

**Effects of Child Exposure to Domestic Violence on the Child-Parent Relationship
Based on the Child's Ambivalence toward the Parents**

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Abstract

Child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV) is recognized as one of important risk factors for building healthy relationships between parents and their children. Previous studies have focused on various outcomes of children exposed to domestic violence or parenting behaviors of battered mothers and battering fathers. However, little is known about complex relationships among CEDV, parenting behaviors, and children's feelings and perceptions toward their parents suffering from domestic violence. To fill this gap in the current literature, this study aimed to examine: (1) how CEDV influences children's complicated and ambivalent feelings (e.g., love, hatred, empathy, blame) toward each of their battered mothers and battering fathers or partners; (2) how children's perceptions on parenting mediate the effect of CEDV on such ambivalent feelings; and (3) whether there are any differences between female and male children in these relationships.

The sample of this study included children aged 10 to 16 who might have been exposed to adult domestic violence. 99 Participants were recruited through domestic violence shelters and community organizations in Twin Cities area. Missing data were imputed using the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) multiple imputation and multiple-group path analysis was conducted to explore relationships between CEDV, parenting behaviors, and ambivalent feelings, and to investigate whether these relationships differ between male and female participants.

The findings showed that there were significant differences between male and female children in how they feel about their parents in domestic violence. Female

children reported a higher level of total CEDV, violence, and exposure to violence at home, and also showed more negative attitudes toward their abusive fathers. Not surprisingly, participants had more positive attitudes toward their abused mothers and perceived mother's parenting as more positive and supportive. Findings indicated that certain types of CEDV were associated with children's ambivalence toward parents, and this relationship was mediated by children's perceptions on parenting. These relationships were found to be different between male and female children.

The study findings provide implications for social work researchers and professionals to better understand children exposed to domestic violence and to help them build healthier relationships with their parents living through domestic violence.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Background and Significance

Child exposure to domestic violence has increasingly been recognized by researchers, practitioners, and policy makers as being a risk to the healthy development of children. Studies reveal that from 10% to 20% of American children are exposed to adult domestic violence annually (Carlson, 2000). According to National Survey of Children's Exposure to Violence, 9.8% of children reported witnessing family assault, 19.2% witnessing community assault during the past year, and 60.6% being exposed to any type of violence (Finkelhor, Turner, Ormrod, Hamby & Kracke, 2009). In addition, more than predicted, many survivors of domestic violence have reported that their children had witnessed the full range of domestic violence; 40.2% of battered women in the United States also reported that their child(ren) had been exposed to violent incidents at home (National Violence against Women Survey, 2003).

Studies have found that such exposure to adult violence at home sometimes prevents children from building healthy relationships with their primary caregiver(s), usually their parents (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2007; Moretti, Penny, Obsuth, & Odgers, 2007). Developing strong bonds between children and their primary caregivers and experiencing healthy relationships within the family of origin are both critical to children's healthy development. These relationships are a basic step of socialization since children internalize early relationships (Gewirtz & Edleson, 2007; Pope, Payne, & Reddon, 1997). However, appropriate relationships between a child and parent figure(s) may be severely disrupted by violent incidents in the home (Gewirtz & Edleson, 2007).

By simply being exposed to adult domestic violence as a child, parent-child relationships may become more strained or may worsen. Therefore, to rebuild the relationships between children and parent figure(s) disrupted by adult domestic violence, we must understand how child exposure to domestic violence influences such relationships.

The parent-child relationship within families suffering domestic violence could be related to children's complex feelings and attitudes such as ambivalence toward parents and parenting behaviors along with child exposure to domestic violence. Having been exposed to adult violence at home, children could show ambivalent feelings and attitudes about love, hate, sympathy and blame toward the battered mother and battering father figure (Groves, Horn, & Lieberman, 2007; Radford & Hester, 2006).

In relation to the parent-child relationship and parenting, previous studies have revealed that marital dissatisfaction and less effective parenting are significantly related, which could lead to negative outcomes of child development (Simon, Whitebeck, Conger, & Melby, 1990; Shamir, Schudlich, & Cummings, 2001). In addition, battered mothers are often psychologically and physically unable to fully nurture their children due to domestic violence (Moretti et al., 2007; Radford & Hester, 2006). The battering father figures at times also show aggressive, absent, and unaffectionate behaviors toward their children which lead to unhealthy father-child relationships (Perel & Peled, 2008; Groves et al., 2007). In other cases, the abusive male uses parenting skills to win children over to his side, and thus restricts the battered mother's parenting function to control and keep the children away from her (Radford & Hester, 2006; Perel & Peled, 2008). However,

very little is known about the influence of mothering and fathering along with child exposure to domestic violence on the parent-child relationships.

Given that the issue regarding child exposure to domestic violence is serious for both the family and society, this study aims to improve our understanding of the severity of child exposure to domestic violence, and how much the parent-child relationship is disrupted by such exposure based on the following questions: (1) how child exposure to domestic violence influences children's ambivalent attitudes toward both their battered mothers and the adult males who are perpetrating this violence; (2) how child exposure to domestic violence influences children's perception of parenting of both the battered mothers and the adult males who batter; (3) how children's perception of parenting of both battered mothers and the battering father figures influences children's ambivalence toward the mother and father figure; and (4) how other potential factors predict variations in children's ambivalence toward parent figure(s) in domestic violence. Understanding potential factors affecting the relationships between children and their parent(s) could be the cornerstone of healing such relationships which might be damaged due to adult domestic violence. Guidance on new interventions that can help improve parent-child relationships will result from identifying the critical factors associated with weakening or strengthening such bonds.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Child Exposure to Domestic Violence

Definition of Child Exposure to Domestic Violence

Child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV) is one form of indirect but detrimental victimization which harms children as well as society. Researchers and practitioners working with families and children have begun to use the phrase, “child exposure to domestic violence” (Edleson, 1999; Fantuzzo & Mohr, 1999; Margolin & Gordis, 2004; Edleson, Shin, & Armendariz, 2008). The definition of child exposure to domestic violence is broader than simply witnessing and overhearing adult violence at home in that it includes viewing, hearing or being used in an actual violent event as well as seeing the aftermath (e.g., injuries of the mother, police intervention) of such violence (Edleson, 1999, Edleson, Ellerton, Seagren, Schmidt, Kirchberg, & Ambrose, 2007).

In addition, children may unwillingly become involved in adult domestic violence as well as be exposed to it. For example, according to the study of Edleson et al. (2008), participating children reported that they tried to physically stop the violent actions by one adult toward the other (41.5%) or the abuser did something to them to hurt or scare their mother (36.9%). At times, it is reported that male abusers use children to control the mother like hitting the victim in front of the children or making the children abuse their mothers (Radford & Hester, 2006). This type of forced witnessing of and involvement in the violence toward the mother by the father has often been reported (Radford & Hester, 2006; Edleson, 1999). In one example, a seven-year old boy had been led by his abusive

father to “teach his mother a lesson” by kicking and punching her, until he finally showed a lack of respect for the mother as a good parent (Radford & Hester, 2006, p. 32).

It is still unclear, however, whether CEDV should be considered as child maltreatment or not. Holden (2003) emphasized that CEDV should be considered as abuse, although it is not direct abuse or neglect, since: (1) CEDV is a form of psychological abuse by living in such a stressful situation; and (2) in terms of co-occurring abuse, CEDV happens along with physical and sexual abuse in many cases. Similarly, Cicchetti (2004) insisted that, since child maltreatment falls into severe and direct victimization, CEDV should also be treated as maltreatment because this type of family environment fails to protect children’s well-being and impedes opportunities for appropriate child development. However, Edleson (1999) stated that considering witness of adult domestic violence as maltreatment could be harmful in that it ignores children’s resilience and battered mothers’ efforts to protect their children by providing a safe environment.

Impact of Exposure to Domestic Violence on Children

The direct and indirect impact of child exposure to domestic violence has been well documented in many studies (see Edleson, 2006; Ehrensaft, Cohen, Brown, Smailes, Chen, & Johnson, 2003; Fantuzzo & Mohr, 1999; Jouriles, Northwood, McDonald, Vincent, & Mahoney, 1996; Kitzmann, Gaylord, Holt, & Kenny, 2003; Margolin & Gordis, 2004; Sterne & Poole, 2010). Not surprisingly, the frequency and severity of adult domestic violence in the home is highly associated with children’s behavioral problems, including external behaviors such as aggression and disobedience, and internal

behaviors such as depression, sadness, and lack of self-confidence (Jouriles et al., 1996). Margolin & Gordis (2004) and Sterne & Poole (2010) explained both short- and long-term impacts on children as a consequence of being exposed to adult violence in the home. Characteristics associated with short-term effects include aggression and delinquency; emotional and mood disorders; posttraumatic stress symptoms such as exaggerated startle responses, nightmares, bed wetting, and flashbacks; health-related problems and somatic symptoms such as sleep disturbances; and academic and cognitive problems such as low academic achievement, and impaired concentration and memory. Long-term impacts could be an increased likelihood that the child will become either a victim or perpetrator of aggression later in life. More seriously, being exposed to adult domestic violence can be as detrimental as being directly abused or neglected; that is, no significant difference of negative impacts on child development were found between children who were only exposed to violence toward their mothers and those who were directly abused and also exposed to their mothers' experiences of the abuse (Holden, Stein, Ritchie, Harris, & Jouriles, 1998).

Adultification and parentification of children can be another aftermath of child exposure to domestic violence (Stephens, 1999; Little & Kantor, 2002). Stephens (1999) explains that adultifying children by involving them in the adult violence when they are physically and emotionally not ready to handle such adult complexity is another way of victimizing the children. In terms of parentification, children are sometimes forced to take the parent's role such as taking care of siblings and chores, caring for their mother after she is abused, and even having to take on financial responsibility (Stephens, 1999;

Little & Kantor, 2002; Sterne & Poole, 2010). Sterne & Poole (2010) noticed that particularly girls have an increased burden of responsibilities during and after the violent incidents and feel that they need to stay at home to practically help and emotionally support their battered mothers. Similarly, DiLillo & Damashek (2003) explained such parentification as *role reversal* or *boundary dissolution*. They also elaborated that some female survivors of sexual abuse in their childhoods are more likely to become dependent on their children for emotional support and treat their children like a close friend compared to non-abused females. Such adultification and parentification can force children to become more mature than their peers and suffer from such forced maturity (DiLillo & Damashek, 2003). This type of reversed parent-child role can also initiate a further vicious circle which leads to more criticism and aggression from the abuser (Sterne & Poole, 2010). In contrast to negative outcomes of parentification, according to Jurkovic's conceptualization of *destructive* and *constructive* parentification (1997), the constructive way of parentification explains how children can be empowered through an appreciation and acknowledgement of their contributions by family members, mainly parents. Under the circumstance of various family culture and context, such parentification could be appropriate for children and even lead positive outcomes including long-term effects such as enhanced self-efficacy and control (see Jurkovic, 1997; Hooper, 2007), which is debatable but considerable.

In the same context, adults in an abusive couple relationship may have unrealistically high expectations of their children due to their lack of knowledge about the proper level of intellectual and emotional development and needs of their children

(Herzog, Gara, & Rosenberg, 1992), which could lead to inappropriate parenting behaviors and then unhealthy parent-child relationships.

Despite the discouraging findings about the results of children's exposure to domestic violence, in terms of resilience, key variables were recognized, which are potentially able to mediate or moderate the degree of child exposure to domestic violence: (1) the nature of the violence, (2) ethnicity of the children, (3) factors related to the battered mother (e.g., the level of stress that the mother has experienced, reasonable and stable parenting skills of the mother), (4) whether the child has been verbally and physically abused, (5) the child's characteristics such as personality, and (6) whether the child has strong support networks such as caring friends, siblings, or other supportive family members (see Holden et al., 1998; Sterne & Poole, 2010).

Parent-Child Relationship in Domestic Violence

Parent-child relationships can be divided into two parts: positive and supportive relationships including praise and encouragement, and negative and conflicting association including criticism and blame (ASPE, 2009). Typically, children from abusive families consider their parents to be more negative compared to their peers from non-abusive families (Hazzard, Christensen, & Margolin, 1983; Brassard, 1986); however, representations of each parent figure vary depending on the situation. When little is known about how child exposure to domestic violence influences the relationships with their battered mothers and the abusive males in the home, such relationships with their primary caregivers, usually parent figures, in the context of domestic violence are

very complicated and contradictory (Groves et al., 2007; Radford & Hester, 2006). For example, it has been expected that children would be close to their abused mothers because they perceive domestic violence as the fault of the abusers, usually a father figure. In addition, they could feel anger toward the abusers and deep sympathy for their mothers. Some children, however, report that they do not have a strong bond with their mothers because she deserves such violence since the mothers provoked it, and therefore the children want to live with their abusive fathers instead of the battered mothers (Groves et al., 2007; Radford & Hester, 2006).

The Effect of CEDV on Children's Ambivalence toward the Mother

Research about mother-child relationships in domestic violence has been limited and somewhat undermined in that the nature of such relationships could be more diverse than expected. Building a healthy parent-child relationship is strongly correlated with how children perceive parent figures. For example, some children who are exposed to the violence toward their mothers feel responsible for protecting their mothers or siblings from the abusive fathers, while others try to avoid everything related to violent incidents (Radford & Hester, 2006; Bancroft & Silverman, 2002). According to Bancroft & Silverman (2002), such responsibility of children could be a result of the batterer's self-centeredness, one of typical male perpetrator characteristics, in that the abusive father figure gives them emotional pressure to understand his abuse, or to take care of, or be fine with the aftermath of the domestic violence. While some children show great concern about the mother's safety, others may also experience more feelings of guilt, shame, or fear when they realize their inability or failure to protect their mothers from the

abuser (Radford & Hester, 2006). In contrast, when the child is physically abused, neglected, or exposed to violence between parent figures, they may blame the primary caregiver, usually the mother, for failing to protect the children even though it is out of the victim's control (Megan, 1999). At times, children try to mediate between the father and mother to keep the peace and they take on the responsibility of protecting their siblings from being exposed to the violence at home. For example, they cover up the violence, hold back some information from one of the parents or tone down the threats of the abuser to minimize the harm (Radford & Hester, 2006). The children's feelings and attitudes are often unpredictable, and even introduce conflict with their mothers (Groves et al. 2007). In short, children's attitudes exposed to adult violence at home could be diverse and ambivalent toward the adults who are involved in the domestic violence (Radford & Hester, 2006; Peled, 2000).

Another interesting aspect of the mother-child relationship is how mothers treat children according to their gender. In mother-son relationships after being exposed to verbal conflict between the parent figures, mothers expressed more empathetic words toward their sons who had conduct problems (Mahoney, Boggio, & Jouriles, 1996). Such a reaction by an abused mother may be to distract herself from the negative marriage conflict which she does not want to experience or help her recover from negative emotions as a survival strategy. Another possible explanation by Mahoney et al. (1996) was that showing empathy was a way of protecting their sons from the marriage conflict. Conversely, in a study by Stover, VanHorn, & Lieberman (2006), battered mothers negatively represented their sons because they seemed afraid that the son may grow up

like the abusive father figure. That is, the son was more likely to remind his battered mother of his abusive father than the daughter.

Therefore, unless mother-child relationships in the family of maternal partner violence are well studied, it can lead to post-separation between the mother and child even after the violence ends (Bancroft & Silverman, 2002; Radford & Hester, 2001).

The Effect of CEDV on Children's Ambivalence toward the Father

It has often been assumed that children exposed to domestic violence depend on and build high quality relationships with the non-battering parent. Some research has shown that positive relationship experiences are more likely to be found between the same sex child and the primary caregiver (Pope et al., 1997; Mahoney et al., 1996). Not surprisingly, children in dysfunctional families rate their parents more negatively compared to peers in functional families (Hazzard et al., 1983; Brassard, 1986). In terms of the gender of children, previous studies show that there is a difference of gender in how the children relate to their parents; boys were more likely to rate their parents in a positive way than girls, and both genders perceive their mothers in more negative ways than fathers (see Hazzard et al., 1983; Brassard, 1986). In some cases of father-son relationships, fathers from distressed marriages showed more involvement or supportive relationships with their sons (Mahoney et al., 1996). It was statistically significant that the way children form relationships with their mothers in domestic violence are more likely to be affected by family environment than bonds with fathers. That is, for healthy mother-child relationships and children's recovery from tragedy of being exposed to

domestic violence, it is very important to help the battered mother and her child(ren) to heal the bond (Bancroft & Silverman, 2002).

Batterers can also control the relationships between siblings through favoritism and other tactics (Bancroft & Silverman, 2002) thus easily promoting high levels of tension.

Parenting in the Context of Domestic Violence

As parenting is an influential factor on children's socialization, it can be defined here as it relates to two parenting behaviors: (1) parenting as the overall quality of the emotional relationship between the parent and the child (e.g., acceptance, support, warmth), and (2) parenting as physical control (e.g., disciplined practice) and psychological control (e.g., family rules) (see Shamir et al., 2001; Cummings, Davies, & Campbell, 2000). In addition, Simon and his colleagues (1990) summarized parenting behaviors as constructive and destructive parenting practices: constructive parenting style involving warmth, inductive reasoning, clear communication and appropriate monitoring, and destructive parenting characterized by hostility, rejection, and coercion. Parenting according to the partners' personalities, beliefs and history of domestic violence can also influence parenting skills and behaviors (DiLillo & Damashek, 2003). It is also known that parenting skills affect parent-child relationships; parenting patterns have been a key factor for children's social adjustment, developmental issues, and emotional problems such as depression, anxiety, or insecurity (see Levendosky, & Graham-Bermann, 2001; Holden et al., 1998; Graham-Bermann, 1998). Parental problems building emotional

relationships with the children and controlling them within the family of maternal partner violence can be working as a pathway of the effects of marital conflict on the children (Levendosky & Graham-Bermann, 2001).

Not surprisingly, marital conflict and dissatisfaction could negatively affect parenting in that it helps predict and understand a child's outcome regarding aggressiveness, which is consistent with the social learning theory (Shamir et al., 2001; Simons et al., 1990). That is, the way the perpetrator resolves family conflict could strongly affect the children's perceptions and reactions toward the violence in the home (Holden, 2002). Shamir et al.'s (2001) study targeted 47 5-8 years old children indicating that marital conflict and parenting affect a child's representation of the family system including relationships between the mother and child, father and child, and the triad. Thus, parents' marital conflict affects children's diverse and even ambivalent perceptions of parent-child relationships because they develop insecure representations of family relationships based on their emotional insecurity.

Mothering and Domestic Violence

Parenting is an important factor that affects our understanding of the mother-child relationship in maternal partner violence. Levendosky & Graham-Bermann (2001) concluded that the mother's parenting is a significant mediator of the effect of domestic violence on children's adjustment in an ecological model. That is, the mother's experience in an abusive and dysfunctional relationship influenced how she nurtured her child(ren), and such maternal parenting then affected the child's adjustment.

