.22 (2.32)	103.72**
EISA	.26 (.99)	1.45 (2.29)	113.68**
DESA	1.60 (1.94)	1.31 (2.03)	5.40*
InDESA	3.65 (2.36)	4.42 (2.77)	22.51**

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.3.4 Gender and Relational Aggression

One-way ANOVA analyses were computed for ARA, EIRA, DERA and InDERA to see if there was a significant difference between genders in terms of relational aggression. A significant difference was found for ARA, EIRA, DERA but not for InDERA. As it is illustrated in Table 18, the most significant difference between genders was in terms of engagement in relational aggression with males reporting more engagement. ($F(1, 993) = 18.99, p < .01$). It is important to note that the difference between genders is the smallest for relational violence when compared to other types. In addition there is no gender difference in the indirect experiencing of this type of violence. It should also be noted that the mean values are much lower for relational violence. That is to say, it is the type of violence that is least frequently reported by both males and females.

Table 18

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for ARA, EIRA, DERA and InDERA according to gender

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Female	Male	F
ARA	1.74 (1.79)	2.18 (2.03)	13.23**
EIRA	.54 (1.23)	.98 (1.88)	18.99**
DERA	1.53 (1.57)	1.81 (1.99)	6.06*
InDERA	4.26 (2.31)	4.33 (2.57)	.24

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.4 School Type and Violence

In order to examine the effect of school type on violence, the participants were separated into three categories in terms of school type as public primary school student (PS), Anatolian high school student (AHS) and vocational high school student (VHS). The difference between groups in terms of AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV was compared with a one-way analysis of variance. The results yielded that there was a significant difference between groups for only AV at an alpha level of .05 ($F(2, 963) = 4.48, p < .05$). According to the Tukey HSD test the AV mean score of vocational high school students was significantly higher than the AV mean score of primary school students. The mean scores, standard deviations and *F* values are given below in Table 19.

Table 19

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AV, EIV, DEVA and InDEV according to school type

	Mean Scores (SD)			
	PS	AHS	VHS	F
AV	9.99 (6.81)	10.60 (6.64)	12.25 (6.89)	4.479*
EIV	5.60 (6.21)	6.39 (6.83)	5.71 (6.20)	1.305
DEV	7.97 (5.85)	7.47 (6.16)	7.30 (6.54)	.899
InDEV	18.80 (7.44)	18.70 (7.58)	20.84 (8.18)	2.973

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.4.1 School Type and Verbal Aggression

When the mean scores for AVA, EIVA, DEVA and InDEVA was compared a significant difference was found for AVA and DEVA ($F(2, 964) = 17.04$, $F(2, 964) = 7.84$ respectively, $p < .05$). A Tukey HSD test showed that mean scores of primary school students were significantly lower than Anatolian and vocational high school student for AVA but significantly higher for DEVA questionnaires. The mean scores, standard deviations and F values are given below in Table 20.

Table 20

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AVA, EIVA, DEVA and InDEVA according to school type

	Mean Scores (SD)			
	PS	AHS	VHS	F
AVA	3.02 (2.16)	3.93 (2.14)	3.71 (2.14)	16.37**
EIVA	2.51 (2.37)	2.93 (2.39)	2.48 (2.42)	2.73
DEVA	3.73 (2.47)	3.12 (2.35)	2.88 (2.51)	8.24**
InDEVA	6.76 (2.06)	7.07 (1.90)	7.10 (2.05)	2.50

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.4.2 School Type and Physical Aggression

Differences between groups were compared in terms of physical aggression for APA, EIPA, DEPA and InDEPA. The most significant difference was found to be for indirect exposure to physical aggression ($F(2, 963) = 23.99, p < .01$). A significant difference was also present for acceptance and direct exposure ($F(2, 963) = 4.55, F(2, 963) = 4.50$, respectively, $p < .05$). According to the Tukey test, all groups differed significantly in terms of InDEPA. For acceptance of verbal aggression, mean score of vocational high school students was significantly higher than primary school and Anatolian high school students. On the other hand, for DEPA, the difference between the mean score of primary school students

and vocational high school students was significant. The mean scores, standard deviations and F values are given below in Table 21.

Table 21

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for APA, EIPA, DEPA and InDEPA according to school type

	Mean Scores (SD)			
	PS	AHS	VHS	F
APA	3.46 (2.27)	3.40 (2.29)	4.22 (2.33)	4.55*
EIPA	1.57 (1.73)	1.52 (1.89)	1.57 (1.71)	.07
DEPA	1.19 (1.62)	.84 (1.53)	1.30 (1.98)	4.50*
InDEPA	3.92 (2.24)	3.02 (2.36)	4.92 (2.62)	23.99**

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.4.3 School Type and Sexual Aggression

One-way ANOVA was computed for sexual aggression to find out if any significant difference was present between school types. The most significant difference between groups was present for indirect exposure to sexual aggression ($F(2, 963) = 5.97, p < .05$). A significant difference was also present for ASA and DESA ($F(2, 963) = 4.02, F(2, 963) = 4.26$ respectively, $p < .05$). Tukey HSD test yielded that the mean scores of participants from vocational high school was significantly higher than the

participants from primary schools and Anatolian high schools for InDESA. For ASA, the significant difference was between Anatolian and vocational high school students and for DESA the difference was between primary and Anatolian high school students. The mean scores, standard deviations and F values are shown in Table 22.