Another important factor that should be examined is the parents' understanding of the impact of CEDV on their children. At times, abusive parents and even the battered mothers are unable to recognize the impact of their children being exposed to adult domestic violence, and the mothers are unable to perceive their children's feelings and thoughts (Mills, 1998; Herzog & Gara, 1992; Little & Kantor, 2002). This lack of perception prevents the formation of healthy and secure parent-child relationships. Mills (1998) found that battered women reported they might have left earlier if they had realized exactly how their children had been affected by exposure to domestic violence.

Needless to say, mothering seems to be strongly affected by domestic violence in various ways. Intimate partner violence makes battered mothers unable to psychologically and physically take care of their children, which could negatively affect to build a securely attached relationship between the battered mothers and their children (Moretti et al., 2007; Gewirtz & Edleson, 2007). Even worse, when there is a lack of support from the battered mother due to domestic violence, her child(ren) could feel some distance to their mother, and the male abuser could use this situation for emotionally and physically controlling and sexually abusing her further (Radford & Hester, 2006). The violence prevents the battered mothers from healthy and secure mothering by restricting their daily functioning, and ruining their self-esteem and parental authority, which could lead to having their children turn against them in such a way that they are even less competent (Perel & Peled, 2008).

In contrast, based on the results of a longitudinal analysis over 10 years of 3,245 mothers' responses, Letourneau et al. (2007) reported that battered mothers tend to be

more sensitive and responsive to their 2-12 years old children to compensate for their exposure to the maternal partner's violence compared to other mothers of children not exposed to domestic violence. Battered mothers in Letourneau et al.'s (2007) study showed more positive discipline, warmth and nurturing, and consistent parenting compared to other mothers. They also noted that such heightened sensitivity and responsiveness in battered mother-child relationships can further lead to successful development of these children exposed to domestic violence.

The abused woman may have complicated feelings including helplessness, a tendency to avoid the children as well as a strong responsibility to take care of them. For example, some women were ambivalent toward her children because they reminded her of the abuser or she could be afraid that her son would grow up like her abusive male partner, particularly if the child was born from forced sex or an unwanted pregnancy (Radford & Hester, 2006). When the abused mother is less available for her children because of the violence that she suffers, it is not easy for them to understand their abused mother's ambivalence, feel empathy toward her suffering, and perceive her as a protective parent. Children may begin to blame her for not caring enough and protecting them from the abuser. Furthermore, they could even stand by the abuser's side. Such blaming of a mother who is abused is double victimization (Magen, 1999). Therefore, when the battered mother has difficulty fulfilling her role as a good parent by being consistent and responsive to her children due to domestic violence, it could spoil the secure attachment with her children, and then she could be blamed for not being a good mother.

Fathering and Domestic Violence

Research regarding fathering in the context of maternal partner violence is scarce when the parenting behaviors of the mother have been considered as the most important indicator of child development and achievement, and the parent-child relationship. According to a feminist perspective, the culture and society views mothers as the primary caregiver who is responsible for the daily care of her children and the fathers as having a supportive role such as being the breadwinner, disciplinarian/authority figure, and playmate, which means that the father's caregiving and nurturing role has been neglected (Adamsons & Buehler, 2007; Simons et al., 1990). Although such a narrow definition of the father's parenting roles has been widened to include caring fatherhood (Adamsons & Buehler, 2007), children would expect more nurturing behaviors from their battered mothers based on culturally learned gender-based parenthood, which could lead to even greater disappointment when she is physically and emotionally not available for daily care.

Findings from previous studies have been consistent that the fathering of violent men involves negative characteristics such as being rigid, uninvolved in their children's lives, not responsible to their needs, and physically punitive (Groves et al., 2007; Perel & Peled, 2008; Peled, 2000; Jourlies et al., 1996). Perel & Peled (2008) conducted in-depth interviews with 14 men who battered and found that some perpetrators describe themselves as aggressive, absent, and emotionally unavailable fathers for their children. In contrast, other men identified themselves as being good fathers in that they usually

provided material needs as a breadwinner, protection, and education in the home and had a traditional concept of fathering (Perel & Peled, 2008).

These men also viewed co-parenting with their partners, the battered mothers, as obstructing their fathering (Perel & Peled, 2008). The abusive males reported that the battered mothers blocked a good relationship with their children and dominated the parental presence at home, which further prompted the perpetrators to blame their abused partners' parenting and avoid their own responsibility as parents.

Child's Perception of Parenting

This study examines the mediating effect of parenting on children's ambivalence by considering children's perceptions of parenting and analyzes the impact of children's perceptions of parental behavior on parent-child relationships. Children's perception of parenting can be different from parental behaviors that parents themselves report. Serot & Teevan's (1961) research about the relationship between parents' attitudes and children's adjustment showed that what a child perceives about a family environment is different from what a parent perceives. Since children tend to report parental behaviors which are different from parents' actual behaviors, child perception reflects this reality in an accurate or inaccurate way (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994); therefore, children sometimes are not the best informants for describing parental behaviors.

Although children do not report well on their parents' behaviors, research shows that their perceptions of parents' behaviors are more important than the behaviors. At times, children and parents report similar perceptions of the family. According to Barr-Anderson et al. (2010), children and their parents have similar perceptions about the

extent to which the home environment is supportive to children. Interestingly, children are even more likely to consider their home supportive than parents do. Alternatively, there is a possibility that parents could over-report how much they are positive and supportive to their child(ren) and/or under-report negative or abusive parental behaviors because of social desirability. Furthermore, how children perceive parents could be more important for them rather than actually what happened to them; therefore children's perceptions should be seriously considered when measuring the risk of family (Jensen et al., 1999).

The importance of children's perception of parents has also been noted by several researchers (Jensen, Rubio-Stipec, Canino, Bird, Dulcan, Schwab-stone & Lahey, 1999; Barr-Anderson, Robinson-O'Brien, Haines, Hannan, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2010; Young, Lennie & Minnis, 2011). Children's perception of familial factors such as parenting can more accurately measure children's emotional or behavioral responses than including parents' reports about their parental behaviors (Barr-Anderson et al., 2010; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994). For example, when analyzing parent-child relationships, Barr-Anderson et al. (2010) found that children's perception of parenting can be a more effective predictor of child's behaviors than actual parenting. For example, Barr-Anderson and colleagues mentioned child perception of familial support for physical activity to elaborate how much child's perception is more influential than parents' reports.

Past research supports the idea that children's perceptions are more important to understanding parent-child relationships than the actual parenting behaviors. For

example, Levenson (1973) explained differences between what really happened and what people have subjectively perceived and suggested that the former is more influential than the latter to understand people themselves. This is consistent with the findings of Barr-Anderson and colleagues (2010) indicating that parents could under- or over-report their behaviors. They also suggested that children's perception of the parent-child relationship is directly related to children's adjustment, whereas the actual relationship is indirectly related to adjustment, which indicates the extent to which children's perceptions impact their adjustment. Similarly, Bosco et al. (2003) stressed the importance of adolescents' perception of parents to explore their functioning. Therefore, examining children's reports about parenting in this study can be more meaningful when analyzing child-parent relationships.

Other Potential Factors Influencing Children's Ambivalence toward Parents

In terms of risk and protective factors when intervening for children who are abused, neglected, or exposed to domestic violence, the following factors should be considered as potential factors affecting relationships between parents and children and children's ambivalence toward their parent figures: (1) family factors – family history of intergenerational transmission of domestic violence, siblings, family size, and parental conditions such as mental health, stress level, and parental competence; (2) community/situational factors – low socioeconomic status regarding income, education and housing, status of unemployment of parents, lack of formal/informal support, peer groups, and physically dangerous neighborhoods; and (3) societal factors – cultural

approval of domestic violence and corporal punishment in society, attitude toward women, laws and policies, and values and attitudes of professionals working with the perpetrators and victims of domestic violence (see Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2007; Gewirtz & Edleson, 2007; Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

To date, however, few studies have examined why children have different relationships with abused/abusive parents based on complex and sometimes ambivalent feelings or why children react differently with adults who have violent relationships at home. As explained above, the severity of exposure to and involvement in domestic violence may be the main factor affecting the way children form relationships with their parent figures in violent situations. In addition to CEDV, numerous factors should be discussed to elucidate these children's perceptions and reactions.

Based on interviews with and observations of play therapy with children exposed to domestic violence, Groves et al. (2007) found that children's emotional reactions to violent incidents are very multifaceted depending on (1) the quality of the relationship with the abusive male, usually the father/stepfather or mother's partner/boyfriend; (2) the characteristics of violence the children witnessed; or (3) whether the children had ever watched the abuser being arrested. Children also respond differently to their parents depending on whether they have a healthy attachment to other family members who are supportive.

The child's gender could also be a factor that affects the relationships with his or her abused or abusive parent. Radford & Hester (2006) explained that older children, particularly in the case of boys, showed a tendency to live with their fathers in spite of

abusive incidents the fathers caused, and they wanted their mothers to go back to the abusive relationships. In contrast, girls seem to be more responsive to the abused mothers during the violence when the mother asks for help and support (Graham-Bermann, 1998; Stover et al., 2006). In the study of Stover et al. (2006) using play with 40 preschool children of separated and divorced families due to domestic violence, boys represented their mothers more negatively, and girls had positive representations of both parents. The authors interpreted this finding to mean that boys' negative representations of their comparatively unattached battered mothers and the mother-son relationship could be because the mothers may see the violent partner in the son and may be afraid of the son becoming like his father. Furthermore, boys seemed to blame their battered mothers for the lack of contact with their fathers after the parents' separation or divorce (Stover et al., 2006). In another case described by Graham-Bermann (1998), the son was forced to get involved in abusing his mother. His mother reported that he did not seem to be willing to get involved in abusing the mom, but eventually decided to live with his father instead of the mother because he was afraid of his controlling father and did not respect the mother enough as a competent parent.

Gender is seen as an influential factor to elaborate on how children learn to behave. Many previous studies have explained same-sex modeling which means children are more likely to imitate the behaviors of the same-sex adult at home (Moretti et al., 2007; Jankowski et al., 1999). For example, children who are exposed to violence by the same-sex parent (e.g., mothers of daughters or fathers of sons) toward his or her spouse tend to abuse their opposite sex partner in adulthood. In terms of gender socialization,

Bem (1993) posited that the social environment gives people three “gender lenses”: gender polarization, androcentrism and biological essentialism.

Chodorow (1978) brought up the issue about the gender-socialization process related to attachment relationships. She explained the social learning process based on attachment relationships in that children tend to develop a strong attachment to the primary caregiver, usually the mother, when they are young. However, over time as the children begin to differentiate gender, children show an intention to imitate behaviors and take on the familial values of the same-gender parent: the girl is likely to identify with the mother whereas the boy consciously and/or unconsciously feels something different about the mother and keeps to himself even more avoiding an attachment with her in some ways (Chodorow, 1978). Thus, children who are exposed to adult domestic violence are likely to feel empathy or sympathy toward the same-sex parent and develop a relationship with that parent. When they consider the abuser as a valued role model, children who are exposed to domestic violence may imitate aggressive and controlling behaviors since people learn what they experience (Bandura, 1971).

Another important factor is the child’s age to explain his or her perceptions, feelings, reactions and relationships with the parent figures when exposed to domestic violence (see Tomison, 2000). The difference in developmental stages and the amount of exposure to adult domestic violence may influence these perceptions. Younger children are likely to be more vulnerable to being exposed to domestic violence. They are even more at risk than older children because they typically stay at home more. For instance, children under 12 years old stay at home where adult violence occurs more than half the

time (Tomison, 2000; Little & Kanton, 2002). In Tomison's (2000) study, particularly children under the age of 9 years old who were exposed to domestic violence were more likely to feel guilty and do self-blaming for their mother's anger and distress.

In addition, having interviewed with children of battered mothers, Peled (1998) found that children got very upset when they witnessed the arrest of their father for violence by the police, and were confused by the socially deviant image of arrested father. However, even if their father was abusive and broke social rules, they just wanted their father back home.

To date, few researchers have attempted to elaborate on other potential factors which can enlighten us on such phenomena regarding parent-child relationships based on children's perceptions of and reactions to adults in the context of domestic violence. Thus, to understand children's diverse representation of the relationships with their abused mothers and abusive father figures, empirical studies directly based on children's voices are urgently needed (Brassard, 1986). Therefore, future studies should consider demographic variables such as the child's age, gender, ethnicity, parent's age, parent's education level, the type of relationship the mother has with the abuser (marital status), the length of that relationship, family income, number of siblings, and birth order of the child. Also, whether a child witnesses getting male perpetrator arrested could be a potential factor that explains child's perception of and attitude toward parents living through domestic violence.

Therefore, this study is to explore the parent-child relationships in the family suffering domestic violence based on the severity of child exposure to domestic violence, the level of child's perception of parenting, and the variation in child's ambivalence toward parent figure(s).

Chapter 3. Theoretical Framework

In this section, two theoretical frameworks are chosen to explain parent-child relationships based on children's ambivalence toward their parent figures in the context of domestic violence: ambivalence theory and social learning theory. Ambivalence theory is useful for better understanding of children's complex and ambivalent feelings toward their parent figures and social learning theory for a potential effect of maternal/paternal parenting behaviors on such feelings of children and parent-children relationships. I present, therefore, how these theoretical models are complementary to each other and useful in conceptualizing children's relationships with their parent figures.

Ambivalence Theory

Ambivalence theory has been utilized as a useful concept to explain intimate social relationships in that it is able to elaborate the contradictions we experience in daily family relationships (Luescher & Pillemer, 1998; Mabry & Silverstein, 2002; Luscher, 2002). From Bleuler (1911), Freud (1913), and Eidelberg (1968) to Rycroft (1973), the core concept of ambivalence has been regarded as "simultaneous feelings of love and hate toward the same individual" (Luescher & Pillemer, 1998, p. 416), which is typically shown in intimate relationships such as romantic or parent-child relationships. Luescher & Pillemer (1998) in a study of intergenerational ambivalence between parents and adult children developed the definition of ambivalence as two dimensions: (a) sociological or structural ambivalence, which is contradiction at the social structure level such as roles and norms (e.g., burdensome and oppression vs. love and caring in women's household

labor), and (b) psychological or individual ambivalence, which is contradiction at the subjective level such as cognitions, emotions, and motivations (e.g., sympathy vs. aversion in a romantic relationship or autonomy vs. shame in children or young adults). In terms of social structure, children in a violent home would reflect complex roles as an object protected by adults, a tool used by the male abuser to control the battered mother, or a person who is supposed to take care of the battered mother and/or sibling(s) and clean up the aftermath. In addition, at the level of individual ambivalence, children exposed to domestic violence could feel love and hate for their intimate caregivers simultaneously.

In regards to domestic violence, the concept of ambivalence has been widely adapted to explain complex feelings and attitudes of battered women toward their violent partners or spouses. It is not rare to meet battered women who report ambivalent feelings such as love and hate toward their violent partner/spouse over the cycle of domestic violence. At times, battered women also feel ambivalence toward their sons because they remind them of the perpetrator (Radford & Hester, 2006). In this study, concept of ambivalence is also utilized to help understand the complex and various feelings and attitudes children have toward their parent figures in maternal domestic violence.

A battered mother who is a direct victim of maternal domestic violence may be sympathetic to her children for being abused and be often blamed for failing to protect them, for leaving the abuser, and for breaking up the family (Magen, 1999; Radford & Hester, 2006; Bancroft & Silverman, 2002). Children also seem to sometimes lose respect for their mother, particularly when the male abuser often hits her and calls her

names in front of the children (Radford & Hester, 2006) or he acts nice to them to prevent their battered mother from leaving the relationship (Little & Canton, 2002).

It is not very surprising to meet children exposed to the father's violent behaviors showing ambivalence toward their parent figures. Carcaterra in his autobiography *A Safe Place* (1994) describes this ambivalence with his own father: "... my father. A man I never understood. A man I had cursed for so many years. A man I loved more than any other." (Carcaterra, 1994, p. 294). Some children seemed to live with two opposing emotions, "the good, loved father and the bad, abusive father" rather than taking a side (Peled, 2000, p. 27). Even if children consider the abuse to be the fault of the perpetrator, they may still be emotionally close to him. On the basis of such loving feelings of children toward the father figure, a biological father in many cases, they could have a stronger bond with him than with the battered mother.

Little is known about potential integration of ambivalence and social learning theory for better understanding of the parent-child relationship in maternal domestic violence situations. Such diverse and even ambivalent feelings and perceptions of children toward their parent figures in maternal domestic violence could be influenced by modeling and imitating parental behaviors. Next, social learning theory is included to elaborate how parent's violent behaviors could affect a child's complex feelings and attitudes towards the parents.

Social Learning Theory

In regard to domestic violence, social learning theory has been used to explain how people learn violent behaviors from their parents or other significant family members and how these violent behaviors encourage them to use violence against women later in life. According to Bandura (1971), social learning theory basically begins with modeling, based on the behavioral approach, in that people learn behaviors, norms, and values by observing and imitating others which are then reinforced. Based on the rewards associated with the behavior, people replicate, retain, or abandon the behaviors they learn. Thus, social learning theory represents one of the most successful parenting strategies for primary caregivers using positive reinforcement such as attention and compliments for particular behaviors and negative reinforcement such as punishment for misbehaviors (see Bandura, 1971; Payne, 2005). In this study, therefore, social learning theory helps explain the effect of parenting on the parent-children relationship through role modeling in a home where there is domestic violence.

In regards to parenting behaviors, Shamir et al. (2001) insisted that child's exposure to marital conflict should be considered as a part of parenting in its wider definition since children learn from the way their parents communicate with each other. More importantly, on the basis of how the male perpetrator treats the abused female, children also learn that such violent behaviors against women are socially condoned. As for modeling abusive behaviors, children living in women-abusive families also learn meanings, intentions, and actions from those who aim to control the women (Graham-Bermann, 1998). Moretti and colleagues (2007) posit that learning through observation of

parental aggressive relationships could be even more powerful than being directly educated. Most people do not learn behaviors by reading books, but from others who demonstrate what to do and by receiving feedback and encouragement (Payne, 2005; Moretti et al., 2007). Accordingly, children exposed to domestic violence by witnessing and/or overhearing abusive incidents easily learn how parent figures respond to conflicts and relationship problems, even though they are being told what not to do.

The children's own aggressive interactions may result from not only witnessing interparental disputes but also from being exposed to the aftermath of domestic violence (Davies & Sturge-Apple, 2007). Even when people are not directly abused but only exposed to adult violence at home in childhood, they seem to model violent interactions later in life and then justify their irrational cognition and behaviors (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2007).

Children exposed to domestic violence are also likely to learn that abusive behaviors are appropriate and an acceptable way to express their feelings, resolve family conflicts, or control family members (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2007; Moretti et al., 2007). In terms of intergenerational transmission of domestic violence, many perpetrators and even victims have reported their experiences of being abused and/or neglected by caregivers in childhood (Ehrensaft et al., 2003; Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2007). Social learning theory explains intergenerational patterns of domestic violence well (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2007). Children learn how to build an intimate partner relationship by observing how their parent figures act successfully in such a relationship and take the side of perpetration or victimization, such as showing aggressive behaviors or

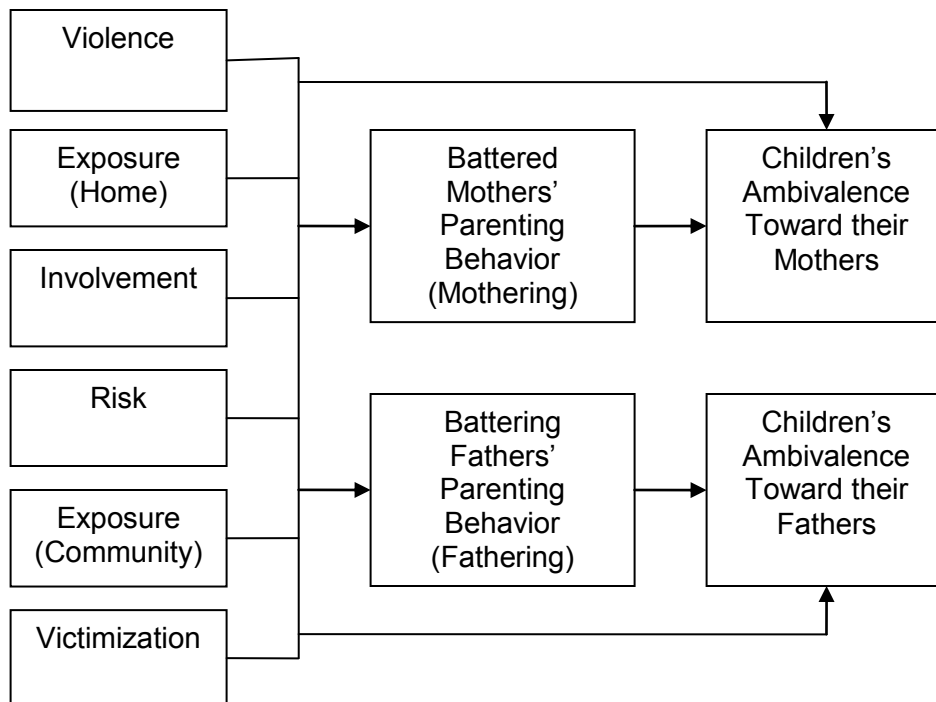
demonstrating learned helplessness. Furthermore, children can even learn how to treat their abused mothers from behaviors of abusive father figures. In addition, we need to understand that children can learn how to interact with others based on outside sources such as the media, peer groups, and family which is well connected with the concept of ecological theory.

According to social learning theory, alternative ways of having a healthy relationship with an intimate partner can be gained by learning techniques such as assertiveness and communication skills, which are particularly adapted in feminist practice (Payne, 2005).

Chapter 4. Conceptual Framework and Research Questions

This study aimed to understand parent-child relationships from the children's perspectives based on their ambivalence toward their parent figures in domestic violence. By using a sample of children who used to be at high risk of being exposed to domestic violence, the main effect of child exposure to domestic violence on their relationship with both the battered mother and battering father figure was examined with a prospective research design of Path Analysis. Figure 4.1 shows the conceptual framework based on research questions and hypotheses in the study.

Figure 4.1. Conceptual Framework



The following research questions and hypotheses are tested with the path model.

1. How does variation in the severity of child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV) affect children's relationships with their battered mothers and the battering males in the household based on children's ambivalence?
 - 1.1. CEDV will directly influence child(ren)'s ambivalence toward the battered mother and the battering father figure.
 - 1.1.1. The more severe the CEDV is, the higher the ambivalence toward the battered mother.
 - 1.1.2. The more severe the CEDV is, the higher the ambivalence toward the battering father figure.
 - 1.2. CEDV will indirectly influence child(ren)'s ambivalence toward the battered mother and the battering father figure through parenting behaviors.
2. How does variation in the severity of CEDV affect child's perception on parenting behaviors?
 - 2.1. The severity of CEDV will predict child's perception on negative parenting behaviors of the battered mother.
 - 2.2. The severity of CEDV will predict child's perception on negative parenting behaviors of the battering father figure.
3. How does child's perception on parenting behaviors predict variations in child's ambivalence toward both of the battered mother and the battering male in the household?

- 3.1. Child's perception on negative maternal parenting behaviors will predict less ambivalence of children toward the battered mother.
- 3.2. Child's perception on negative paternal parenting behaviors will predict more ambivalence of children toward the battering father figure.
4. Is there any difference between female and male children on paths from the level of CEDV to ambivalence toward the battered mother and the battering father figure?

Chapter 5. Methods

The research method of the current study is a cross-sectional quantitative study design targeted at 10-16 year-old children. The study specifically examines how their exposure to and involvement in adult domestic violence affects their relationships with both parent figures. In this study model, parenting behaviors and skills are included as moderators of the relationship between CEDV and children's ambivalent perceptions and feelings toward their parent figures. The path examining the effect of independent and moderating variables on a dependent variable will be analyzed using path analysis.

A quantitative method is mainly employed here to achieve representation and generalization of research findings, so it relies less on subjectivity but is more focused on the collection of numerical data and statistical analyses using standardized measurements (Babbie, 2007). Such a method is more efficient and makes it possible to test the hypotheses and assumptions regarding children's ambivalent feelings and perceptions as provided by previous studies (see Groves et al. 2007; Radford & Hester, 2006; Bancroft & Silverman, 2002; Peled, 2000; Magen, 1999; Mahoney et al., 1996). Furthermore, a quantitative method is helpful to explain casual relationships between CEDV, parenting behaviors, and children's ambivalence. It helps researchers minimize potential bias over collecting and interpreting data compared to qualitative research as the survey is administered by numerous agency staff members who have greater accessibility to vulnerable participants.

In addition, listening to children's voices is a very meaningful factor in this study. The research questions and hypotheses in the study will be tested directly based on the

presentation of children exposed to domestic violence. Research and interventions for children at risk due to exposure to adult violence at home have been mainly based on reports of the mothers, who are the primary caregivers and victims, instead of from the children themselves (Mills, 1998; Little & Kantor, 2002; Edleson et al., 2008). In practice information about CEDV has also been gathered not from children but primary caregivers such as mothers. For instance, Severity of Violence Against Women Scales – Child Witnessing (SVAWS-CW) asks battered mothers if their children ever witnessed or overheard any of the violent incidents against them in the home (Marshall, 1992). However, mothers may misinterpret the degree of CEDV and be unaware of how children view the family relationships in domestic violence.

Many studies have emphasized the benefit of using children’s voices instead of those of the mothers (Holder, 2002; Marshall, 1992). Children are the best informants regarding their own feelings and perceptions of domestic violence in that the primary caregivers often fail to notice the fact that their children could be experiencing conflicting emotions when exposed to domestic violence. Thus, this study uses a survey to gather information regarding the parent-child relationship based on the children’s perspectives. A side benefit of this method is that it can help the children feel more empowered by being asked about behaviors of their family members in this study (Brassard, 1986).

Participants

Participants of the current study are children aged 10-16 years who might have been exposed to adult domestic violence during the past one year to examine the parent-

child relationships from the children's point of view. Potential participants in this study could be children who have stayed in a domestic violence shelter and/or used agency services. Since this is a paper and pencil survey that is self-administered, children who participate need to be able to understand the language in the set of questionnaires when they are asked to fill in their responses. In terms of literacy, at the stage of development of the CEDV scale that is one of the main measures in the study, words and sentences were simplified to achieve a Flesch-Kincaid fourth grade readability level (Edleson et al., 2008).

Procedures

Seven domestic violence intervention and prevention non-profit services and youth programs in Minnesota metropolitan area were asked to be involved in the study. Target subjects for the study are children who had experienced domestic violence. Among the battered women clients in the agencies who have 10-16 years old child(ren) were invited by agency staff members to participate in the study. Agency staff members were asked to identify potential participants who are mothers or legal guardians of children aged 10-16 from among the battered women using the services at these community-based agencies. In addition, recruitment flyers were posted on the bulletin boards at each domestic violence agency and community program, so that women who were interested in the current study were able to contact agency staff for more information. Potential participants were informed by staff at the agencies about the study and could discuss with staff about the study's purpose, procedure, confidentiality, the

staff's responsibility of mandatory reporting, and potential harm and benefits for the participating children. Parental consent forms including all information about the study were provided to the battered mothers or legal guardians of the children, but there was no space to write names to avoid identifying any participants.

If the mothers agreed to have their child(ren) participate in the study and gave verbal parental consent, a staff member then met the children to discuss the same things and asked if they were willing to complete the survey. When the child gave verbal consent, the staff member took an individual or group format into a private or quiet location, depending on the environmental situation or staff's preference at each agency. At the beginning of the survey, a staff member read the instructions for each questionnaire aloud. Most of all, staff emphasized that it is totally voluntary and the child can stop answering the questions anytime he or she wants before starting the survey. In order to help children understand clearly who means "mom" and "mom's partner" in the questionnaire, staff delivered the directions and examples indicating that "mom" means the woman they have lived and who has taken care of them (e.g., mom, stepmom, foster mom), and "mom's partner" means who is in their life (e.g., dad, step dad, mom's girlfriend or boyfriend). Then, they stayed with the children to answer any questions that would come up. If any information from participating children about their experiences of being abused was revealed aloud during the administration process, the attending staff member should follow the agency's mandated reporting requirements.

This is a paper and pencil based self-ministered survey. Subjects fill in the CEDV scale, Child's Attitude toward the Mother / Father (CAM / CAF), Parent Perception

Inventory (PPI), and a list of demographic questions by themselves. According to the pilot test, it takes approximately 30 minutes for a participant to complete these questionnaires.

After each child had turned in the completed questionnaires to staff, he or she was offered a \$5 gift card as gratuity. Completed questionnaires were immediately placed in a sealed envelope after administration and agency staff could not look at the child's responses and the researcher could not obtain any information about the subject's identification. In addition, each agency received \$200 as an honorarium for contacting the mothers and administering the measures.

Before starting the study, a pilot test was conducted with eight children who were staying at a domestic violence shelter with their battered mothers to pretest a set of questionnaires and the interview schedule. The researcher specifically attempted to determine through the pilot test (1) if participants had any difficulty following the directions or questions themselves during the survey; (2) how long it took for the children to complete the questionnaires; (3) if there were any specific questions the participant tended to avoid answering or usually skipped; (4) if participants reported any other unpredicted issues including harm and benefits. According to the agency staff member who administered the pilot survey, participating children usually completed the set of questionnaires in about 30 minutes. The staff also reported that children seemed to feel empowered by being invited to participate in the study and by being asked about their life and experiences. This was an unexpected benefit of the study. Brassard (1986) reported the same benefit of collecting information directly from young children who reported

their perspectives about the parent-child relationship. For example, in their study children who responded to the self-administered measures such as Parent Perception Inventory (PPI) seemed excited to be asked their opinion about their parents' behaviors. In the current study, it appears that only two of the eight participants skipped a couple of questions while all other questions were very sincerely answered.

Ethical Concerns

The current study follows the Institutional Review Board's regulations at the University of Minnesota to protect human subjects. The subjects in the study are children exposed to domestic violence so they are relatively vulnerable because of both their young age and their detrimental experiences in the home; therefore, a full IRB review was conducted before beginning any activities. In this study, subjects may be placed in emotionally stressful situations because of the sensitive questions concerning their attitudes, feelings, and experiences related to their relationships with their parent figures who are involved in domestic violence. In terms of potential primary risks, anxiety, stress, guilt, or depression may occur while filling in the questionnaires or after completing the questionnaires. Thus, participating children were fully informed before beginning the survey and were told they can stop at any time without any penalty if they feel uncomfortable. Adequate provision has been made for rapid termination of the survey at the children's request or agency staff's decision. The potential risks and benefits were explained to participating children as well as their legal guardians, usually mothers, before taking the survey. Respondents would not receive direct benefit from

participating in the study, but the study may provide researchers with a better understanding of parent-child relationships in the context of domestic violence based on the children's voices.

Before conducting the survey, the staff received verbal consent from the mothers and verbal assent from children: that is, such informed consent and assent were not documented in a written form to avoid any possibility of identifying participants. Instead, an agency staff member gave participants the consent/assent forms approved by the IRB as records that the parents and children can keep. These forms explicitly describe how a subject may withdraw from the survey at any time for any reason without penalty and information collected from the survey will be only open to the research team. Providing the consent/assent forms and receiving verbal consent/assent serves several purposes: (1) it provides adequate information to potential research subjects who may be interested in the study; and (2) it keeps subjects' identity and information confidential.

During administration or later, the researcher has no opportunity to directly contact any mother or child unless the mother calls or emails with a question or expresses concerns. Therefore, the researcher cannot obtain any identifying information about the subjects.

The current study is confidential and anonymous based on subjects' voluntary participation. Anonymous in this context means that no information about respondents that could identify them will be recorded. Each questionnaire has an ID number only for data entry and management purposes. Information gathered from the survey process will be kept confidential as numeric data without any names on the questionnaires. In

addition, the research team and the IRB are the only parties who are allowed to see the data. However, participants are given the contact information of the research team in case the participants have further concerns.

Measures

To examine the effect of child exposure to adult domestic violence and parenting on the relationships between children and their parent figures, a set of measures and demographic questions are used. These measures consist of the following: (1) Child's Attitude toward the Mother and Father (CAM/CAF) as a dependent variable, (2) the Child Exposure to Domestic Violence Scale (CEDV), and (3) the Child Perception of Parents Inventory toward the Mother and Father (PPI-M/PPI-F). Ambivalence is measured with each of nine positive and negative questions from both CAM and CAF. Other demographic data are also gathered along with the standardized scales.

Table 5.1. Measures Used in the Study

Variable	Measure	Response Category
<i>Dependent Variable</i>		
Ambivalence toward a Battered Mother	Child's Attitude toward the Mother (CAM)	5-point Likert response: 0=Rarely or none of the time, 1=A little of the time, 2=Some if the time, 3=A good part of the time, and 4=Most or all of the time
Ambivalence toward a Battering Father Figure	Child's Attitude toward the Father (CAF)	Same as above.
<i>Independent Variable</i>		
Degree of Child Exposure to Violence Level of Violence at Home Level of Exposure to Violence at Home Level of Involvement Level of Exposure to Violence at Community Risk Factor Victimization	Child Exposure to Domestic Violence scale (CEDV)	4-point Likert response except for "level of exposure to violence at home": 0=Never 1=Sometimes 2=Often, 3=Almost Always.
Positive Parenting Behaviors of the Mother	Parent Perception Inventory toward the Mother (PPI-M)	5-point Likert response: 0=Never 1=A little 2=Sometimes, 3=Pretty much 4=A lot
Positive Parenting Behaviors of the Father	Parent Perception Inventory toward the Father (PPI-F)	Same as above

Child Exposure to Domestic Violence Scale (CEDV: Edleson et al., 2008)

The CEDV Scale is a set of 42 items including demographic questions, a child self-reported scale that measures how much a child has been exposed to and involved in adult violence at home over the last year. It consists of three sections with six subscales.

The first section can be divided into two subscales with 10 items: level of violence at home and level of exposure to such violence at home. The first part asks about the severity of violence between the parent figures at home with 10 questions (e.g., “Has your mom’s partner ever hurt your mom’s feelings?”) using a four-point Likert type scale from “Never (0)” to “Almost Always (3).” A higher score indicates more violence, while a lower score indicates less violence. For each question in the response set, if the child reports that such violent incident occurred toward his or her mom by a father figure at home, then it gauges the level of child exposure to adult domestic violence based on how she or he knows of domestic violence, including five choices: “I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came),” “I heard about it afterwards,” “I heard it while it was happening,” “I saw it from far away while it was happening,” or “I saw it and was near while it was happening.” Since it is a multiple response set, the child is supposed to check all types of exposure experienced and then is able to move onto the next item.

The second section consists of the four subscales with 23 items using the same four-point Likert scale: (1) level of involvement in adult domestic violence (11-17) including “When your mom’s partner hurts your mom, how often have you gotten physically involved trying to stop the fighting?” (2) level of exposure to violence in the

community (22-29) including “How often have you seen someone else in your community or at school get hurt by being grabbed, slapped, punched, kicked or hurt by a knife or a gun?” (3) risk factors (18-21) including “How often do you worry about your mom’s partner getting drunk or taking drugs?” and (4) other victimization (30-33) including “How often has someone in your family touched your private parts when you didn’t want them to, made you touch their private parts, or forced you to have sex?” These questions are to assess how often the child is involved in violent incidents at home and exposed to other types of violence in the community.

The CEDV scale is designed for 10-16 years old children who are able to read and understand the measure since it is self-administered. Thus, it was originally developed to meet the readability of a Flesch-Kincaid fourth grade level. To help children easily understand the scale, the child’s mother is assumed to be the victim whereas the child’s father or mother’s male partner is assumed to be the perpetrator.

In order to examine the reliability of the CEDV scale, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients indicated relatively high internal consistency over the test-retest: .86-.84 for total items, .78-.74 for level of violence, .85-.76 for level of exposure at home, .64-.71 for level of exposure in the community, .67-.50 for level of involvement, and .24-.60 for risk factors, when the initial version of the CEDV scale with a 3-point Likert type response set was used in Edleson et al.’s (2008) study.

Children’s Attitudes toward the Mother/Father (CAM/CAF: Hudson, 1982)

The CAM and CAF scales are employed in the study to understand relationships between parent-child in domestic violence. They were originally designed “to measure

the degree, severity, or magnitude of a problem a child has with its mother or father” from the child’s perspective (Hudson, 1982, p. 5). They have been used in several studies as valid measures of problematic parent-child relationships (see Saunders & Schuchts, 1987; Brassard, 1986; Daigneault et al., 2007). While measuring the quality of relationships with a primary caregiver in those studies, Cronbach’s alpha was from .89 to .97, which was highly reliable (see Saunders & Schuchts, 1987; Daigneault, Hebert, & Tourigny, 2007).

The CAM and CAF scales are identical in items except for the substitution of the words “mother” and “father,” and in this study, the meaning of father is extended to the mother’s boyfriend and/or partner. A total 50 items ask about the positive/negative characteristics of the mother (25 items) and particularities of the father figure including the mother’s boyfriend/partner and father-child relationships (25 items), which are short statements, such as “My mother (father) gets on my nerves” and “I like being with my mother (father).”

The items are rated using a five-point Likert scale consisting of “Rarely or none of the time (0),” “A little of the time (1),” “Some of the time (2),” “A good part of the time (3),” and “Most or all of the time (4).” Along with 16 negatively worded items, nine positively worded items should be reversed to sum the scores. However, in this study, negative items were reversed to sum the scores to consistently interpret the analysis models. Scores can be simply added up with a potential range of 0 to 100; that is, a lower score is associated with a severe relationship problem. Daigneault and colleagues (2007) provided a standard to interpret CAM/CAF scores indicating that a score from 30 to 69

means “a clinically problematic relationship” and a score over 70 means that the child experiences “severe relational stress.” According to their interpretation, the child reporting a score over 70 on the CAM or CAF may use or think of using violence to deal with such stressful situations (Daigneault et al., 2007). Therefore, since negative items were reversed, a score under 30 can be interpreted in that participants perceive severe family distress and parent-child difficulties and a score from 31 to 70 means that they have a clinically problematic relationship with parents.

The CAM and CAF scales were originally developed to be given in grades 7 through 12, but the age range has been expanded in clinical and research settings (Daigneault et al, 2007; Saunders, 1987).