Table 22

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for ASA, EISA, DESA and InDESA according to school type

	Mean Scores (SD)			
	PS	AHS	VHS	F
ASA	1.59 (1.99)	1.37 (2.20)	2.10 (2.12)	4.02*
EISA	.82 (1.83)	.94 (1.98)	.86 (1.88)	.42
DESA	1.35 (1.87)	1.77 (2.31)	1.70 (2.07)	4.26*
InDESA	3.91 (2.55)	4.01 (2.48)	4.92 (2.94)	5.97*

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.4.4 School Type and Relational Aggression

When one-way ANOVA was computed for relational aggression a significant difference was obtained only for InDERA ($F(2, 963) = 3.29$, $p < .05$). When a Tukey HSD test was computed to analyze the difference between groups, the results yielded that the mean score of Anatolian high

school students was significantly higher than the mean score of primary school students and vocational high school students. The mean scores, standard deviations and F values are given in Table 23.

Table 23

Mean scores, standard deviations for ARA, EIRA, DERA and InDERA according to school type

	Mean Scores (SD)			
	PS	AHS	VHS	F
ARA	1.92 (1.90)	1.90 (1.98)	2.22 (1.92)	.98
EIRA	.69 (1.54)	.99 (1.81)	.71 (1.57)	2.99
DERA	1.70 (1.76)	1.75 (1.92)	1.41 (1.83)	1.16
InDERA	4.21 (2.41)	4.60 (2.54)	3.90 (2.38)	3.29*

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.5 Grade and Violence

The sample consisted of 8th and 9th grade students thus one-way analysis of variance was computed to see if there was a significant difference between the two grades in terms of the mean scores for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV. According to the results, there was a significant difference between grades for AV ($F(1, 989) = 4.51, p < .05$). In other words, 9th graders scored significantly higher than the 8th graders in terms of

acceptance of violence. The mean scores, standard deviations and *F* values according to grade are given below in Table 24.

Table 24

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV according to grade

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	8 th graders	9 th graders	<i>F</i>
AV	10.08 (6.82)	11.07 (6.74)	4.51*
EIV	5.53 (6.10)	6.20 (6.66)	2.39
DEV	7.87 (5.85)	7.42 (6.26)	1.16
InDEV	18.87 (7.51)	19.30 (7.80)	.70

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.6 Family Status and Violence

According to family status the participants were categorized according to five groups as “together”, “divorced”, “separated”, “mother passed away”, “father passed away” and “mother and father passed away”. One-way ANOVA was computed for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV to analyze the differences between groups. According to the results there was a significant difference between groups for EIV and InDEV at an alpha level .05 ($F(5, 987) = 3.98$, $F(5, 987) = 2.31$, respectively, $p < .05$). According to the Tukey HSD test results, “mother and father passed away” group’s mean score was significantly higher than “together”, “divorced”, “mother passed

away” and “father passed away” groups mean scores for EIV. However for InDEV, the significant difference was only present between “mother and father passed away” group and “together” and “father passed away” group. The mean scores, standard deviations and F values for each group are given below in Table 25.

Table 25

Mean scores, standard deviations for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV according to family status

	Mean Scores (SD)						
	Together	Divorced	Seperated	Mother passed away	Father passed away	Mother and father passed away	<i>F</i>
AV	10.29 (6.76)	11.82 (7.07)	11.89 (6.29)	12.00 (3.46)	8.82 (5.59)	16.00 (10.61)	1.50
EIV	5.60 (6.10)	6.31 (6.78)	9.33 (7.19)	3.20 (1.92)	3.91 (3.75)	15.50 (18.89)	3.98*
DEV	7.69 (5.93)	7.24 (6.21)	9.55 (6.44)	5.00 (2.00)	6.91 (5.60)	15.50 (9.54)	2.07
InDEV	18.87 (7.50)	19.67 (8.24)	21.17 (7.82)	16.80 (7.05)	17.45 (7.94)	29.75 (6.50)	2.31*

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3.7 Criminality in the Family and Violence

One-way ANOVA was computed to see if there was a significant difference between those who had relatives in the family that committed a crime and those who had not for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV. The difference between groups found to be significant for each variable at an alpha level of 01. As can be see in Table 26, the most significant difference was present for engagement in violence ($F(1, 986) = 90.45, p < .01$) which means that those who had a family member that committed a crime scored higher on engagement in violence questionnaire compared to others.

Table 26

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AV, EIV, DEV and InDEV according to criminality in the family

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Yes	No	F
AV	14.79 (7.37)	10.05 (6.65)	33.43**
EIV	12.21 (8.90)	5.22 (5.72)	90.45**
DEV	11.57 (6.70)	7.38 (5.78)	34.29**
InDEV	22.82 (7.45)	18.63 (7.51)	20.78**

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.7.1 Criminality in the Family and Verbal Aggression

In order to see whether there was a difference between participants who had criminality in the family or not separate analyses of variance was conducted for the four different kinds of verbal aggression. The results showed that a significant difference was present for all variables at an alpha level .01. Engagement in verbal aggression was found to be the variable which had the largest difference between groups ($F(1, 986) = 41.16, p < .01$) which was followed by acceptance of verbal aggression ($F(1, 986) = 21.76, p < .01$). There was a significant but smaller difference for DEVA and InDEVA ($F(1, 986) = 12.40, F(1, 986) = 4.44$, respectively, $p < .01$). The mean scores, standard deviations and F values are given below in Table 27.