Ambivalence

Ambivalence in the study was defined as the extent to which children exposed to adult violence at home perceive their relationships with their battered mother and battering father figure (e.g., father, mom’s partner or boyfriend) as both positive and negative. The following computational formula has been used in previous studies (Willson, Shuey, Elder, & Wickrama, 2006; Ha & Ingersoll-Dayton, 2008).

$$\text{Ambivalence} = (\text{positive} + \text{negative}) / 2 - |\text{positive} - \text{negative}|.$$

According to the formula, to measure ambivalent feelings and attitudes of children exposed to domestic violence toward their parent figures, sum of each positive and negative items were supposed to use. However, since the number of positive and negative questions is not equal and items from the standardized instrument are not

supposed to be arbitrarily chosen for use, average scores of positive and negative items were used for calculation with the formula above.

As interpreting results, in terms of intensity, the bigger the ambivalence score, the more severe ambivalence children have. The smaller the ambivalence score, also the less severe the ambivalence children have.

Parent Perception Inventory (PPI: Hazzard, Christensen, & Margolin, 1983)

To measure positive and negative parental behaviors from the children's perspective, the PPI is included. Like CAM/CAF, the 18 items of the PPI are identical except for the word "mother" and "father." In total, the measure consists of four subscales of Mother Positive (9 items), Father Positive (9 items), Mother Negative (9 items), and Father Negative (9 items). Questions asking about the positive behaviors of the mother and father include "How often does your mother (father) talk to you / listen to you / have a good conversation with you?" whereas one of the questions about negative behaviors is "How often does your mother (father) send you to a room or corner when you do something wrong?" and "How often does your mother (father) ignore you / not pay attention to you / not talk to you or look at you?" Items are rated in a pictorial/written 5-point Likert scale with "Never (0)," "A little (1)," "Sometimes (2)," "Pretty much (3)," and "A lot (4)." Total scores can range from 0 to 36 for each subscale.

In a study by Hazzard and colleagues (1983) with 75 children aged 5-13, Cronbach's alpha for reliability of the measure ranged from .78 to .88 over the four subscales. According to previous studies, using the PPI is evidently appropriate for

elementary school-aged children (Hazzard et al., 1983) or children aged 5-13 (Brassard, 1986).

Demographic Questions

In order to examine other potential factors affecting parent-child relationships, along with questions about socio-economic status in the CEDV scale, another set of questions was added to determine: (1) the type of relationship between the mother and the abusive male at home, (2) the length of the relationship between the battered mother and the abusive father figure, (3) the time when the father figure started abusing the mother, (4) whether the child has witnessed the father-figured male being arrested by the police because of a violent incident at home, (5) whether the child has participated in any program at a shelter in the last month; and (6) the income of the family, age, gender, ethnicity and number of siblings the child has. Table 2 below shows the list of included demographic questions and their response sets.

Table 5.2. Demographic Questions Included in the Study

Variable	Response Category
<i>Independent Variable continued</i> (Demographic factor)	
Type of relationship between the mother and the father figure	5-point Categorical response: 1=Father, 2=Step-father, 3=Mother's Boyfriend, 4=Mother's Girlfriend, and 5=Others
Length of relationship between the mother and father figure	4-point Likert response: 1=Less than 1 year, 2=1-3 years, 3=3-10 years, and 4=Over 10 years
Time when the parents started to fight	5-point Likert response: 1=DK, 2=This year, 3=2-3 years ago, 4=4 or more years ago, and 5=As long as I remember
Ever witnessed a father-figure being arrested	Dichotomous response: 0=No. 1=Yes
Participation in any program	Dichotomous variable: 0=No, 1=Yes.
Income	4-point Likert response: 1=Not Enough, 2=Enough, 3=Very Enough, and 4=DK
Age	Number of years
Gender	Dichotomous variable: 0=Male, 1=Female

Table 5.2. Demographic Questions Included in the Study (continued)

Variable	Response Category
Ethnicity	Categorical variable: 1=White/Caucasian/European American 2=Black/African American/African 3=American Indian/Native American 4=Asian or Pacific Islander 5=Latino/Latina/Hispanic 6=Multi-racial/No primary racial or ethnic identification 7=Other (What?) _____ 8=I don't know 9=I don't want to answer this question
Sibling	Number of sister(s) and brother(s)

Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis consisted of three parts: descriptive analysis, missing data analysis using multiple imputation, and path model analysis.

Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analyses including mean, standard deviation, t-test and so forth were conducted to demonstrate demographic characteristics. These exploratory data analyses showed the averages and distribution of responses. Additionally, to compare the quality of parenting of each battered mother and battering father figure and their relationships with the children with them, paired t-tests were employed.

Multiple Imputation for Missing Data Analysis

Especially when surveying children, missing data could be a serious limitation. Children might not want to answer uncomfortable questions or could skip to answer some questions just at random. In addition, since the number of cases in the study was not comparatively big, total 99 cases in the final analysis, it was crucial not to lose any case. When a quantitative data set with missing values was utilized, the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method was a useful statistical strategy compared to such simple approaches as mean imputation or random imputation that possibly contains the standard errors of estimates. It multiplied imputed data sets, gave new five datasets with replaced missing value, and combined the results.

Path Analysis

Path analysis, a general and powerful multivariate analysis technique, was employed to examine the observed association among the variables. The benefit of using

this method in the study could be that the path model explained various factors in one model; it was further possible to compare causal relationships in both of the mother-child and father-child cases. It was also very effective to elucidate the influence of mediators, parenting behaviors in this study, using causal flows. Multiple group analyses were also performed to see similarities and differences between male and female subgroups.

Descriptive statistics, t-tests, multiple imputations were calculated using SAS 9.0 and path analyses and multiple group analyses were performed using MPlus 3.0 to test hypotheses.

Chapter 6. Findings

Descriptive Analyses

This section describes the sample. Total 97 cases were included in the final analyses. As shown in the Table 6.1, the average of participants' age was 12.87 years (SD=2.12). Among total 97 participants, 59.8% ($n=58$) were female and 37.1% ($n=36$) were male. Seven community based organizations mainly working to improve life for battered women and their children were collaborated in the study. Each of 22.7% ($n=22$) were participated through Agency A and E. working to improve life for battered women and their children 14.4% ($n=14$), 13.4% ($n=13$), 12.4% ($n=12$) and 10.3% ($n=10$) were collected from Agency C, G, F, and D, respectively; only 4.12% ($n=4$) were recruited from Agency B.

Questioned about ethnicity, 26.8% ($n=26$) identified themselves as African American or African, 25.8% ($n=25$) as Caucasian or European American, 17.5% ($n=17$) as multi-racial or having no primary racial identification, and 6.2% ($n=6$) as American Indian or Native American. Each of 1% reported themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander ($n=1$) and Latino/Latina or Hispanic ($n=1$).

In regard to family income, 39.2% ($n=38$) of participating children said that they don't have enough money, while 32% ($n=31$) reported enough money for needed and 9.3% ($n=9$) enough money for extra things. About one of fifth (17.5%, $n=17$) reported they don't know about family income.

The average number of siblings that participants had was 3.08 (SD=2.49) and the average number of people living together was 2.59 (SD=1.15). Interestingly, the number

of siblings was higher than one of people living together at the point of interview indicating that participants had more sibling(s) who did not live together.

Asked about who the perpetrator was, 41.2% of participants ($n=40$) identified him as a father, 23.7% ($n=23$) as mother's boyfriend or partner, 12.4% ($n=12$) as a step-father, and 9.3% ($n=9$) as others. In terms of the length of battered mother's relationship with the battering male at home, 26.8% ($n=26$) reported that it was over 10 years, 20.6% ($n=20$) did 1-3 years, 18.6% ($n=18$) did 3-10 years, and 15.5% ($n=15$) did less than 1 year. That is, almost the half of participating children had exposed to violence at home for more than three years.

When participants were questioned about the first time that the domestic violence incident started, about the half said that it started as long as they remember (47.4%, $n=46$), 17.5% ($n=17$) said they don't remember when it started, and 15.5% ($n=15$) reported that it started 2-3 years ago. Also, when they were asked if they ever witnessed the perpetrator was arrested for abusing their mother, almost half said no (45.4%, $n=44$) and the other half said yes (43.3%, $n=42$).

Table 6.1. Demographic characteristics of the sample (N=97)

Variable	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Age (Mean=12.87, SD=2.12)		
Gender		
Male	36	37.1
Female	58	59.8
Missing	3	3.1
Agency		
A	22	22.7
B	4	4.1
C	14	14.4
D	10	10.3
E	22	22.7
F	12	12.4
G	13	13.4
Ethnicity		
Caucasian/European American	25	25.8
African American/African	26	26.8
American Indian/Native American	6	6.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	1.0
Latino/Latina/Hispanic	1	1.0
Multi-racial/No primary racial identification	17	17.5
Others	9	9.3
Don't know	4	4.1
Don't want to answer	2	2.1
Missing	6	6.2
Family income		
Not enough	38	39.2
Enough for needed	31	32.0
Enough for extra things	9	9.3
Don't know	17	17.5
Missing	2	2.1
Total number of siblings (Mean=3.08, SD=2.49)		
Total number of people living together (Mean=2.59, SD=1.15)		

Table 6.1. Demographic characteristics of the sample (N=97) (continued)

Variable	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Relationship with perpetrator		
Father	40	41.2
Step-father	12	12.4
Mother's boyfriend or partner	23	23.7
Others	9	9.3
Missing	13	13.4
Length of relationship		
Less than 1 year	15	15.46
1-3 years	20	20.62
3-10 years	18	18.56
Over 10 years	26	26.80
Missing	18	18.56
When the fighting started		
Don't remember	17	17.53
Started this year	8	8.25
Started 2-3 years ago	15	15.46
Started 4 or more years ago	6	6.19
As long as I remember	46	47.42
Missing	5	5.15
Ever witnessed perpetrator arrested for abusing mom		
Yes	42	43.3
No	44	45.4
Missing	11	11.3

Participating children in the study were asked to rate how much they had been exposed to violence at home and in the community. As seen in Table 6.2, in terms of the level of violence, almost all of participants reported that mom's partner hurt her feelings more than sometimes (Q2: $M=1.83$, $SD=0.91$). More than half (53.1%) said that mom's partner broke or destroyed something. In regards to physical violence toward their mother, they reported that mom's partner hurt her body sometimes (50%), often (11.5%), and almost always (7.3%). Mom's partner threatened to use weapon at least once or more times (31.3%) and actually hurt her with knife, gun, or object once or more (18.7%).

Participants seemed to be involved in domestic violence in various ways. 38.5% said that they sometimes yelled at mom and her partner during the fight in the same room (Q12: $M=0.93$, $SD=0.93$), as 36.5% reported mom's partner did something to them to hurt or scare mother (Q15: $M=0.87$, $SD=0.95$). Also, about two third tried to get away from the fighting more than sometimes (Q16: $M=1.09$, $SD=1.03$).

Participants reported high scores in risk factors compared to other subscales. Almost all children in the study (94.8%) were concerned about their mom who seemed sad, worried, or upset (Q20: $M=1.74$, $SD=0.85$), and 86.5% had big changes in their life (Q21: $M=1.74$, $SD=1.04$). As 26% of participants worried about their mom's drinking or drug use (Q18: $M=0.51$, $SD=0.97$), 58.3% worried about mom's partner's drinking or drug use (Q19: $M=1.07$, $SD=1.09$).

In regards to exposure to community violence, respondents reported a wide range of violence from seeing a violent movie that contains emotional or physical violence to actually hurting someone on purpose. Not surprisingly, the majority of participants

reported the experiences in which they had seen someone hurt or killed in a movie (Q28: $M=2.07$, $SD=0.90$) or a video game (Q29: $M=1.92$, $SD=0.99$), or suffered name calling (Q23: $M=1.98$, $SD=0.97$). At the same time, participants themselves physically hurt someone on purpose sometimes (28.1%) or often (3.1%) (Q25: $M=0.35$, $SD=0.54$).

Asked about other types of victimization, participants reported that they were emotionally, physically, and/or sexually victimized. They were hurt emotionally (46.9%) and physically (29.2%) by an adult family member. Also, 10.4% reported their experience of sexual abuse by someone not in family, and, more seriously, 8.3% said someone in the family touched their private parts.

Table 6.2. Frequency (Percentage) of 5 Subscales of CEDV (n=96)

Variable	Never (%)	Some times (%)	Often (%)	Almost Always (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
Level of Violence						
1. Adults in your family disagree	7 (7.3)	33 (34.4)	25 (26.0)	24 (25.0)	7 (7.3)	1.74
2. Mom's partner hurt her feelings	5 (5.2)	32 (33.3)	29 (30.2)	26 (27.1)	4 (4.2)	1.83 (0.91)
3. Mom's partner stopped her from doing something	36 (37.5)	25 (26.0)	22 (22.9)	12 (12.5)	1 (1.0)	1.11 (1.06)
4. Mom's partner stopped her from eating/sleeping	51 (53.1)	23 (24.0)	18 (18.8)	3 (3.1)	1 (1.0)	0.72 (0.88)
5. Mom and her partner argued about you	32 (33.3)	47 (49.0)	10 (10.4)	6 (6.2)	1 (1.0)	0.89 (0.83)
6. Mom's partner hurt pet in the home	77 (80.2)	13 (13.5)	1 (1.0)	4 (4.2)	1 (1.0)	0.28 (0.69)
7. Mom's partner broke/destroyed something	43 (44.8)	31 (32.3)	13 (13.5)	7 (7.3)	2 (2.1)	0.83 (0.93)
8. Mom's partner hurt her body	30 (31.2)	48 (50.0)	11 (11.5)	4 (4.2)	3 (3.1)	0.88 (0.78)
9. Mom's partner threatened to use weapon	64 (66.7)	22 (22.9)	6 (6.3)	2 (2.1)	2 (2.1)	0.43 (0.71)
10. Mom's partner hurt her with knife, gun, object	76 (79.2)	17 (17.7)	0 (0)	1 (1.0)	2 (2.1)	0.21 (0.48)
Involvement						
11. Yelled at mom and partner during fight	44 (45.8)	29 (30.2)	14 (14.6)	6 (6.3)	3 (3.1)	0.81 (0.92)
12. Yelled at mom and partner during fight (same room)	36 (37.5)	37 (38.5)	13 (13.5)	8 (8.3)	2 (2.1)	0.93 (0.93)
13. Called for help when partner hurts your mom	59 (61.5)	20 (20.8)	7 (7.3)	7 (7.3)	3 (3.1)	0.59 (0.92)
14. Physically tried to stop mom and partner's fight	56 (58.3)	25 (26.0)	6 (6.3)	7 (7.3)	2 (2.1)	0.62 (0.91)
15. Partner did something to you to hurt/scare mom	40 (41.7)	35 (36.5)	10 (10.4)	9 (9.4)	2 (2.1)	0.87 (0.95)
16. Tried to get away from the fighting	31 (32.3)	33 (34.4)	13 (13.5)	13 (13.5)	6 (6.3)	1.09 (1.03)
17. Mom's partner asked you to tell on your mom	40 (41.7)	28 (29.2)	16 (16.7)	10 (10.4)	2 (2.1)	0.96 (1.02)

Table 6.2. Frequency (Percentage) of 5 Subscales of CEDV (n=96, continued)

Variable	Never (%)	Some times (%)	Often (%)	Almost Always (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
Risk Factors						
18. Worry about partner's drinking or drugs use	38 (39.6)	25 (26.0)	17 (17.7)	14 (14.6)	2 (2.1)	1.07 (1.09)
19. Worry about your mom's drinking or drug	71 (74.0)	10 (10.4)	6 (6.3)	9 (9.4)	0 (0)	0.51 (0.97)
20. Your mom seems sad, worried, or upset	5 (5.2)	35 (36.5)	36 (37.5)	20 (20.8)	0 (0)	1.74 (0.85)
21. You have had big changes in your life	10 (10.4)	35 (36.5)	17 (17.7)	31 (32.3)	3 (3.1)	1.74 (1.04)
Community Exposure						
22. Heard a person do name calling and tease others	7 (7.3)	25 (26.0)	27 (28.1)	37 (38.5)	0 (0)	1.98 (0.97)
23. Someone called you a name/hurt your feelings	38 (39.6)	32 (33.3)	11 (11.5)	15 (15.6)	0 (0)	1.03 (1.07)
24. You call names/hurt someone else's feelings	49 (51.0)	38 (39.6)	6 (6.3)	2 (2.1)	1 (1.0)	0.59 (0.71)
25. You physically hurt a person on purpose	65 (67.7)	27 (28.1)	3 (3.1)	0 (0)	1 (1.0)	0.35 (0.54)
26. Seen someone get hurt by another person	16 (16.7)	46 (47.9)	22 (22.9)	11 (11.5)	1 (1.0)	1.29 (0.89)
27. Someone hurt you	53 (55.2)	30 (31.3)	8 (8.3)	4 (4.2)	1 (1.0)	0.61 (0.82)
28. Seen someone hurt or killed in a movie	5 (5.2)	20 (20.8)	34 (35.4)	37 (38.5)	0 (0)	2.07 (0.90)
29. Seen someone hurt or killed in a video game	8 (8.3)	27 (28.1)	26 (27.1)	35 (36.5)	0 (0)	1.92 (0.99)
Victimization						
30. An adult in your family hurt your feelings	26 (27.1)	45 (46.9)	14 (14.6)	8 (8.3)	3 (3.1)	1.04 (0.88)
31. An adult in your family hurt your body	56 (58.3)	28 (29.2)	9 (9.4)	1 (1.0)	2 (2.1)	0.52 (0.71)
32. Someone not in your family touched privates	83 (86.5)	10 (10.4)	1 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	0.16 (0.47)
33. Someone in your family touched private parts	85 (88.5)	7 (7.3)	1 (1.0)	0 (0)	3 (3.1)	0.10 (0.33)

To measure the extent to which participants had been exposed to adult violence at home, they were asked to rate all boxes under each of violence questions regarding whether they saw or heard the incident. As seen in Table 6.3, participants responded that they heard violence toward their mom while it was happening ($n=274$) or more seriously saw it while it was happening nearby ($n=221$). In terms of frequency, participants were most frequently exposed to that mom's partner hurt mom's feeling ($n=182$), and he hurt her body ($n=126$). Participating children rated that they saw or heard mom and her partner arguing about them ($n=115$), which could lead them to feel guilty about violence.

Table 6.3. Frequency of the Level of Exposure to Violence in the Home

Variable	Saw the out-come	Heard about it afterwards	Heard it while it was happening	Saw it from far away while it was happening	Saw it and was near while it was happening	Total #
Home Exposure						
1-1. Adults in your family disagree	27	28	52	15	41	163
2-1. Mom's partner hurt her feelings	24	31	63	25	39	182
3-1. Mom's partner stopped her from doing something	12	25	29	13	23	102
4-1. Mom's partner stopped her from eating/sleeping	14	18	16	6	16	70
5-1. Mom and her partner argued about you	10	27	44	14	20	115
6-1. Mom's partner hurt pet in the home	6	6	5	7	12	36
7-1. Mom's partner broke/destroyed something	23	20	20	9	21	93
8-1. Mom's partner hurt her body	29	26	29	12	30	126
9-1. Mom's partner threatened to use weapon	7	16	11	6	12	52
10-1. Mom's partner hurt her with knife, gun, object	7	6	5	5	7	30
Total #	159	203	274	112	221	

Note. Answers are duplicated.

Participating children were also asked about their attitudes toward their abused mother and abusive father or mother's partner. Overall, children in the study showed more positive attitudes toward mother than father figure. Table 6.4 shows that the average mean scores for each item regarding positive attitudes toward mother were all over 3 only except Q14 asking if their mother is very patient ($M=2.73$, $SD=1.24$). More than 60% of participants said they like being with their mother (Q16: $M=3.50$, $SD=0.82$). Meanwhile, participants showed relatively low average scores in the items of positive attitudes toward abusive father figure compared to attitudes toward battered mother. Each of 47.9% reported that they don't think their father is terrific (Q12: $M=1.33$, $SD=1.56$) or they can really depend on their father (Q24: $M=1.18$, $SD=1.44$).

Table 6.4. Frequency (Percentage) of 9 Positive Items of Child Attitude toward Mother and Father (CAM/CAF) ($n=96$)

Item	Rarely or none (%)	A little (%)	Some (%)	A good part (%)	Most or all (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
Mother							
2. I get along well with <i>my mother</i> .	3 (3.1)	4 (4.2)	20 (20.8)	18 (18.8)	51 (53.1)	0 (0)	3.15 (1.09)
3. I feel that I can really trust <i>my mother</i> .	5 (5.2)	3 (3.1)	14 (14.6)	16 (16.7)	58 (60.4)	0 (0)	3.24 (1.14)
8. I really enjoy <i>my mother</i> .	5 (5.2)	2 (2.1)	8 (8.3)	21 (21.9)	59 (61.5)	1 (1.0)	3.34 (1.08)
12. I think <i>my mother</i> is terrific.	7 (7.3)	3 (3.1)	11 (11.5)	17 (17.7)	56 (58.3)	2 (2.1)	3.19 (1.22)
14. <i>My mother</i> is very patient with me.	7 (7.3)	10 (10.4)	17 (17.7)	29 (30.2)	32 (33.3)	1 (1.0)	2.73 (1.24)
15. I really like <i>my mother</i> .	3 (3.1)	2 (2.1)	6 (6.3)	19 (19.8)	65 (67.7)	1 (1.0)	3.48 (0.94)
16. I like being with <i>my mother</i> .	1 (1.0)	2 (2.1)	8 (8.3)	22 (22.9)	63 (65.6)	0 (0)	3.50 (0.82)
21. I feel proud of <i>my mother</i> .	5 (5.2)	7 (7.3)	11 (11.5)	16 (16.7)	56 (58.3)	1 (1.0)	3.17 (1.21)
24. I can really depend on <i>my mother</i> .	8 (8.3)	4 (4.2)	8 (8.3)	13 (13.5)	62 (64.6)	1 (1.0)	3.23 (1.28)
Father							
2. I get along well with <i>my father (mom's boyfriend or partner)</i> .	31 (32.3)	13 (13.5)	17 (17.7)	9 (9.4)	24 (25.0)	2 (2.1)	1.81 (1.60)
3. I feel that I can really trust <i>my father</i> .	37 (38.5)	13 (13.5)	17 (17.7)	10 (10.4)	16 (16.7)	3 (3.1)	1.52 (1.52)
8. I really enjoy <i>my father</i> .	35 (36.5)	12 (12.5)	14 (14.6)	8 (8.3)	24 (25.0)	3 (3.1)	1.72 (1.64)
12. I think <i>my father</i> is terrific.	46 (47.9)	11 (11.5)	14 (14.6)	6 (6.3)	17 (17.7)	2 (2.1)	1.33 (1.56)
14. <i>My father</i> is very patient with me.	39 (40.6)	23 (24.0)	11 (11.5)	7 (7.3)	12 (12.5)	4 (4.2)	1.24 (1.41)
15. I really like <i>my father</i> .	34 (35.4)	15 (15.6)	15 (15.6)	9 (9.4)	21 (21.9)	2 (2.1)	1.66 (1.58)
16. I like being with <i>my father</i> .	34 (35.4)	14 (14.6)	13 (13.5)	16 (16.7)	18 (18.7)	1 (1.0)	1.68 (1.56)
21. I feel proud of <i>my father</i> .	40 (41.7)	16 (16.7)	8 (8.3)	19 (19.8)	12 (12.5)	1 (1.0)	1.44 (1.51)
24. I can really depend on <i>my father</i> .	46 (47.9)	17 (17.7)	11 (11.5)	8 (8.3)	12 (12.5)	2 (2.1)	1.18 (1.44)

Showing a similar pattern of participants' negative attitudes toward parent figures, they seemed to feel more negative toward the abusive male at home than abused mother. Table 6.5 indicated that the highest average score of negative attitudes toward mother was that mother got on nerves some of times (28.1%) or a little of times (25.0%) (Q1: $M=1.29$, $SD=1.18$). In terms of the lowest average, 14.4% ever felt violent toward mother (Q20: $M=0.22$, $SD=0.64$). Comparatively, 42.7% of respondents reported that their father or mom's partner got on nerves most or all of times (Q1: $M=270$, $SD=1.42$), and 19.8% felt violent toward him most or all of times (Q20: $M=1.36$, $SD=1.59$).

Table 6.5. Frequency (percentage) of 16 Negative Items of Child Attitude toward Mother and Father (CAM/CAF) ($n=96$)

Item	Rarely or none (%)	A little (%)	Some (%)	A good part (%)	Most or all (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
Mother							
1. <i>My mother</i> gets on my nerves.	31 (32.3)	24 (25.0)	27 (28.1)	7 (7.3)	6 (6.3)	1 (1.0)	1.29 (1.18)
4. I dislike <i>my mother</i> .	69 (71.9)	15 (15.6)	9 (9.4)	0 (0)	3 (3.1)	0 (0)	0.47 (0.91)
5. <i>My mother's</i> behavior embarrassed me.	44 (45.8)	20 (20.8)	22 (22.9)	5 (5.2)	5 (5.2)	0 (0)	1.03 (1.17)
6. <i>My mother</i> is too demanding.	39 (40.6)	25 (26.0)	20 (20.8)	6 (6.3)	4 (4.2)	2 (2.1)	1.05 (1.13)
7. I wish I had a different <i>mother</i> .	74 (77.1)	9 (9.4)	5 (5.2)	1 (1.0)	4 (4.2)	3 (3.1)	0.41 (0.97)
9. <i>My mother</i> puts too many limits on me.	40 (41.7)	13 (13.5)	24 (25.0)	14 (14.6)	3 (3.1)	2 (2.1)	1.22 (1.24)
10. <i>My mother</i> interferes with my activities.	51 (53.1)	15 (15.6)	16 (16.7)	5 (5.2)	7 (7.3)	2 (2.1)	0.96 (1.27)
11. I resent <i>my mother</i> .	67 (69.8)	10 (10.4)	6 (6.3)	2 (2.1)	8 (8.3)	3 (3.1)	0.65 (1.24)
13. I hate <i>my mother</i> .	75 (78.1)	11 (11.5)	6 (6.3)	0 (0)	1 (1.0)	3 (3.1)	0.29 (0.68)
17. I feel like I do not love <i>my mother</i> .	77 (80.2)	7 (7.3)	7 (7.3)	0 (0)	4 (4.2)	1 (1.0)	0.39 (0.95)
18. <i>My mother</i> is very irritating.	44 (45.8)	26 (27.1)	16 (16.7)	4 (4.2)	5 (5.2)	1 (1.0)	0.95 (1.13)
19. I feel very angry toward <i>my mother</i> .	55 (57.3)	23 (24.0)	8 (8.3)	4 (4.2)	4 (4.2)	2 (2.1)	0.71 (1.07)
20. I feel violent toward <i>my mother</i> .	81 (84.4)	10 (10.4)	2 (2.1)	1 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	0.22 (0.64)
22. I wish <i>my mother</i> was more like other I know.	56 (58.3)	14 (14.6)	14 (14.6)	6 (6.3)	6 (6.3)	0 (0)	0.88 (1.24)
23. <i>My mother</i> does not understand me.	44 (45.8)	20 (20.8)	13 (13.5)	9 (9.4)	9 (9.4)	1 (1.0)	1.15 (1.35)
25. I feel ashamed of <i>my mother</i> .	78 (81.3)	10 (10.4)	5 (5.2)	0 (0)	2 (2.1)	1 (1.0)	0.29 (0.76)

Table 6.5. Frequency (percentage) of 16 Negative Items of Child's Attitude toward Mother and Father (CAF/CAF) ($n=96$, continued)

Item	Rarely or none (%)	A little (%)	Some (%)	A good part (%)	Most or all (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
Father							
1. <i>My father (mom's boyfriend or partner)</i> gets on my nerves.	11 (11.5)	10 (10.4)	16 (16.7)	16 (16.7)	41 (42.7)	2 (2.1)	2.70 (1.42)
4. I dislike <i>my father</i> .	26 (27.1)	17 (17.7)	15 (15.6)	8 (8.3)	27 (28.1)	3 (3.1)	1.92 (1.60)
5. <i>My father's</i> behavior embarrassed me.	28 (29.2)	12 (12.5)	17 (17.7)	14 (14.6)	24 (25.0)	1 (1.0)	1.94 (1.58)
6. <i>My father</i> is too demanding.	28 (29.2)	9 (9.4)	13 (13.5)	16 (16.7)	28 (29.2)	2 (2.1)	2.07 (1.63)
7. I wish I had a different <i>father</i> .	36 (37.5)	13 (13.5)	8 (8.3)	6 (6.3)	30 (31.3)	3 (3.1)	1.80 (1.74)
9. <i>My father</i> puts too many limits on me.	30 (31.3)	13 (13.5)	20 (20.8)	9 (9.4)	21 (21.9)	3 (3.1)	1.76 (1.55)
10. <i>My father</i> interferes with my activities.	39 (40.6)	15 (15.6)	14 (14.6)	6 (6.3)	20 (20.8)	2 (2.1)	1.50 (1.58)
11. I resent <i>my father</i> .	32 (33.3)	13 (13.5)	7 (7.3)	11 (11.5)	30 (31.3)	3 (3.1)	1.94 (1.72)
13. I hate <i>my father</i> .	39 (40.6)	17 (17.7)	9 (9.4)	5 (5.2)	23 (24.0)	3 (3.1)	1.53 (1.65)
17. I feel like I do not love <i>my father</i> .	38 (39.6)	11 (11.5)	10 (10.4)	12 (12.5)	22 (22.9)	3 (3.1)	1.67 (1.66)
18. <i>My father</i> is very irritating.	28 (29.2)	18 (18.8)	11 (11.5)	14 (14.6)	24 (25.0)	1 (1.0)	1.87 (1.59)
19. I feel very angry toward <i>my father</i> .	24 (25.0)	10 (10.4)	13 (13.5)	20 (20.8)	27 (28.1)	2 (2.1)	2.17 (1.58)
20. I feel violent toward <i>my father</i> .	46 (47.9)	12 (12.5)	13 (13.5)	5 (5.2)	19 (19.8)	1 (1.0)	1.36 (1.59)
22. I wish <i>my father</i> was more like other I know.	27 (28.1)	8 (8.3)	12 (12.5)	14 (14.6)	33 (34.4)	2 (2.1)	2.19 (1.67)
23. <i>My father</i> does not understand me.	31 (32.3)	10 (10.4)	10 (10.4)	10 (10.4)	33 (34.4)	2 (2.1)	2.04 (1.72)
25. I feel ashamed of <i>my father</i> .	30 (31.3)	13 (13.5)	10 (10.4)	10 (10.4)	32 (33.3)	1 (1.0)	2.01 (1.70)

In Table 6.6, regarding positive perception toward mother, participants were asked to indicate how frequently their abused mother had behaved in positive ways to explore how they perceived battered mother's parenting behaviors. 58.3% reported that their mother said nice things a lot (Q11: M=3.18, SD=1.20); however, 15.6% said their mother never let them do what other kids in their age group do (Q13: M=2.25, SD=1.32).

Table 6.6. Frequency (percentage) of 9 Positive Items of Parent Perception Inventory (toward Mother) ($n=96$)

Item	Never (%)	A Little (%)	Some Times (%)	Pretty much (%)	A lot (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
1. How often does <i>your mother</i> thank you for doing things / tell you when she likes what you did / give you something or let you do something special when you're good?	3 (3.13)	10 (10.42)	16 (16.67)	21 (21.88)	46 (47.92)	0 (0)	3.01 (1.17)
3. Talk to you when you feel bad and help you to feel better, help you with your problems, or comfort you?	12 (12.50)	8 (8.33)	11 (11.46)	16 (16.67)	49 (51.04)	0 (0)	2.85 (1.44)
5. Talk to you / listen to you / have a good conversation with you?	5 (5.21)	8 (8.33)	17 (17.71)	17 (17.71)	49 (51.04)	0 (0)	3.01 (1.23)
7. Let you help decide what to do / let you help figure out how to solve problems?	7 (7.29)	12 (12.50)	14 (14.58)	26 (27.08)	37 (38.54)	0 (0)	2.77 (1.29)
9. Play with you /do things with you which you like?	7 (7.29)	10 (10.42)	17 (17.71)	17 (17.71)	44 (45.83)	1 (1.04)	2.85 (1.31)
11. Say nice things to you / tell you that you're a good boy or girl / compliment you?	4 (4.17)	10 (10.42)	7 (7.29)	19 (19.79)	56 (58.33)	0 (0)	3.18 (1.20)
13. Let you do what other kids your age do / let you do things on your own?	15 (15.63)	9 (9.38)	25 (26.04)	26 (27.08)	18 (18.75)	3 (3.13)	2.25 (1.32)
15. Help you when you need it (with a hard job, with homework, when you can't do something by yourself)?	10 (10.42)	8 (8.33)	11 (11.46)	13 (13.54)	53 (55.21)	1 (1.04)	2.96 (1.41)
17. Hug you / kiss you / smile at you?	11 (11.46)	6 (6.25)	7 (7.29)	18 (18.75)	53 (55.21)	1 (1.04)	3.01 (1.40)

In regard to positive perception toward their father figure in Table 6.7, about two third (69.79%) reported that he said thank-you for doing things a little of times or more often (Q1: M=1.66, SD=1.52). The exact half of participants said that their father helped them feel better when they felt bad or dealt with problems more than a little times (Q2: M=.99, SD=1.26).

Table 6.7. Frequency (percentage) of 9 Positive Items of Parent Perception Inventory (toward Father) (n=96)

Item	Never (%)	A Little (%)	Some Times (%)	Pretty much (%)	A lot (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
1. How often does <i>he (father, mom's boyfriend or partner)</i> thank you for doing things / tell you when she likes what you did / give you something or let you do something special when you're good?	29 (30.21)	25 (26.04)	12 (12.50)	10 (10.42)	20 (20.83)	0 (0)	1.66 (1.52)
3. Talk to you when you feel bad and help you to feel better, help you with your problems, or comfort you?	48 (50.00)	22 (22.92)	12 (12.50)	7 (7.29)	7 (7.29)	0 (0)	0.99 (1.26)
5. Talk to you / listen to you / have a good conversation with you?	34 (35.42)	25 (26.04)	17 (17.71)	4 (4.17)	16 (16.67)	0 (0)	1.41 (1.43)
7. Let you help decide what to do / let you help figure out how to solve problems?	44 (45.83)	20 (20.83)	14 (14.58)	8 (8.33)	10 (10.42)	0 (0)	1.17 (1.37)
9. Play with you /do things with you which you like?	38 (39.58)	19 (19.79)	18 (18.75)	9 (9.38)	12 (12.50)	0 (0)	1.35 (1.41)
11. Say nice things to you / tell you that you're a good boy or girl / compliment you?	33 (34.38)	19 (19.79)	13 (13.54)	18 (18.75)	13 (13.54)	0 (0)	1.57 (1.46)
13. Let you do what other kids your age do / let you do things on your own?	37 (38.54)	17 (17.71)	14 (14.58)	13 (13.54)	13 (13.54)	2 (2.08)	1.45 (1.47)
15. Help you when you need it (with a hard job, with homework, when you can't do something by yourself)?	45 (46.88)	14 (14.58)	10 (10.42)	11 (11.46)	15 (15.63)	1 (1.04)	1.34 (1.54)
17. Hug you / kiss you / smile at you?	41 (42.71)	17 (17.71)	9 (9.38)	10 (10.42)	18 (18.75)	1 (1.04)	1.44 (1.58)

As participating children were questioned about mother's negative parenting behaviors, described in Table 6.8, 42.71% responded that their battered mothers sometimes took away things when they misbehaved (Q1: M=1.77, SD=1.16). Also, 13.54% said that their mothers nagged them or told them what to do over and over a lot of times (Q16: M=1.64, SD=1.37).

Table 6.8. Frequency (percentage) of 9 Negative Items of Parent Perception Inventory (toward Mother) ($n=96$)

Item	Never (%)	A Little (%)	Some Times (%)	Pretty much (%)	A lot (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
2. How often does <i>your mother</i> take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride your bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?	17 (17.71)	17 (17.71)	41 (42.71)	11 (11.46)	9 (9.38)	1 (1.04)	1.77 (1.16)
4. Tell you you're no good / tell you that you messed up or didn't do something right / criticize you?	69 (71.88)	15 (15.63)	3 (3.13)	6 (6.25)	3 (3.13)	0 (0)	0.53 (1.04)
6. Order you around / tell you what to do / give orders?	32 (33.33)	25 (26.04)	16 (16.67)	9 (9.38)	12 (12.50)	2 (2.08)	1.40 (1.38)
8. Spank you / slap you / hit you?	67 (69.79)	15 (15.63)	6 (6.25)	4 (4.17)	4 (4.17)	0 (0)	0.57 (1.06)
10. Get mad at you / yell at you / holler at you / scream at you / shout at you?	18 (18.75)	40 (41.67)	19 (19.79)	10 (10.42)	9 (9.38)	0 (0)	1.50 (1.19)
12. Threaten you / tell you that you'll get into trouble if you do something wrong / warn you?	53 (55.21)	21 (21.88)	10 (10.42)	6 (6.25)	4 (4.17)	2 (2.08)	0.80 (1.13)
14. Send you to a room or corner when you do something wrong?	35 (36.46)	22 (22.92)	21 (21.88)	12 (12.50)	4 (4.17)	2 (2.08)	1.23 (1.20)
16. Nag you / tell you what to do over and over again / keep after you to do things?	24 (25.00)	26 (27.08)	17 (17.71)	14 (14.58)	13 (13.54)	2 (2.08)	1.64 (1.37)
18. Ignore you / not pay attention to you / not talk to you or look at you?	58 (60.42)	22 (22.92)	9 (9.38)	2 (2.08)	3 (3.13)	2 (2.08)	0.62 (0.97)

Table 6.9 also explained negative parenting behaviors of battering father or mom's partner that participants perceived. 29.17% reported that the father figure got mad or yelled at them a lot of times (Q10: M=2.02, SD=1.57), and 73.96% said that he ordered them around or told them what to do more than a little of times (Q6: M=1.96, SD=1.58).