Table 27

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for AVA, EIVA, DEVA and InDEVA according to criminality in the family

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Yes	No	F
AVA	4.47 (2.31)	3.23 (2.16)	21.76**
EIVA	4.29 (2.77)	2.46 (2.29)	41.16**
DEVA	4.46 (2.45)	3.40 (2.46)	12.40**
InDEVA	7.35 (2.02)	6.82 (2.02)	4.44**

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.7.2 Criminality in the Family and Physical Aggression

The mean scores for different types of physical aggression were compared in terms of having a family member that committed a crime or not to find out if there was a significant difference between groups. According to the results of one-way ANOVA analyses, a significant difference between groups was established for all variables. As shown below, in Table 28, the most significant difference between groups was present for engagement in physical aggression ($F(1, 986) = 87.63, p < .01$).

Table 28

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values APA, EIPA, DEPA and InDEPA according to criminality in the family

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Yes	No	F
APA	4.35 (2.06)	3.46 (2.31)	10.05*
EIPA	3.33 (2.41)	1.40 (1.61)	87.63**
DEPA	1.97 (2.04)	1.03 (1.56)	23.10**
InDEPA	4.97 (2.59)	3.67 (2.31)	20.74**

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.7.3 Criminality in the Family and Sexual Aggression

To compare the differences for sexual aggression, one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted and as can be seen in Table 29, there was a significant difference between groups for each variable at alpha level .01. As it was the case for verbal and physical aggression, the largest difference was observed in engagement ($F(1, 986) = 62.43, p < .01$). When the variables were examined in terms of the size of the difference, engagement was followed by acceptance of sexually aggressive behaviors ($F(1, 986) = 43.89, p < .01$). As can be seen below, a significant but smaller difference was present for DESA and InDESA ($F(1, 986) = 33.64, F(1, 986) = 25.23$ respectively, $p < .01$).

Table 29

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for ASA, EISA, DESA and InDESA according to criminality in the family

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Yes	No	F
ASA	3.10 (2.65)	1.47 (1.94)	43.89**
EISA	2.43 (2.97)	.71 (1.65)	62.43**
DESA	2.72 (2.39)	1.34 (1.91)	33.64**
InDESA	5.49 (2.43)	3.90 (2.59)	25.23**

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.7.4 Criminality in the Family and Relational Aggression

The mean scores of participants were compared by a one-way ANOVA in terms of having a relative that committed a crime for relational aggression. As it is shown in Table 30, there was a significant difference between groups for each variable but the most significant difference was established for engagement in relational aggression ($F(1, 986) = 64.58, p < .01$). The smallest difference, on the other hand, was observed for indirect exposure ($F(1, 986) = 6.91, p < .05$). The mean scores, standard deviations and F values for all measures are given in Table 30.

Table 30

Mean scores, standard deviations and F values for ARA, EIRA, DERA and InDERA according to criminality in the family

	Mean Scores (SD)		
	Yes	No	F
ARA	2.87 (2.35)	1.88 (1.88)	17.88**
EIRA	2.15 (2.71)	.64 (1.41)	64.58**
DERA	2.42 (2.03)	1.61 (1.74)	14.08**
InDERA	5.01 (2.43)	4.23 (2.43)	6.91*

* The difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

** The difference is significant at the 0.01 level.

3.8 Predictors of Violence

Multiple regression analyses were carried out to identify which demographic variables predicted experiences with violence. Separate multiple regression analyses were conducted for exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence. Gender, age, family status, mother's educational background, father's educational background, perceived family income, criminality in the family and frequency of alcohol consumption were entered as the predictors. The entry criteria for probability F was selected as .05 and the removal criteria was selected as .10 in all analyses.

3.8.1 Predictors of Exposure to Violence

To examine which predictors contribute to exposure of violence, a regression analysis was computed but not separately for direct and indirect exposure rather general exposure was included as the dependent variable. The model for exposure to violence was significant ($F(8, 950) = 16.13$, $p < .01$) but small in effect size. The variables together explained 12% of the overall variance.

According to the results of the regression analysis, frequency of alcohol consumption was found to be a significant and strongest predictor of exposure to violence ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$). The other two significant predictors were gender and criminality in the family ($\beta = .16$, $\beta = .11$, respectively, $p < .01$). In other words, more frequent alcohol consumption, being a male

and having a family member that committed a crime increased exposure to violence score.

3.8.2 Predictors of Acceptance of Violence

The separate multiple regression analysis was conducted to observe which variables were predictors of acceptance of violence. The results yielded that the model was significant ($F(8, 950) = 18.24, p < .01$) and the variables explained the 13% of the overall variance.

The strongest predictor of acceptance of violence was gender ($\beta = .22, p < .01$) which was followed by frequency of alcohol consumption ($\beta = .251, p < .01$). Finally, criminality in the family was the third and last significant predictor of the model ($\beta = .11, p < .01$). This means that acceptance of violence score was increased if the participant was male, used alcohol frequently and had a family member that committed a crime.

3.8.3 Predictors of Engagement in Violence

To examine which demographic factors played a role for engagement in violence a separate multiple regression analysis was computed and the model found to be significant at an alpha level .01 ($F(8, 950) = 39.98, p < .01$). 25% of the overall variance was explained by the variables in the model.

Gender, criminality in the family and frequency of alcohol consumption were the significant predictors of engagement in violence. The strongest factor was found to be alcohol consumption ($\beta = .31, p < .01$) which

was followed by gender ($\beta = .26, p < .01$). Criminality in the family was a significant predictor but was smallest in effect size ($\beta = .19, p < .01$). As it was the case for engagement in violence and acceptance of violence, frequent use of alcohol, being a male and criminality in the family were found to be contributors of engaging in violent behaviors.

3.9 Additional Descriptive Analyses

When the frequencies for each item were analyzed, there were some remarkable findings such as it was found that 9.3% of the participants had witnessed someone drawing a knife and 9.5% had witnessed someone getting seriously injured in a fight six times or more in the last 12 months. On the other hand, 10.4% of the participants stated that they witnessed someone forcing another to engage in sexual behaviors such as kissing, touching, caressing etc.

In terms of normative beliefs, almost half of the participants viewed use of physical aggression as either somewhat acceptable or definitely acceptable. On the other hand, 90 participants out of 999 had normative views about forcing someone into engaging sexual behaviors. Another remarkable finding was that 26.6% of the sample had approving beliefs about parents hitting their children.

As for engagement in violence, one of the most remarkable finding was that 33.7% of the participants stated they engaged in behaviors intended to harm others such as slapping, hitting, kicking etc, also it was noteworthy that almost 12.7% of the sample stated that they threatened to hurt someone

more than twice in the last 12 months. These findings were striking to show how often teenagers experience some serious forms of violence.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence among adolescents. Students from different types of schools in various districts of Istanbul participated to the study.

The mean score for exposure to violence was highest, followed by acceptance of violence and engagement in violent behaviors. Indirect exposure was found to be more frequent than direct exposure. In terms of exposure to different types of aggression, verbal aggression was the most frequent type followed by relational, sexual and physical aggression. Although in the literature, relational aggression was described as indirect thus “non-observable” (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Crick, 1996; Werner & Nixon, 2005), relational aggression was found to be the second most frequent type of aggression that adolescents were exposed to, directly or indirectly. Thus, it may be concluded that adolescents are responsive to relationally aggressive behaviors which may be related with their socialization motivation. On the other hand, physical aggression was not expected to be the least exposed type of aggression but it may be related with the fact that exposure to violence through media was not included to indirect exposure. Indirect exposure included experiences that was not directed to the participant but could be observed by the participant while it happened to someone else. It may be hypothesized that exposure to physical

aggression would be higher if violence on media was included. When the items were analyzed independently it was remarkable to find out that almost 10% of the sample witnessed someone drawing a knife, getting seriously injured in a fight and forcing another to engage in sexual behaviors more than five times in a year.

When the sample was categorized as low, middle and high exposure groups 4.5% was included in high exposure group. The participants in this group were exposed to violence more frequently than the rest of the sample. The sociodemographic characteristics of this group were analyzed however it is not possible to draw conclusions from these analyses since sociodemographic characteristics were not controlled in this study. Studies that control sociodemographic factors are needed to have a better understanding of characteristics of the adolescents that are included in the high exposure group. On the other hand, it is possible to compare the characteristics of this sample with the general sample. Although the sample included almost equal numbers of females and males results yielded that 77.8% of this high exposure group was consisted of males. The distribution in terms of grade was almost equal in high exposure group although the number of 8th graders in the whole sample was more than twice the number of 9th graders. In terms of school type the percentage of vocational high school students in the high exposure group was twice compared to the percentage in the general sample. It was not surprising to find out that criminality was almost three times higher and the percentage of those

adolescents that never consumed alcohol was lower compared to general sample.

Although the mean score for exposure to physical aggression was lowest, the mean score for acceptance of physical aggression was highest compared to other types of aggression which was followed by verbal, relational and sexual aggression. In other words, adolescents have more normative beliefs for physical aggression. This was also supported by item analyses; almost half of the sample approved use of physically aggressive behaviors and more than one quarter of the sample approved parents hitting their children. In this study the mean score for the frequency of physical aggression was low but as mentioned above it may be due to exclusion of violence on media. Craig et al. (2003) stated that exposure to media violence results in desensitization and thus increases normative beliefs about violence. Thus, it may be hypothesized that one of the underlying reasons of normative beliefs about physical aggression may be due to being exposed violence on media. However, in order to support this hypothesis studies that investigate the relation between media violence and acceptance of physical aggression should be implemented with a Turkish population.

When the sample was classified as low, middle and high acceptance groups according to determined cut-off points only 2.5% of the sample was included to high acceptance group. 72% of the high acceptance group was males. Once more, there were some remarkable differences in the distribution of the sample for criminality in the family and alcohol consumption. Criminality in the family was 20% in the high exposure group

whereas it was 7.3% in the general sample and the percentage of those who often consume alcohol was five times higher than the general sample. The effect of grade, criminality in the family and alcohol consumption on acceptance of violence is discussed below in detail.

The mean score for engagement in violence was lowest compared to violence exposure and acceptance. Among four different aggression types, verbal aggression was the most frequently used type of aggression which was followed by physical, sexual and relational. Engagement in relational aggression was lower than the expectations based on previous literature. It seems that Turkish adolescents are responsive to relational aggression however they may not be comfortable with stating that they use relational aggression since normative beliefs about this type of aggression is also low. In the item analyses, there were only remarkable findings for verbally and physically aggressive behaviors such as 33.7% of the sample stated that they used physically aggressive behaviors more than twice and 12.7% threatened to hurt someone in the last 12 months.