Table 6.9. Frequency (percentage) of 9 Negative Items of Parent Perception Inventory (toward Father) ($n=96$)

Item	Never (%)	A Little (%)	Some Times (%)	Pretty much (%)	A lot (%)	Missing (%)	Mean (SD)
2. How often does he take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride your bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?	35 (36.46)	13 (13.54)	18 (18.75)	7 (7.29)	23 (23.96)	0 (0)	1.69 (1.60)
4. Tell you you're no good / tell you that you messed up or didn't do something right / criticize you?	51 (53.13)	14 (14.58)	11 (11.46)	6 (6.25)	14 (14.58)	0 (0)	1.15 (1.49)
6. Order you around / tell you what to do / give orders?	25 (26.04)	20 (20.83)	10 (10.42)	16 (16.67)	25 (26.04)	0 (0)	1.96 (1.58)
8. Spank you / slap you / hit you?	65 (67.71)	5 (5.21)	12 (12.50)	2 (2.08)	12 (12.50)	0 (0)	0.86 (1.42)
10. Get mad at you / yell at you / holler at you / scream at you / shout at you?	23 (23.96)	19 (19.79)	15 (15.63)	11 (11.46)	28 (29.17)	0 (0)	2.02 (1.57)
12. Threaten you / tell you that you'll get into trouble if you do something wrong / warn you?	45 (46.88)	15 (15.63)	13 (13.54)	10 (10.42)	12 (12.50)	1 (1.04)	1.25 (1.46)
14. Send you to a room or corner when you do something wrong?	50 (52.08)	14 (14.58)	8 (8.33)	8 (8.33)	14 (14.58)	2 (2.08)	1.17 (1.51)
16. Nag you / tell you what to do over and over again / keep after you to do things?	34 (35.42)	19 (19.79)	9 (9.38)	16 (16.67)	17 (17.71)	1 (1.04)	1.61 (1.55)
18. Ignore you / not pay attention to you / not talk to you or look at you?	36 (37.50)	19 (19.79)	12 (12.50)	9 (9.38)	19 (19.79)	1 (1.04)	1.54 (1.56)

Cronbach's alphas for reliability of each measure's constructs in the sample showed that measures used in this study were strongly to very strongly reliable as presented in Table 6.10. Alpha for the CEDV scale was .85 and each subscale of it ranged from .62 to .88. CAM, CAF, PPIM and PPIF suggested alphas, .91, .97, .90, and .93, respectively, in which are all in the upper .9 range.

The total mean for CEDV was 33.7 (SD=15.52) including 9.38 (SD=4.82) for Violence and 9.91 (SD=4.23) for Community Exposure. The means of child's positive attitude toward mother and father were 81.06 (SD=15.22) and 47.74 (SD=30.89), respectively. According to the standard of Daigneault and colleagues (2007) for interpreting CAM and CAF, participants did not seem to have a severe problem in the relationship with their mother (M=81.06, SD=15.22), since the mean score was over 70. However, when a score from 31 to 70 is considered "a clinically problematic relationship" (Daigneault et al., 2007), participants were considered to have a severe relational problem with their father or mother's partner (M=47.74, SD=30.89). In addition, child participants reported means of PPIM (M=52.25, SD=13.59) and PPIF (M=35.12, SD=17.85) in positive terms.

Table 6.10. Means, Number of Items, Ranges, and Cronbach's Alphas for Reliability of Each Measures (N=96)

Measure	Mean (SD)	# of Items	Range	Cronbach's alpha
CEDV	33.7 (15.52)	33	0-99	.85
Violence	9.38 (4.82)	10	0-30	.77
Home Exposure	10.64 (8.09)	10*	0-50	.88
Community Exposure	9.91 (4.23)	8	0-24	.75
Involvement	5.81 (4.12)	7	0-21	.74
Risk factors	5.09 (2.71)	4	0-12	.62
Victimization	1.88 (1.73)	4	0-12	.67
CAM(Positive)	81.06 (15.22)	25	0-100	.91
Positive	28.92 (6.63)	9	0-36	.84
Negative	11.66 (6.63)	16	0-64	.86
CAF(Positive)	47.74 (30.89)	25	0-100	.97
Positive	13.76 (11.42)	9	0-36	.94
Negative	30.40 (20.63)	16	0-64	.96
PPIM (positive mothering)	52.25 (13.59)	18	0-72	.90
Positive	26.00 (9.28)	9	0-36	.93
Negative	10.11 (6.56)	9	0-36	.81
PPIF (positive fathering)	35.12 (17.85)	18	0-72	.93
Positive	12.44 (10.57)	9	0-36	.93
Negative	13.20 (10.60)	9	0-36	.92

* Home Exposure is multiple checkbox items under Violence. It is not included in the total CEDV score.

T-tests were employed next for preliminary statistical analyses. Table 6.11 presents the results from comparisons of main factors between female and male participants to see if there is any difference between them. First of all, the average ages were not significantly different between male (M=12.64, SD=1.8) and female (M=13.0, SD=2.29) participants. As no significant difference of participants' attitudes toward mother was found, male respondents had more positive attitudes toward father than female ($t=2.13$, $p<.05$). Participants did not have a significant difference upon gender in positive parenting behaviors of mother (PPIM) and father (PPIF). Interestingly, female participants reported higher scores in all CEDV subscales. Among them, female participants reported significantly more severe levels of total CEDV ($t=-3.16$, $p<.01$), Violence ($t=-3.16$, $p<.01$), and Home Exposure ($t=-2.25$, $p<.05$) than male.

Table 6.11. T-test on Participants' Gender

	Mean (SD)		t	p
	Female	Male		
Age	13.00 (2.29)	12.64 (1.8)	-.79	.434
CAM	81.49 (15.44)	79.77 (15.35)	-.46	.647
CAF	42.13 (29.83)	57.20 (31.35)	2.13*	.036
PPIM (positive mothering)	52.94 (14.52)	50.75 (12.05)	-.72	.473
PPIF (positive fathering)	33.28 (16.76)	38.57 (19.33)	1.39	.169
CEDV	38.21 (14.97)	27.33 (14.09)	-3.01**	.004
Violence	10.77 (4.55)	7.52 (4.57)	-3.16**	.002
Home exposure	12.34 (8.82)	8.26 (6.25)	-2.25*	.027
Community exposure	10.04 (4.35)	9.92 (3.93)	-.13	.894
Involvement	6.00 (4.04)	5.27 (3.87)	-.83	.410
Risk factors	5.36 (2.88)	4.67 (2.38)	-1.16	.249
Victimization	2.00 (1.91)	1.60 (1.42)	-1.06	.292

In order to explore if there was any significant difference of child's attitudes and ambivalence toward an abused mother and abusive father figure in the study, t-tests were used. As can be seen in Table 6.12, participants reported more positive attitudes toward mother than father ($t=7.94$, $p<.001$), and more positive parenting behaviors of mother than father they perceived ($t=7.22$, $p<.001$). No significant difference in ambivalence toward mother and father was found.

Table 6.12. T-test on Participants' Parents

	Mean (SD)		t	p
	Mother	Father		
Child Attitude	81.06 (15.22)	47.74 (30.89)	7.94***	.0001
PPI	52.25 (13.59)	35.12 (17.85)	7.22***	.0001
Ambivalence	2.41 (1.02)	2.57 (1.10)	-1.47	.146

Path Analyses

In this section, path analyses were employed to test the followings: the impact of CEDV on ambivalence toward a battered mother and a battering father; the impact of mothering and fathering on ambivalence toward mother and father; and the mediating impact of each mothering and fathering between CEDV and ambivalence toward mother and father. Multiple group analyses by gender were applied to explore if female and male participants perceived parental behaviors differently and/or had different attitudes toward parents affected by CEDV, and compare any differences. Then, total participants were included in the final path analysis model. In order to handle missing data, multiple imputation for missing data was performed for path analyses. Five dataset from multiple imputation were created and then combined. Since path analyses were performed with

multiply imputed datasets, as chi-square is a non parametric test that cannot be summed, chi-square values for each five dataset were reported separately. For the female and male models, following demographic factors were controlled: child's age, family income, length of relationship between mother and father or mom's partner, type of relationship of a child with perpetrator (classified into biological father or others), and whether a participant witnessed perpetrator's arrestment for violence. For the final model, participant's gender was additionally controlled along with the demographic factors mentioned above.

Path Analysis Model for Female Participants

At the first step of path analysis to test hypotheses, tests for goodness of model fit were performed. Non-significant is recommended at the level of .05 indicating that the hypothesized model fits a set of observation. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) over .95 indicate good fit; the closer these are to one, the better the model fit is for the data (see Hu & Bentler, 1999). Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) below .06 is also acceptable; the closer it is to zero, the better the fit is.

To compare paths by gender groups, a multiple group analysis was applied. Each chi-square of data1 to data5 for the female model that were not significant ($df=20$) and model fits (CFI=0.987, TLI=0.969, RMSEA=0.034) indicated that the hypothesized model fits the set of observations. Table 6.13 and Figure 6.1 presented the female model with parameter estimations. According to Figure 6.1, as the arrows showed regression weights, the level of involvement was positively associated with mothering ($B=.451$,

$p < .10$), indicating that female participants who were more involved in violence against mother at home tended to perceive more positive parenting behaviors of mother at the .10 level of probability. Then, female participant's perception on mother's positive parenting behaviors influenced participants' ambivalence toward their mother negatively ($B = -.699$, $p < .001$). It tells us that the indirect effect of involvement on ambivalence toward battered mother through child's perception on mother's parenting behaviors among female participants is negative.

For the relationship between a female participant and an abusive father figure in the study, a change in one standardized unit in Violence and Victimization led to $-.852$ and $-.305$ standardized unit changes in Fathering at the level of $.05$, respectively. It means that female participants who exposed to more violence and victimization tended to perceive more negative parenting behaviors of father or mom's partner. Then, female participants perceiving more negative fathering tended to report less ambivalence toward their mother ($B = .301$, $p < .05$) and fathers ($B = .797$, $p < .05$). That is, the indirect effect of violence and victimization on ambivalence toward battering father through child's perception on father's parenting behaviors among female participants is also negative.

Table 6.13. Path Model Coefficients for Female Participants.

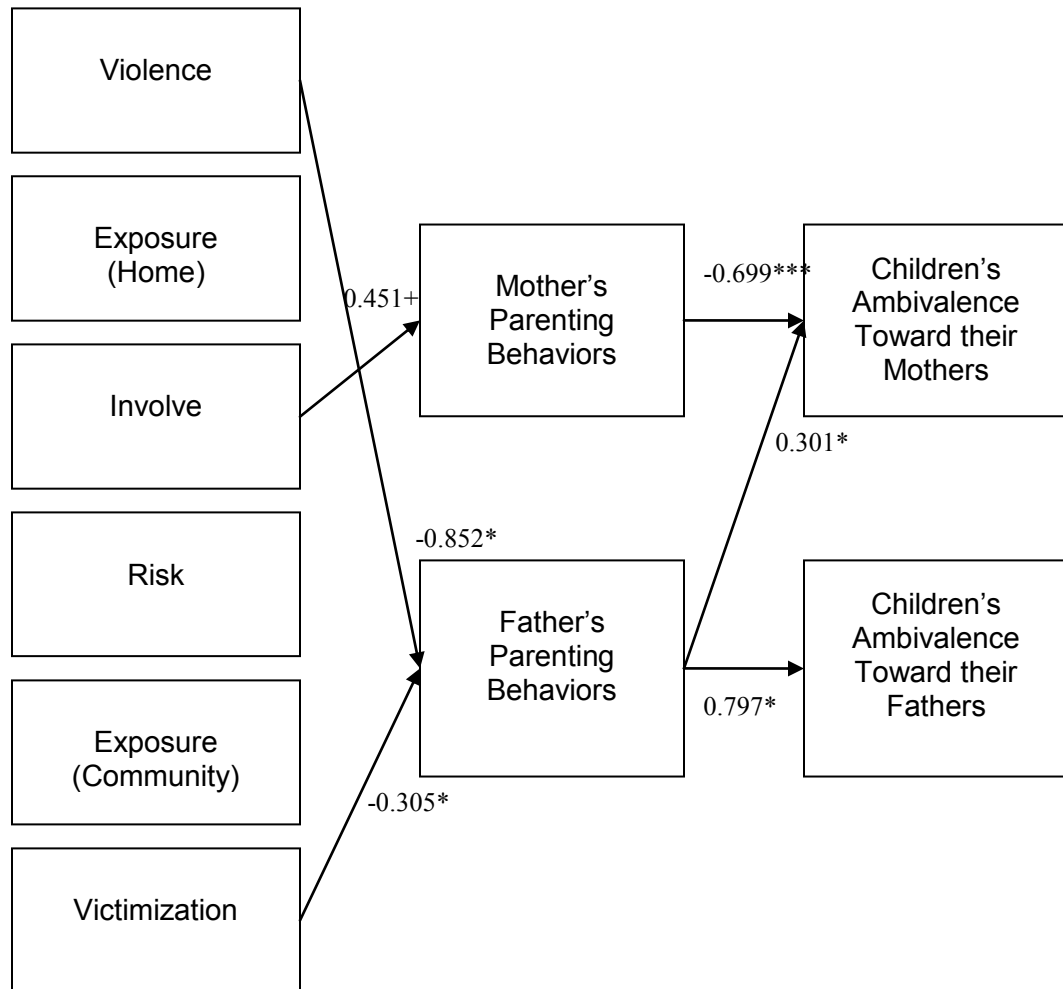
From	To	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient	
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Mother's Parenting Behavior	0.436 (0.605)	0.292	
		-0.213 (0.401)	-0.173	
		1.097 (0.543) ⁺	0.451	
		-0.879 (0.758)	-0.323	
		-0.478 (0.446)	-0.338	
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Father's Parenting Behavior	-1.499 (0.541)*	-0.852	
		-0.222 (0.297)	-0.153	
		0.576 (0.565)	0.201	
		0.421 (0.750)	0.131	
		-0.006 (0.448)	-0.004	
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Ambivalence Toward Mother	-1.733 (1.042)	-0.236	
		0.032 (0.035)	0.162	
		-0.017 (0.018)	-0.141	
		0.011 (0.030)	0.042	
		-0.037 (0.040)	-0.099	
		0.028 (0.026)	0.114	
		0.091 (0.065)	0.162	
Mothering Fathering			-0.052 (0.008)***	-0.699
			0.019 (0.007)*	0.301
Income Age Perpetrator Length Arrestment			-0.141 (0.097)	-0.137
		0.007 (0.043)	0.015	
		-0.044 (0.323)	-0.021	
		0.011 (0.129)	0.012	
		-0.306 (0.227)	-0.146	
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Ambivalence Toward Father	0.047 (0.069)	0.392	
			-0.023 (0.030)	-0.232
			0.006 (0.054)	0.031
			-0.084 (0.071)	-0.384
			0.052 (0.045)	0.456
			0.098 (0.099)	0.166
Mothering Fathering			-0.019 (0.012)	-0.870
			0.028 (0.012)*	0.797
Income Age Perpetrator Length Arrestment			-0.213 (0.162)	-0.353
			-0.049 (0.075)	-0.551
		-0.738 (0.440)	-0.313	
		-0.096 (0.174)	-0.219	
		0.402 (0.370)	0.191	

Note. ⁺ p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.13. Path Model Coefficients for Female Participants (continued)

DATA1:	$x^2=17.551$	df=20	p=.617
DATA2:	$x^2=21.892$	df=20	p=.346
DATA3:	$x^2=23.019$	df=20	p=.288
DATA4:	$x^2=16.969$	df=20	p=.655
DATA5:	$x^2=24.342$	df=20	p=.228
CFI=0.987	TLI=0.969	RMSEA=0.034	

Figure 6.1. Path Model for Female Participants.



Note. + $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Notes. 1. Insignificant relationships are left out.

2. The demographic variables were controlled as following: child's gender, age, family income, a length of relationship between mother and perpetrator, a type of relationship of child with perpetrator (biological father or not), and whether a child ever witnessed of perpetrator's arrestment for violence.

Path Analysis Model for Male Participants

As shown in Table 6.14, the chi-squares of five imputed data for the male model were 17.551 (Data1) to 24.342 (Data5), which were all non-significant ($df = 20$). The fit indices for the male model were CFI=0.987, TLI=0.969, and RMSEA=0.034. Figure 6.2 summarizes that the level of violence was positively associated with perception on mothering ($B = .542, p < .05$); then, it had a significantly negative effect on ambivalence toward both mother ($B = -.619, p < .01$) and father ($B = -.243, p < .01$). The results showed that the indirect effect of violence on ambivalence toward each of mother and father through perception on mothering among male participants was negative. The level of victimization was negatively associated with perception on fathering ($B = -.392, p < .05$); then, it was positively associated with ambivalence toward father ($B = .452, p < .05$). That is, the indirect effect of victimization on ambivalence toward father through perception on fathering among male participants was also negative.

Table 6.14. Path Model Coefficients for Male Participants.