The sample was classified as low, middle and high engagement group and only 1.8% included in the high exposure group. Among the most remarkable distribution differences between the general sample and high exposure group was on gender, perceived socioeconomic status, criminality in the family and alcohol consumption. High exposure group only included 18 participants and 17 of them were male. This is consistent with the literature which supports the proposition that males are more aggressive than females (Lagerspetz, Björkqvist & Peltonen, 1988; Schoiack-Edstrom,

Frey & Beland, 2002; Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008). One of the most noteworthy differences was on perceived socioeconomic status; in the general sample the percentage of high SES was 10% whereas in the high engagement group it was 44.4% with the highest percentage among the group. Since it is the perceived socioeconomic status it may not be reflecting the real socioeconomic status of the participants. Thus, those adolescents who are included in the high engagement group may be perceiving their socioeconomic status as high which may be related with omnipotence characteristic of adolescents which display antisocial behaviors. However, further studies are needed to support this hypothesis. As mentioned in violence exposure and acceptance there were some differences in the comparison of general sample to high engagement group in terms of criminality in the family and alcohol consumption. One third of the high engagement group had a family member that committed a crime and almost half of the group often used alcohol. As mentioned above, the relation between criminality in the family, alcohol consumption and engagement in violence is discussed below.

4.1 Relationship between Exposure to Violence, Acceptance of Violence and Engagement in Violence

The main hypothesis of this study was about the relation between exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence. It was hypothesized that a significant relationship between each variable would be found. The results of the study supported this hypothesis. There

was a significant relationship between these constructs for all types of violence.

For violence in general, the strongest relation was between direct exposure and engagement, indirect exposure and engagement, and finally, acceptance and engagement. This finding is consistent with previous studies which emphasize the relation between exposure to violence and engaging in violent behaviors (Allwood & Bell, 2008; Flannery et al., 2001). The relation between attitudes and behaviors was also supported by the findings of this study; those who viewed violent behaviors as more acceptable engaged in violent behaviors more frequently or vice versa. One of the limitations of this study is that it is not possible to determine the direction of causality. However, in a study by Guerra, Huesman and Spindler (2003) it was found that exposure to community violence increased social cognitions about the acceptability of violence and aggressive behaviors and exposure was not predicted by aggressive attitudes and behaviors. Thus, it can be concluded that as exposure to violence increases so do normative beliefs about violence and aggressive behaviors. However future studies that investigate the relationship between exposure, attitudes and engagement should analyze the direction of causality of the relationship between these constructs.

4.2 Gender and Violence

The second hypothesis was about gender differences. In the literature males are found to be more aggressive than females (Lagerspetz, Björkqvist

& Peltonen, 1988; Schoiack-Edstrom, Frey & Beland, 2002; Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008). The findings of the study were consistent with previous research. In terms of general violence; in other words without taking into consideration different kinds of aggression, there was a significant difference between genders for exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engaging in violence. However, the largest difference was found in engaging in violence. Consistent with previous research, males were found to be engaging in violent behaviors more than females. The second largest difference between males and females was on acceptance on violence; males viewing violence more acceptable than females. This finding is not surprising since it supports the relation between attitudes and behaviors. Males have a more positive cognition on violence and they engage more frequently in these kinds of behaviors. A smaller but significant difference was also present for exposure to violence. The difference between genders for exposure may be explained by male aggression. Archer and Haigh (1997), concluded that aggressiveness among males is higher when the opponent is another male. Thus, it can be assumed that males are more vulnerable to be the direct or indirect victim of male aggression which explains the gender differences in terms of exposure.

Gender differences were examined for different types of aggression. In terms of exposure, it was expected that boys would be more exposed to verbal and physical violence whereas girls would be more exposed to sexual and relational violence. As expected, boys were exposed to verbal and physical aggression more frequently than girls. However, in terms of sexual

aggression direct exposure to sexual aggression was higher for girls whereas indirect exposure was higher for boys. Boys' higher indirect exposure to sexual aggression was not expected. This finding could be explained by the nature of questions that assess exposure to sexual aggression in the exposure to violence questionnaire. Two questions out of three, asks about sexually aggressive behaviors that can be observed by other people; one question included verbally harassing someone and the other was about molestation. Only one question included a kind of behavior that could take place out of sight which was forcing someone to take part in sexual interactions. The results for indirect exposure could be different if the questions were including sexually aggressive behaviors that are not visible to other people.

The hypothesis about female aggression, in other words expecting females to be exposed to relational aggression more frequently than males, was not supported in this study. There was no significant difference between genders in terms of indirect exposure and for direct exposure males scored higher than females. In the literature, there are contradictory findings about gender differences in relational aggression. The findings of this study are akin with Phelps' (2001) study which yielded that girls and boys were equally victimized by relational aggression.

In terms of acceptance, the findings supported the hypothesis that males would show higher acceptance for verbal, physical and sexual aggression. However, the hypothesis that females would have a more positive attitude towards relational aggression compared to males was not

supported by the findings of this study. The results yielded that males had more positive cognitions about relational aggression.

Finally, when the gender differences were analyzed in terms of engagement in different types of aggression, the picture was quite the same. Males were expected to engage more frequently in verbally, physically and sexually but not in relationally violent behaviors. According to the results of the study, boys were found to engage more frequently than females in all types of violent behaviors. In the literature, despite to contradictory findings, relational aggression was associated with female aggression (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). However, this was not supported by this study. The different findings can be explained by cultural differences. Most of the studies that show higher relational aggression in females were carried out in United States (Crick, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Werner & Nixon, 2005 etc.). In fact, Tomada and Schneider (1997) replicated the study of Crick and Grotpeter (1995) in Italia, with an Italian sample. The findings of the study were consistent with this study; boys were found to engage more in relationally aggressive behaviors compared to girls. Tomada and Schneider (1997) attribute the different findings in Italian data to cross-cultural differences. They suggest that different than their American counterparts Italian boys are more involved with close family and neighbor relations in which they can learn relationally aggressive behaviors through observation. This explanation sounds reasonable also for Turkish culture. In terms of relational aggression the literature emphasize the importance of women's social network (Tomada & Schneider, 1997). Especially in low

SES neighborhoods and rural areas, boys spend a lot of time with their mothers and other women in the neighborhood. Thus boys being more relationally aggressive than females can be explained by cultural differences and through observational learning.

4.3 School Type, Grade and Violence

Exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violent behaviors were assessed in terms of school type and grade. School type included students from public primary schools, Anatolian high schools and vocational high schools. Anatolian high schools and vocational high schools differ in terms of academic performance of students. In general, those students who perform better prefer Anatolian high schools whereas the academic performance of vocational high school students is lower. On the other hand, in terms of grade, comparison was between 8th and 9th grade students. Although the age difference between these grades is diminutive, transition to middle school is an important and also difficult period in adolescents' life which may trigger some social problems with the need to adapt to a new environment (Zimmer-Gembeck, Geiger & Crick, 2005).

In terms of school type, one of the most interesting findings was that there was no significant difference between groups for engagement in violent behaviors. This was also the case when the analyses were computed for different types of aggression and for the comparison of grades. However, it can not be concluded that engagement in violence does not vary according to school type since the age difference between grades was minimal. Since

the students in the 9th grade have spent so little time in their new school environment it may not be possible to observe the effect of school on exposure, attitudes and behaviors. The result that no significant difference emerged between 8th and 9th graders support this hypothesis. Thus further studies are needed to investigate the effect of school type by comparing senior grades with junior ones (for example comparing 9th graders with 11th graders).

There were some significant differences between groups for acceptance of violence. A significant difference between groups was not found only for relational aggression. When group differences in terms of acceptance were analyzed together it can be concluded that acceptance was higher in vocational high school students and 9th graders. As mentioned above, vocational high schools generally include students that performed poorer in primary school. In addition, most of these students are from low socioeconomic status families that can not afford enrolling in a private school. Thus, having more positive attitudes toward violence may be related with social environment of these students since living in neighborhoods characterized by poverty found to be a risk factor for tendency toward violence (Lerner & Galambos, 1998). On the other hand, another risk factor that is reported in the literature is academic failure (Elliott, 1994) which can also explain the differences between groups in terms of school type. Yet again, it is not possible to draw any conclusions; a more detailed analysis is needed to understand the effect of school type on attitudes towards violent behaviors.

4.4 Family Status and Violence

Family conflict is reported to be a risk factor for adolescents' violent behaviors (Elliot, 1994). In this study, adolescents with different family status were compared in terms of violence exposure, acceptance and engagement in violent behaviors. Results of this study yielded that those adolescents whose both parents were passed away engaged more frequently in violent behaviors compared to those whose parents were together, divorced and also to those that lost only one of the parents. Although family conflict and divorce was reported to be an important risk factor (Elliot, 1994), in this study, most frequent engagement in violent behaviors was found to be among those adolescents that had lost both of their parents. This may be related with the link between PTSD and violence (Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 1990). Loss of either father or mother is also traumatic but loss of both parents causes more dramatic changes in an adolescent's life. Thus, loss of both parents at childhood or adolescence may cause heightened stress and symptoms of PTSD which are found to be related with engagement in violent behaviors through emotional dysregulation. However, the number of those adolescents who lost both parents was very few in this study. Thus, comparison of larger samples with controlling other factors is needed to be studied to better understand the role of family status on violence.

4.5 Criminality in the Family and Violence

One of the risk factors associated with home/family environment was criminality and delinquency in the family (Farrington, 1989). Those adolescents who had a family member that committed a crime scored higher in violence exposure, acceptance of violence and engaging in violent behaviors for general violence and also for different types of violence. In other words, these adolescents were exposed to violence more frequently, they had more positive attitudes towards violence and they engaged in violent behaviors more often when compared to their counterparts. Thus, it can be concluded that criminality in the family is related closely with adolescents' experience of violence. This may be related with growing up in an environment in which delinquency including violent behaviors is not exceptional. Thus adolescents that have family members that committed a crime may be more prone to be directly or indirectly being exposed to criminal behaviors, have more normative beliefs and thus apt to engage in such behaviors. However, in order to draw a conclusion further studies are needed that compare adolescents with a criminal family background with others that do not have such a background.

4.6 Predictors of Violence

Among all demographic variables alcohol consumption, gender and criminality in the family were found to be the most significant factors for exposure to violence, acceptance of violence and engagement in violence.