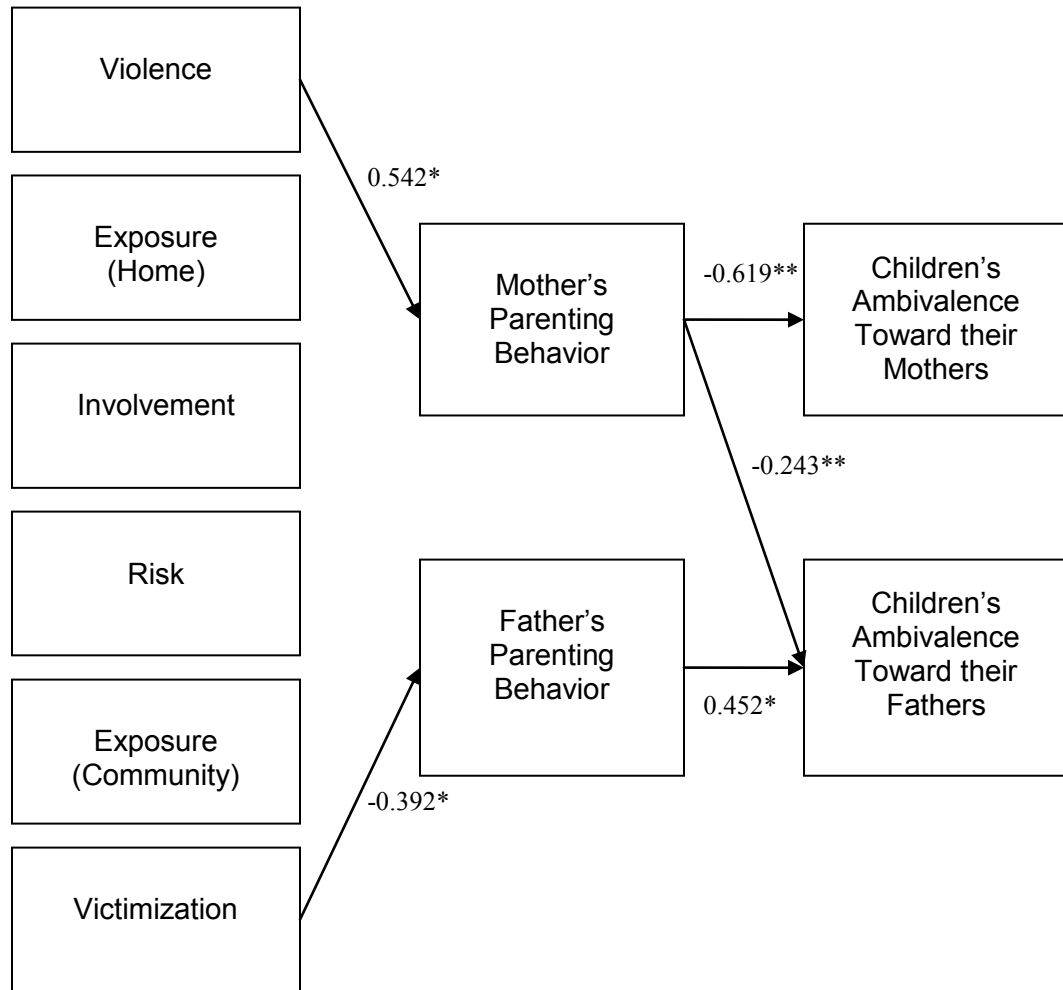
From	To	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Mother's Parenting Behavior	1.418 (0.653)* -0.679 (0.409) 0.148 (0.565) 0.411 (1.053) -1.012 (0.519) -0.317 (1.408)	0.542 -0.371 0.051 0.080 -0.326 -0.040
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Father's Parenting Behavior	0.229 (1.084) -0.634 (0.847) -0.621 (0.802) 0.195 (1.745) 0.667 (0.807) -4.898 (2.073)*	0.056 -0.220 -0.136 0.024 0.137 -0.392
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Ambivalence Toward Mother	0.019 (0.046) -0.006 (0.025) 0.013 (0.030) -0.079 (0.076) 0.046 (0.035) -0.127 (0.086)	0.086 -0.039 0.053 -0.183 0.177 -0.190
Mothering Fathering		-0.052 (0.014)** -0.013 (0.006)*	-0.619 -0.243
Income Age Perpetrator Length Arrestment	Ambivalence Toward Father	-0.043 (0.102) 0.106 (0.063) 0.318 (0.291) 0.266 (0.173) -0.368 (0.339)	-0.050 0.188 0.156 0.320 -0.182
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization		0.023 (0.086) 0.051 (0.049) -0.035 (0.051) -0.105 (0.118) -0.028 (0.053) 0.167 (0.162)	0.097 0.309 -0.133 -0.226 -0.100 0.232
Mothering Fathering	Ambivalence Toward Mother	0.011 (0.017) 0.026 (0.012)*	0.122 0.452
Income Age Perpetrator Length Arrestment		-0.177 (0.189) 0.147 (0.091) -0.005 (0.423) -0.065 (0.239) -0.068 (0.594)	-0.191 0.242 -0.002 -0.073 -0.031

Note. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6.14. Path Model Coefficients for Male Participants (continued)

DATA1:	$x^2=17.551$	$p<.617$	df=20
DATA2:	$x^2=21.892$	$p<.346$	df=20
DATA3:	$x^2=23.019$	$p<.288$	df=20
DATA4:	$x^2=16.969$	$p<.655$	df=20
DATA5:	$x^2=24.342$	$p<.228$	df=20
CFI=0.987	TLI=0.969	RMSEA=0.034	

Figure 6.2. Path Model for Male Participants



Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Notes. 1. Insignificant relationships are left out.

2. The demographic variables were controlled as following: child's gender, age, family income, a length of relationship between mother and perpetrator, a type of relationship of child with perpetrator (biological father or not), and whether a child ever witnessed of perpetrator's arrestment for violence.

Path Analysis Model for All Participants

In the final path model, gender was additionally controlled in addition to demographic variables controlled in female and male models. Five chi-squares for each imputed data were not significant, and model fit indices were CFI=0.994, TLI=0.987, and RMSEA=0.020, meaning that the hypothesized model was consistent with the data (Table 6.15). Figure 6.3 shows that the level of community exposure was negatively associated with participant's perception on battered mother's parenting behaviors ($B = -.228, p < .05$); then, perception on mothering had a significantly negative effect on ambivalence toward mother ($B = -.726, p < .001$). Therefore, the indirect effect of community exposure on ambivalence toward mother through child's perception on mothering was positive. The level of victimization was negatively associated with perception on battering father's parenting behaviors ($B = -.312, p < .01$); then, perception on fathering had a significantly positive effect on ambivalence toward father ($B = .441, p < .01$). That is, the indirect effect of victimization on ambivalence toward father through perception on fathering was negative.

Table 6.15. Path Model Coefficients for the Final Model.

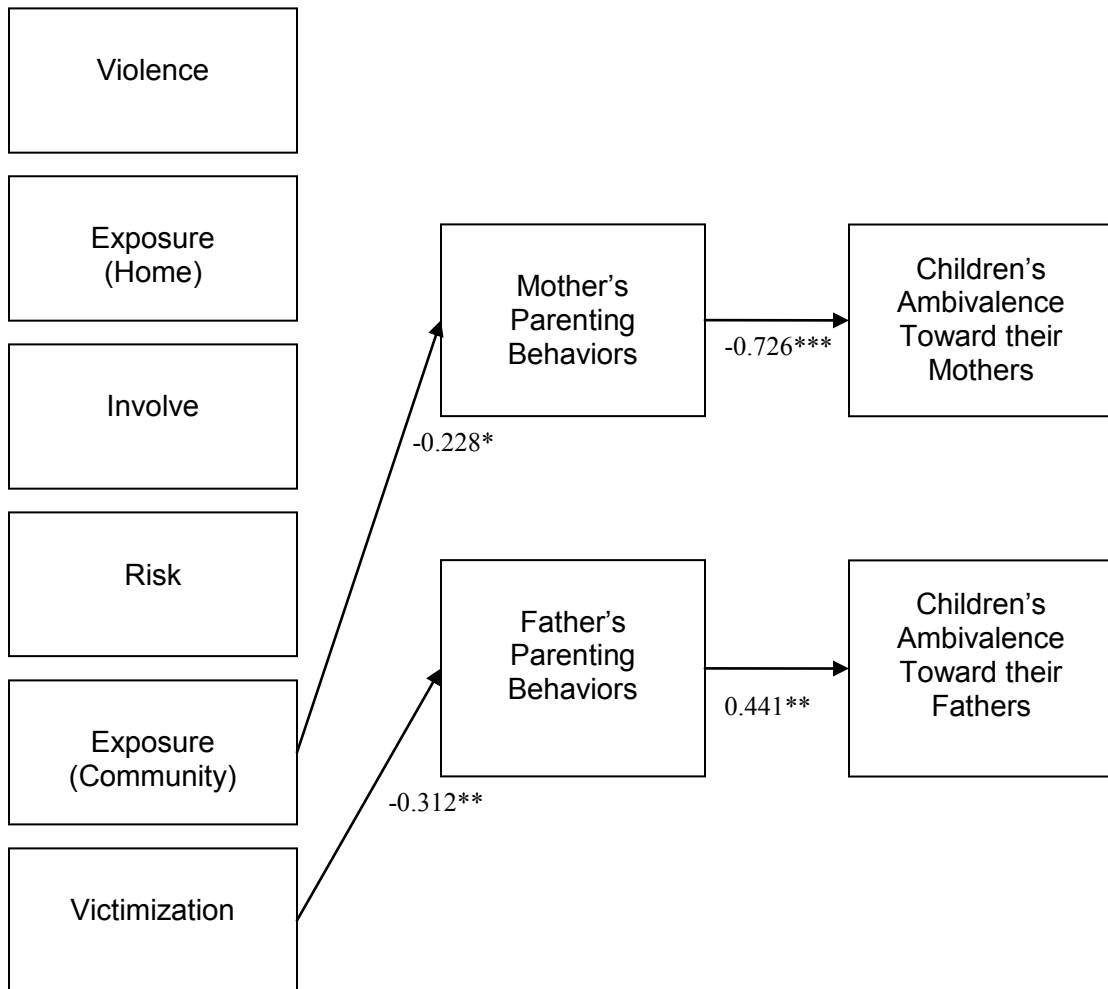
From	To	Unstandardized Coefficient (SE)	Standardized Coefficient
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Mother's Parenting Behavior	0.852 (0.452) -0.370 (0.313) 0.562 (0.399) -0.352 (0.619) -0.727 (0.344) * -1.064 (0.847)	0.327 -0.224 0.177 -0.070 -0.228 -0.139
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Father's Parenting Behavior	-1.002 (0.537) -0.305 (0.322) 0.084 (0.456) 0.423 (0.764) 0.222 (0.406) -3.158 (0.970) **	-0.291 -0.139 0.020 0.064 0.053 -0.312
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Ambivalence Toward Mother	0.008 (0.031) -0.016 (0.016) 0.032 (0.023) -0.046 (0.035) 0.027 (0.021) 0.003 (0.058)	0.040 -0.136 0.131 -0.119 0.110 0.005
Mothering Fathering		-0.056 (0.008) *** 0.003 (0.005)	-0.726 0.051
Income Age Perpetrator Length Arrestment Gender		-0.089 (0.076) 0.036 (0.037) 0.155 (0.219) 0.173 (0.091) -0.285 (0.197) 0.139 (0.167)	-0.094 0.073 0.075 0.194 -0.139 0.065
Violence Exposure Involve Risk Community Victimization	Ambivalence Toward Father	0.049 (0.046) -0.012 (0.024) -0.014 (0.032) -0.065 (0.054) 0.017 (0.032) 0.136 (0.077)	0.224 -0.086 -0.053 -0.154 0.064 0.212
Mothering Fathering		-0.009 (0.010) 0.028 (0.008) **	-0.107 0.441
Income Age Perpetrator Length Arrestment Gender		-0.174 (0.125) 0.000 (0.058) -0.331 (0.290) -0.012 (0.134) 0.212 (0.378) 0.236 (0.273)	-0.169 0.002 -0.148 -0.012 0.095 0.101

Note. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.00

Table 6.15. Path Model Coefficients for the Final Model (continued)

DATA1:	$x^2=9.866$	$p<.627$	$df=12$
DATA2:	$x^2=12.245$	$p<.426$	$df=12$
DATA3:	$x^2=13.358$	$p<.344$	$df=12$
DATA4:	$x^2=12.104$	$p<.437$	$df=12$
DATA5:	$x^2=14.007$	$p<.300$	$df=12$
CFI=0.994	TLI=0.987	RMSEA=0.020	

Figure 6.3. Path Model for the Final Model.



Notes. 1. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

2. Insignificant relationships are left out.

3. The demographic variables were controlled as following: child's gender, age, family income, a length of relationship between mother and perpetrator, a type of relationship of child with perpetrator (biological father or not), and whether a child ever witnessed of perpetrator's arrestment for violence

Chapter 7. Discussion and limitations

This section discusses the major findings and implications of the study. Research questions for future studies are posed, and limitations of the study are addressed.

Discussion

Since little research has been conducted on how children who live in families where domestic violence is present perceive their parents and build relationships with them, more research is needed to understand these complex relationships. (Peled, 1998). Therefore, this study was to better understand parent-child relationships in domestic violence based on children's self-reports. More specifically, it integrated such issues as child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV), child's attitudes toward parents based on simultaneous positive and negative feelings, and their perceptions on parental behaviors in domestic violence. A total of 97 children were recruited through domestic violence shelters and community service organizations. Path analysis was utilized to test the hypothesis that CEDV could be associated with child's ambivalence toward parents through his or her perceived parenting behaviors. To determine if there were statistically significant gender differences on pathways, the research model examined females and males separately, and then included all participants in the final analysis. Some significant gender differences were found and will be discussed here.

The Extent of Child Exposure to Domestic Violence, Child's Attitudes toward Parents, and Child's Perceptions on Mothering and Fathering in Domestic Violence

Since children participating in the study were mainly recruited through domestic violence shelters for a female victim and her child(ren), it was not surprising that they reported a high level of exposure to violence toward their mother committed by father or mother's partner. For example, according to participant's reports, nearly 70% witnessed that a male perpetrator hurt mother's body, more than 40% physically tried to stop the fight between mother and her partner, and about 60% tried to get away from the fighting. In addition, 39.9% and 8.3% of participants reported physical and sexual abuse against themselves, respectively, by someone in their family.

Interestingly, the significant difference between female and male children was found in how much they were exposed to domestic violence; more female than male children reported a significantly severe level of violence, home exposure, and total CEDV. It is possible that female children had more chance to be exposed to adult violence at home since they stayed at home with their mother for longer time or tended to perceive such incidents more seriously compared to male children. Otherwise, it is also possible that male children were likely to under report the violence just because they could feel shame about it. Either way, children exposed to domestic violence are in need of further attention.

Gender differences were also found in the child's attitude toward her or his parents; female and male respondents showed various levels of positive and negative attitudes toward each of the parents. Male children had a significantly higher level of positive attitude toward father than female children did, whereas both male and female children reported a high level of positive attitude toward mother without a significant

difference between them. This finding is consistent with previous studies indicating that a child tends to imitate a same-sex parent more than an opposite-sex parent, and has a better bond with him or her (Pope et al., 1997; Mahoney et al., 1996). In addition, it was not surprising to see that both female and male participants had more positive attitudes toward their mother than their father. According to the standard of Child's Attitudes toward the Mother/Father (CAM/CAF) by Daigneault et al. (2007), children in the study seemed to suffer relatively severe stress in their relationships with their fathers. The way that they feel and think of their abusive father seemed to be damaged by the violence he committed against their mothers. As for parenting, both female and male children perceived their mother's parenting behaviors more positively than their father's. That is, they reported that their battered mothers showed more positive parenting behaviors than battering fathers.

Hypothesis Testing: Direct and Indirect Effect of CEDV on Ambivalence

To test the relationships between CEDV and mothering/fathering, and between CEDV and the child participant's ambivalence toward her or his mother and father, the following demographic factors were controlled: children's age, family income, length of relationship between female victim and male perpetrator, type of relationship of children with perpetrator (e.g., father, step-father, mom's partner, mom's boyfriend), and whether the child witnessed the perpetrator's arrest for the violence. The child's gender was additionally controlled in the final model that included both male and female children.

Hypothesis 1: How does variation in the severity of child exposure to domestic violence affect children's relationships with their battered mothers and the battering males in the household based on children's ambivalence?

No direct effect of CEDV on children's ambivalence toward parents was found in any of the female, male, or total models. However, in terms of indirect effects, certain types of CEDV were associated with children's ambivalence toward parents, and this relationship was mediated by children's perceptions of parenting. Among female children, first, the child's involvement in domestic violence was positively associated with mother's parenting behaviors, which in turn was negatively associated with the child's ambivalence toward her or his mother. Second, the higher levels of violence and victimization were negatively associated with the child's perception on father's parenting behaviors, and in turn were positively associated with the child's ambivalence toward both her or his mother and father. Among male participants, violence was positively associated with the child's perception on mothering, and in turn was negatively associated with the child's ambivalence toward both parents. Also, a higher level of victimization was associated with more negative perceptions on fathering, and in turn was associated with lower ambivalence toward father.

This study found the mediating factors of the child's perception on parenting behaviors of mother and father in families living with domestic violence between CEDV and the child's ambivalence. Since there were no direct effects from CEDV to the child's ambivalence in the three analysis models, such mediating effects of parenting behaviors played an important role. Among female participants, the level of involvement was

negatively associated with the child's ambivalence toward her or his mother, and this was mediated by the mother's parenting behavior. Also, the level of violence and victimization were negatively associated with ambivalence toward each parent, and it was mediated by the father's parenting behavior. Among male participants, violence was negatively associated with ambivalence toward each of mother and father, which was mediated by mothering, and victimization was also negatively associated with ambivalence toward the father that was mediated by fathering. In the final model, the level of exposure to community violence was positively associated with ambivalence toward the mother mediated by mothering, and victimization was negatively associated with ambivalence toward the father mediated by fathering.

A certain type of severe CEDV predicted lower levels of ambivalence toward the child's mother. Based on the high scores of positive attitudes toward their mothers (CAM), it can be assumed that child participants who were exposed to such severe CEDV had positive feelings toward and perceptions of their battered mothers. In all three models, victimization was a consistent factor that negatively predicted father's parenting behaviors, which in turn positively affected ambivalence toward him.

Hypothesis 2: How does variation in the severity of CEDV affect child's perception on maternal and paternal parenting behaviors?

In the case of female children, involvement was positively associated with the mother's parenting behaviors when a less strict p-value, 0.10, was applied. In other words, when female children were more exposed to more severe violence against women in the home, the more they positively perceived their mothers' parenting. In contrast, two

other subscales of CEDV, the level of violence and victimization, were negatively associated with female children's perception of fathering.

Among all six types of CEDV in the male model, there was a positive association between violence and the child's perception of mothering, and a negative association between victimization and the child's perception on fathering. This means that male children who were exposed to more severe violence at home perceived more positive mother's parenting behaviors, and those who reported a higher level of victimization tended to perceive more negative fathering.

When both male and female children are exposed to certain types of CEDV, they report perceptions of more positive mothering and more negative fathering. Some experts believe that domestic violence could negatively affect the mother's physical and emotional ability to raise a child and to build a healthy bond with him or her (see Perel & Peled, 2008; Moretti et al., 2007; Gewirtz & Edleson, 2007; Radford & Hester, 2006). However, other studies explained how battered mothers try to take good care of their children to counterbalance the child's experience with violence at home (Letourneau and colleagues, 2007). Similar to previous findings, the current study showed, according to female children's reports, that battered mothers tended to provide more positive parenting behaviors toward their children who were more involved in violent events between adults at home. It was also not surprising that previous studies showed that male perpetrators have fewer parenting skills (Groves et al., 2007; Perel & Peled, 2008; Peled, 2000; Jourlies et al., 1996); for example, they use physical punishment toward children more often than non-abusive males do. It is consistent to the finding of the current study that

children exposed to severe violence toward their mother by their father figure and severe victimization perceived more negative fathering.

Hypothesis 3: How do parenting behaviors statistically predict variations in the relationships with children from both the battered mother and the battering male in the household?

This study found that the negative association between the child's perception of mothering and ambivalence toward her or his mother in domestic violence situations was consistent across all of the research models (female, male, and total children). It is possible for children to have more ambivalent and complex feelings toward their battered mothers when they have poor parenting skills. However, one should be careful in interpreting this finding since battered mothers can be blamed for not being a perfect. Furthermore, it should not be interpreted that battered mothers are all responsible for tainted relationships with their children based on his or her ambivalent feelings due to negative mothering. Instead of victim-blaming, battered women have to be better understood how they are not available to take good care of their child(ren) due to domestic violence.

On the other hand, the positive association between the child's perception of fathering and ambivalence toward her or his father was also consistent in the three models with female, male, and total participants. That is, interestingly but not surprisingly, the more participants perceive father's parenting behaviors as positive, the more they are ambivalent toward their battering father. When a father abused a mother but showed comparatively positive and consistent parenting behaviors, this study showed

that it is possible for the child to get confused about whether the father is a good or bad person. As the child perceives the father as negative for abusing a mother and positive for showing consistent parenting behaviors at the same time, it could make him or her ambivalent toward and even confused about father.