For exposure to violence and engagement in violence the most significant factor was the frequency of alcohol consumption. The risk was increased as the frequency of alcohol consumption do so. Previous studies in the literature yield a connection between alcohol consumption and violent behaviors (Brook, 1996; Testa, 2004). Those adolescents that consume alcohol more frequently may be hanging out with peer groups that display antisocial behaviors which may be related with increased exposure to violent behaviors as a result of more frequent alcohol consumption. In terms of engagement in violence, the connection with alcohol use may be explained by the fact that alcohol use lowers inhibition. In other words, those adolescents that use alcohol more frequently may be engaging in more violent behaviors compared to their peers because they may be experiencing problems in anger management when they are under the influence of alcohol. Related with this, researchers on sexual aggression state that alcohol use provides the aggressor an excuse for his/her behaviors. (Testa, 2004). This may be relevant for other types of aggression as well. However, it is not measured in this study if the adolescents engage in violent behaviors under the effect of alcohol or not. Thus there may be other underlying factors for alcohol consumption to be a strong predictor for engaging in violent behaviors which should be studied in detail in further studies.

The sequence of predictors is same for exposure to violence and engagement in violence. Alcohol consumption is followed by gender and criminality in the family for both variables. The possibility to be exposed to violence and engage in violent behaviors increases as a result of being male

rather than female. On the other hand, criminality in the family background increases the likelihood for violence exposure and violent behaviors. The relation between gender, criminality in the family and violence exposure and violent behaviors are consistent with previous research (Lagerspetz, Björkqvist & Peltonen, 1988; Schoiack-Edstrom, Frey & Beland, 2002; Artz, Nicholson & Magnuson, 2008; Farrington, 1989) and discussed in detail above.

In terms of acceptance of violence, the sequence of predictors is different from other variables. Gender, being a male, is found to be the most significant factor for normative beliefs about violence which is followed by alcohol consumption and criminality in the family. Gender, being the most significant predictor of acceptance of violence may be explained by social perspective which focuses on traditional male gender role which legitimizes engaging in violent behaviors (Feder, Levant & Dean, 2007).

4.7 Conclusion and Implications for Further Research

Despite its limitations, this study provides a deeper understanding of Turkish adolescents' violence experiences and their attitudes towards violence. One of the strengths of this study was that it was a very large scale study which included students from different types of schools that were located in various districts of Istanbul. Furthermore, this study also examined different kinds of violence; especially relational aggression was not studied extensively with a Turkish population. Thus, this study provided valuable information and comprehensive picture of Turkish adolescents'

experience with different kinds of aggression. Last but not the least; the study also contributed a violence scale to the literature which could be easily used with adolescents.

This study showed that there is a strong relationship between being exposed to violence, having normative beliefs about violence and engaging in violent behaviors. However, it was not possible to determine the direction of causality. Thus further studies should focus on understanding the underlying factors of each construct and determining the direction of the relationship between these variables. This would broaden our horizon in terms of understanding and preventing the increase of violence in today's world.

Chapter V

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CHAPTER VI

APPENDIX

Sevgili Gençler,

Bu anket gençlerin şiddet yaşantılarını daha iyi anlayabilmek için geliştirilmiştir. Bu nedenle aşağıda bu yaşantıları anlamaya yönelik bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Bu çalışma Romina Yorohan'ın İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı bitirme tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

Bu ankete katılmak ortalama 20 dakikanızı alacaktır. Katılımcı olarak kimliğiniz gizli kalacaktır. Formların üstüne adınız ve soyadınız yazılmayacaktır ve anketin sonuçları toplu bir şekilde değerlendirilecektir. Bu ankete katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Eğer anketimize katılmaya gönüllü olursanız lütfen bütün soruları olabildiğince samimi bir şekilde cevaplamaya çalışın.

Lütfen anket formlarına adınızı ve soyadınızı yazmayınız. Çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa ya da anket sorularında sizde rahatsızlık yaratan ifadeler olursa Romina Yorohan'a romina@yeniden.org.tr e-posta adresinden veya (212) 2190303 numaralı telefondan ya da çalışmanın danışmanı olan Dr. Zeynep Çatay'a zcatay@bilgi.edu.tr adresinden veya (212) 3117616 numaralı telefondan ulaşabilirsiniz. Ayrıca www.genruh.org internet adresinden online ücretsiz danışmanlık hizmeti alabilirsiniz.

Vereceğiniz dikkatli ve samimi cevaplar ve çalışmaya yapacağınız katkılardan dolayı size şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Psk. Romina Yorohan
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Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı

Aşağıdaki soruları lütfen son 12 ayı dikkate alarak değerlendiriniz.

1. Herkesin içinde biriyle dalga geçildiğini gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

2. Birinin dayak yediğini gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

3. Birisine cinsel içerikli laf atıldığını tanık oldum.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

4. Birisinin hakkında gerçek olmayan dedikodular çıkartıldığını gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

5. Birisinin bir başkasına bağırdığını, küfrettiğini gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

6. Birisine bıçak çekildiğini gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

7. Birisine sarkıntılık yapıldığını gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

8. Birisinin grup etkinliklerinden dışlandığını gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

9. Birinin bir başkası tarafından dövülmekle tehdit edildiğini gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

10. Bir kavga sırasında birinin ağır yaralandığını gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

11. Birisinin cinsel içerikli davranışlarda (dokunma, öpme, okşama vb) bulunması için zorlandığını gördüm.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

12. Birinin arkadaşlıktan çıkartılmakla tehdit edildiğine tanık oldum.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

13. Biri benimle dalga geçti.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

14. Dayak yediğim oldu.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

15. Birisi bana cinsel içerikli laf attı.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

16. Benimle ilgili gerçek olmayan dedikodular çıkartıldı.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

17. Biri bana bağırdı ve küfür etti.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

18. Birisi bana bıçak çekti.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

19. Birisi bana sarkıntılık yaptı.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

20. Grup etkinliklerinden dışlandım.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

21. Biri beni dövmekle tehdit etti.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

22. Bir kavga sırasında ağır yaralandım.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

23. Birisi beni cinsel içerikli davranışlarda (dokunma, öpme, okşama vb)
bulunmaya zorladı.
Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

24. Bir arkadaşım istediklerini yaptırabilmek için beni arkadaşlıktan çıkarmakla tehdit etti.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

Size göre ařağıdaki davranıřlar ne kadar kabul edilebilir?

1. Bazı durumlarda bir arkadařınızla dalga geçmek

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

2. Bazı durumlarda birisine vurmak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

3. Bazı durumlarda birisine cinsel ierikli laf atmak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

4. Bazı durumlarda birisi hakkında gerek olmayan dedikodular yaymak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

5. Bazı durumlarda birine bağırmak veya kfretmek

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

6. Yetiřkinlerin bazı durumlarda ocuklarına vurmaları

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

7. Bazı durumlarda birisine sarkıntılık yapmak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıřtır.
 Kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.
 Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıřtır.

8. Bazı durumlarda birisinin grup etkinliklerinden dışlanmasını sağlamak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.
- Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.

9. Bazı durumlarda insanları korkutmak için tehdit etmek

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.
- Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.

10. Bazı durumlarda kaba kuvvet kullanmak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.
- Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.

11. Bazı durumlarda birisini istemediği cinsel içerikli davranışlarda (dokunma, öpme, okşama vb) bulunmaya zorlamak

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.
- Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.

12. Bazı durumlarda bir arkadaşınızı arkadaşlıktan çıkarmakla tehdit etmek

- Tamamen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kısmen kabul edilebilir bir davranıştır.
- Kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.
- Kesinlikle kabul edilemez bir davranıştır.

Aşağıdaki soruları lütfen son 12 ayı dikkate alarak değerlendiriniz.

1. Birisiyle herkesin ortasında dalga geçtim.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

2. Birisine fiziksel olarak zarar verecek bir davranışta (yumruk, tokat, tekme vb.) bulundum.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

3. Birisine cinsel içerikli laf attım.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

4. Birisiyle ilgili gerçek olmayan dedikodular yaydım.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

5. Birisine bağırıp, küfür ettim.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

6. Birisine bıçak çektim.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

7. Birisine sarkıntılık yaptım.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

8. Birisinin grup etkinliklerinden dışlanmasını sağladım.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

9. Birisini ona zarar vermeye tehdit ettim.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

10. Bir kavga sırasında birisinin ağır yaralanmasına neden oldum.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

11. Birisini cinsel içerikli davranışlarda (dokunma, öpme, okşama vb) bulunmaya zorladım.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

12. Bir arkadaşına istediğimi yaptırabilmek için onu arkadaşlıktan çıkarmakla tehdit ettim.

Hiç Bir – iki kez Üç – beş kez Altı kez
veya daha fazla

Demografik Bilgi Formu

Bu bölümde sizinle ilgili birtakım bilgiler istenmektedir. Soruların karşısına gerekli açıklamaları lütfen yazınız.

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kız Erkek

2. Doğum yılınız:

3. Kaçınıcı sınıfa gidiyorsunuz?

.....
.....

4. Okul türü:

- Anadolu lisesi
 Meslek lisesi
 Özel okul
 Devlet ilköğretim okulu

5. Annenizin eğitim durumu:

- Okur-yazar değil
 Okur-yazar
 İlkokul
 Ortaokul
 Lise
 Üniversite ve üstü

6. Babanızın eğitim durumu

- Okur-yazar değil
 Okur-yazar
 İlkokul
 Ortaokul
 Lise
 Üniversite ve üstü

7. Kaç kardeşe sahipsiniz (Kendinizi dahil etmeyiniz)?

.....

8. Anne-babanızın birliktelik durumu:

- Beraber
 Boşanmış
 Ayrı yaşıyorlar
 Anne vefat etti
 Baba vefat etti
 Anne ve baba vefat etti

9. Ailenizin gelir durumunu nasıl algılıyorsunuz?

- Çok düşük Düşük Orta Yüksek

10. Ailenizde suç işlemiş biri var mı?

Evet Hayır

11. Ailenizde suç işlediği için ceza evinde yatmış veya yatan biri var mı?

Evet Hayır

12. Ne sıklıkla alkol kullanıyorsunuz?

Hiç Çok seyrek Bazen Sık sık

13. Eğer şiddete maruz kalsaydınız veya tanık olsaydınız yukarıdaki sorularda bunu ifade eder miydiniz?

Evet Hayır

14. Eğer şiddet uygulaysaydınız yukarıdaki sorularda bunu ifade eder miydiniz?

Evet Hayır

Anketimiz sona ermiştir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.