Among female children, perceptions of parenting behaviors of battered women had a negative association with their ambivalence toward mother, meaning that the more they perceived mother's parenting as positive, the less they have ambivalent attitudes toward mother. Less ambivalence toward mother in this case could mean that female children are either very positive or very negative toward their mothers. Based on the score of Child Attitude toward Mother, on which female children reported high levels of positive attitudes toward their mothers, it is possible that they positively perceived their battered mothers with good parenting skills. In contrast, battering fathers' parenting behaviors showed positive associations with female children's ambivalence toward both their mothers and their fathers. Female children seemed confused by a violent but good father, which supports Peled's (1998) statement that children have ambivalence and dilemmas about father's violence, when the abuser is a good father who listens to them, spends time with them, and has consistent and positive parenting skills.

Among male children, positive mothering was negatively associated with ambivalence toward both mothers and fathers, meaning that male children had either very positive or negative feelings toward mothers and fathers affected by positive mothering. Here, it is interesting to find that mothering played a role to predict the male child's attitude toward battering father. Despite having a violent male spouse, some battered

women will try to prevent their children from ‘father deprivation’ by telling them that their father was devoted to them (Radford & Hester, 2006), which could lead positive feelings toward their father. Often, battered mothers do not want their children to live without their father and are willing to downplay the severity of or make excuses for the father’s abusive behaviors because they believe it is important to have a male role model for male children. Otherwise, male children who were empathic toward their battered mother because of her consistent and supportive parenting could view their father’s parenting behavior as negative. Similarly to female children, positive fathering predicted a higher level of ambivalence toward the father for male children as well.

Hypothesis 4: Do male/female subgroups differ on paths from the level of CEDV to ambivalence toward the battered mother and the battering father figure?

Even though there was no direct effect of CEDV on ambivalence toward both the mother and the father, indirect effects of certain types of CEDV through mothering and fathering were found in female and male models. The factors of CEDV that significantly affected fathering were all negative. The similar patterns were shown in both female and male models; the higher level of certain type of CEDV was associated with the lower level of ambivalence toward mothers that was mediated by positive mothering, whereas the higher level of certain type of CEDV was also associated with the lower level of ambivalence toward fathers that was mediated by negative fathering. However, the effective factors of CEDV varied upon gender models: involvement toward mothering and violence and victimization toward fathering in the female model; and violence toward mothering and victimization toward fathering in the male model,

Limitations

Despite the strengths of the current study, there are a couple of methodological limitations. First of all, it is possible that children participating in the study could have been confused about or misunderstood who was meant by a battering father figure, when they were asked about that. To prevent participants from getting confused, at the beginning of each survey, shelter staff explained the directions to them that “mom’s partner” referred to their dad, step dad, or mom’s girlfriend or boyfriend who was most recently having an abusive relationship with their mother. More specifically, the man in the abusive relationship with a battered mother was defined as mom’s partner (CEDV), father (CPP), he (father, mom’s boyfriend or partner: PPI). Additionally, participants may have been confused about the period of time to which the study referred; future research should better define specific time periods during which children were exposed to domestic violence.

Future studies on families living with domestic violence need to explicate other potential factors that could influence children’s feelings and their attitudes toward their parents. For example, this study was limited because it did not provide information on siblings among participants. There is a possibility of that some of participants were siblings, when most of them were engaged in the shelter programs with their mothers. Siblings have a strong likelihood of being exposed to the same incidences of domestic violence, while at the same time, they could be also exposed to various levels of domestic violence or have different perceptions of the same violent incidents and parents. Siblings can also affect each other’s feelings and perceptions toward parents. Future studies could

introduce sibling status as a factor, along with other demographic predictors such as gender or age.

Although having children in the study is a definite methodological strength, this also resulted in a smaller sample size. Large samples are better for stable estimates, and the sample size of this study was not comparatively large to use the statistical method, path analysis. Usually, the sample size of less than 100 is considered small for path analysis, but it is also acceptable if the model is simple (Klein, 1998). Also, according to Klein (1998), 20:1, the ratio of cases to measured variables, is recommended, and 10:1, is acceptable. The sample size in this study is therefore considered acceptable since it is about 10:1. In order to replenish the insufficient quantity caused by the nature of the sample, various types of analysis methods would be useful in future studies.

Another limitation of this study is that it solely obtained the reports from children; reports from multiple parties would provide more information. Specifically, for the parenting behavior factor, reports from battered mothers and battering fathers themselves can be beneficial to better assess their parenting behaviors, since children's perceptions of parenting could be different from the actual behaviors of the parents. However, this type of comprehensive study should be considered only when a battering father figure stays with battered mothers and their children for their safety.

Since participants were not randomly selected but rather recruited through domestic violence agencies in a relatively large city in the Midwest, the research findings are limited in terms of generalizability. Caution should be used when generalizing this research to the broader population. Also, only battered women and their children who had

received a certain type of domestic violence intervention at the time of survey were invited to participate in the study; therefore, it is possible that they have some unique characteristics compared to those who did not seek help from these specific domestic violence agencies.

In order to further explicate parent-child relationships in domestic violence, future studies should consider potential causal relationships with different angles among variables. The pathways from CEDV to ambivalence through parenting are possibly more complicated than hypothesized in the study. For example, children's ambivalent feelings and attitudes can be a predictor of their perception of parenting behaviors in domestic violence situations. Also, future studies should explore unmeasured third variables that can account for further explanations of parent-child relationships in domestic violence based on the effect of CEDV on the child's feelings and perceptions toward parents. For example, whether a child was directly abused by one of her or his parents or what kind of informal or formal supports she or he has to deal with violent experiences they had should be included for analysis.

At the time of this research, children had participated in one type of intervention to help them deal with their experience related to domestic violence. Child-mother relationships could be improved through intervention programs; for example, the way in which battered mothers communicate with their children and invite conversation about the violence seemed to improve (Peled, 1998). Over time, battered women tend to feel more able to compensate for the impact of partner's violence on their children, and take better care of children after separating from the abuser (Radford & Hester, 2006; Peled,

1998), which could have lead to participants' positive perceptions of mothering and less ambivalent feelings toward their mothers. Also, participating children could be at different stages of rebuilding relationship with their parents, and adjusting new relationships (Peled, 1998), so future studies should consider this. Children participants were recruited through community organizations, meaning that they were using one of a variety of services. It should be considered that they already started reassessing and rebuilding a positive relationship with their battered mother, which could influence their perceptions and attitudes toward parent figures in domestic violence.

Implications

Current studies have mainly focused on physical, psychological, and/or social outcomes of children living through male adult violence toward female adult at home, whereas this study integrated such issues as child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV), mothering and fathering in domestic violence situations, and child's attitudes toward parents in domestic violence, so as to better understand child-parent relationships in families living with domestic violence. Using path model analyses, children's perceptions of the parenting behaviors of battered mothers and battering fathers, and children's attitudes toward each of them were simultaneously included in the model for comparison. This study found different gender pathways from CEDV to the child's attitudes, mediated by children's perception of parenting behaviors.

Importantly, this study was completely based on children's responses. Most research considers battered mothers in shelter or service providers at domestic violence

agency as “convenient” samples to explore the effects of domestic violence on children (Radford & Hester, 2001). However, the mother could misrepresent the child through over- or underestimating his or her feelings and perceptions in cases of domestic violence. In the same context, Barr-Anderson and colleagues (2010) indicated that parents could under- or over-report their behaviors. They also mentioned a possibility that parents could over-report how much they are positive and supportive to their child(ren) and/or under-report negative or abusive parental behaviors because of social desirability.

Therefore, having children (instead of mothers) participate in this study helped better understand how much children have been exposed to domestic violence and how they feel about their parents. Brassard (1986) also mentioned that the benefit of including children in research not only collects information directly from those specifically concerned, but also empowers them throughout the interview process. This is consistent with feedbacks of the shelter staff that collaborated in the current study; when participating in the survey, children seemed to get excited when they were asked about adults at home and about their feelings. Shelter staff also mentioned that children felt empowered during the survey by having someone interested in their well-being.

Parenting, the mediator in this study, was measured with child’s reports. Child perception of parenting was utilized to examine the mediating effect of parenting on child’s ambivalence. Child’s perception of parenting is sometimes different from parental behaviors reported by parents themselves, child perception reflects reality in an accurate or inaccurate way (see Serot & Teevan, 1961; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994). In the same

context, parents are not the best informants at times since they also tend to underreport their negative behaviors and/or overreport positive behaviors for social desirability. Furthermore, having children's reports in the study is beneficial in that what children have subjectively perceived is more influential than what really happened to themselves: how children perceive parents could be more important for them rather than actually what happened to them (see Levenson, 1973; Jensen et al., 1999). Therefore, based on the findings that children's perception of parenting can be more helpful and accurate to measure children's emotional or behavioral responses than including parents' reports about their parental behaviors (Barr-Anderson et al., 2010; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994), using children's reports about parenting could be strength of having children's voices. In future studies, it would be better to measure an effect of parenting if parent's or other family member's reports are included with child's reports.

This study found that battered mothers were more likely to have positive and consistent parenting behaviors. This is in contrast to previous studies that showed how battered mothers are often unable to take good care of their child(ren) when they are physically and/or emotionally hurt by male spouses or partners (Perel & Peled, 2008; Moretti et al., 2007; Gewirtz & Edleson, 2007). In addition, when battered mothers are not able to provide the same amount of care for their child(ren) that they provided before violence, they are more likely to use physical punishment than non-abused women, and they can exhibit other signs of negative parenting. However, this study showed that battered mothers were positive and consistent in their mothering, which is consistent with findings from Letourneau et al. (2007), in that battered women were more sensitive and

responsive to their children to compensate for the violence through which the children had gone. Children in this study reported that their abused mothers were not failing in their roles as mothers. It cannot be overstated that concerns about motherhood in domestic violence are serious. Many times women are victims of domestic violence while at the same time are a major provider of care and support to child(ren). Battered mothers should be strongly supported to be able to provide a sufficient amount of physical and emotional care for their children.

This study indicated that the child's complex feelings and attitudes toward the battered mother could be alleviated by the mother's positive parenting. While interpreting this finding, one should be careful when applying this to battered women since it could result in mother-blaming for not providing good parenting despite violence. At times, the child is likely to think that the mother does not provide enough protection from the abusive male at home, or that the mother has an opportunity to leave the abusive relationship. It is common for children exposed to domestic violence to have uncomfortable feelings and a lack of understanding about their battered mothers. Instead of blaming battered women, intervention needs to be given to children to help them better understand their battered mothers' complex situations. In addition, for battered women, society should provide support for them to enhance their ability to raise their children. According to Radford and Hester (2006), practitioners and researchers should be aware of the danger of gender entrapment with regard to domestic violence and mothering. Women in gender entrapment find it hard to be good mothers with limited financial, emotional, and physical resources. Placing women in the position of battered mother,

while accusing them of failed mothering and undermining their mothering, is a double-blame by abusive men and society.

Researchers and practitioners are interested in improving violent men's parenting in order to help build healthy relationships with their child(ren) because such relationships are often disrupted by adult violence at home. Family members and professionals try to prevent the family from being fatherless when they believe it would be better not only for abusive fathers but also victimized mothers and their children (Radford & Hester, 2001). If they believe that having an abusive father stay at home would be beneficial, the abusive father should learn how to parent children and how to build healthy relationships with them.

Interestingly, but not surprisingly, the abusive father's positive, supportive or consistent parenting behaviors enhanced the child's mixed and ambivalent feelings toward him. The batterer's positive parenting could make children more confused about him who is a violent spouse to their mother but a good father to them. Therefore, a great need is to help children understand how and why they have ambivalent feelings toward an abusive father is found.

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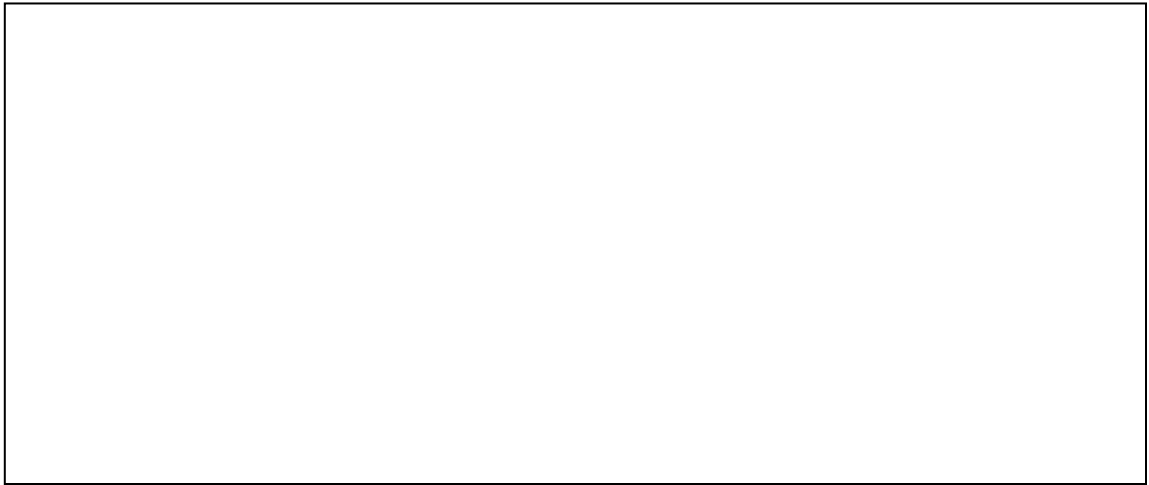
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Appendix A. The Set of Questionnaires

ID # _____

***CHILD EXPOSURE
TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE SCALE
(CEDV)***



Original artwork by Ida Pearle. Artwork used with permission from the artist.

Assessment of Child Violence Exposure to Domestic Violence

These directions are to be read aloud by the practitioner administering this measure.

This is a list of questions about your life and your family. It will probably take you about 30 minutes to fill out. If you have a question when you are filling this out, ask the person who gave this to you.

Your answers will NEVER be given to other people, so do NOT write your name anywhere. If you want to stop taking the survey, you can stop answering the questions anytime you want.

Think about the people you have ever lived with. There are lots of ways to think about the kinds of adults that kids live with. For example, some kids live with a stepparent, or a grandparent, or foster parents. Other kids live with just one parent and maybe a parent's girlfriend or boyfriend too. The questions in the survey are about the adults you have lived with. To make them easy to understand, we use the words "mom" and "mom's partner."

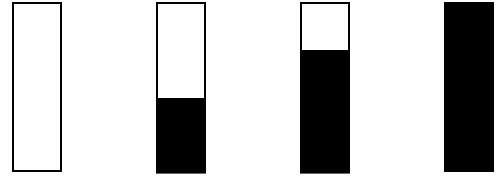
When you read the word "mom," think of the woman you have lived with and who has taken care of you, even if she did not give birth to you. For example, this person might be your mom, your stepmother, your grandma, or your foster mom. When you read the words "mom's partner", think of who that is in your life. For example, it could be your dad, your step dad, your grandpa, or your mom's girlfriend or boyfriend.

Please read all the directions and circle your answers to each question.

Part One

There are two parts to each question.

⇒ First answer the question about how often something happened by circling your answer.



⇒ Then check off all the ways you knew about what happened.

Never Sometime Often Almost Always

⇒ If you answer “Never” in the first part, skip the second part and go on to the next question.

Example:
How often have there been fights at your school?

Never Sometimes **Often** Almost Always

↓

Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

1. How often do adults in your family disagree with one another?

Never Sometimes Often Almost Always

↓

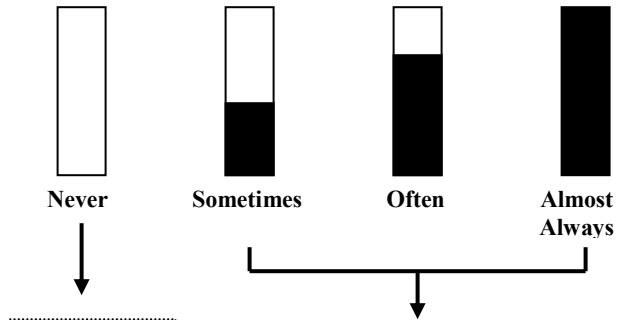
Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

2. Has your mom's partner ever hurt your mom's feelings by:

- calling her names
- swearing
- yelling
- threatening her
- screaming at her
- other _____



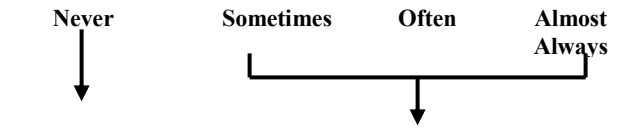
Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

3. How often has your mom's partner stopped your mom from doing something she wanted to do or made it difficult for her to do something she wanted to do? Such as

- leave the house
- go to the doctor
- use the telephone
- visit her friends or relatives
- other _____

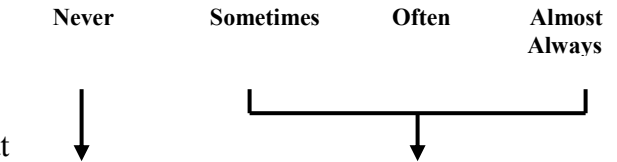


Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

4. How often has your mom's partner stopped your mom from eating or sleeping, or made it hard for her to eat or sleep?

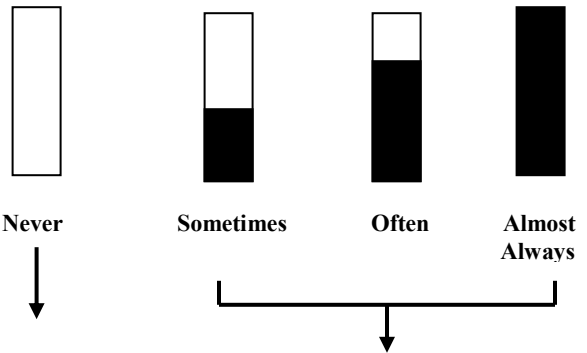


Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

5. How often have your mom and her partner argued about you?
[It is not your fault if your mom and her partner argue about you.]

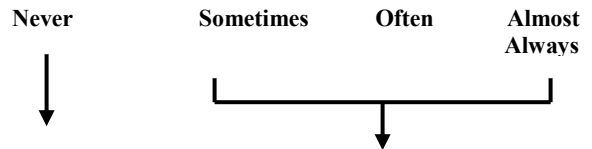


Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

6. How often has your mom's partner hurt, or tried to hurt, a pet in your home on purpose?



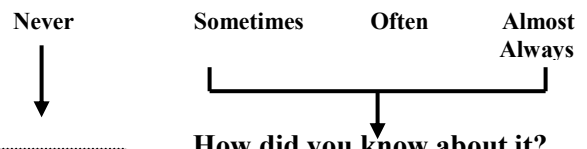
Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

7. How often has your mom's partner broken or destroyed something on purpose, such as:

- punching a wall
- ripping a phone cord out of the wall
- smashing a picture
- other _____



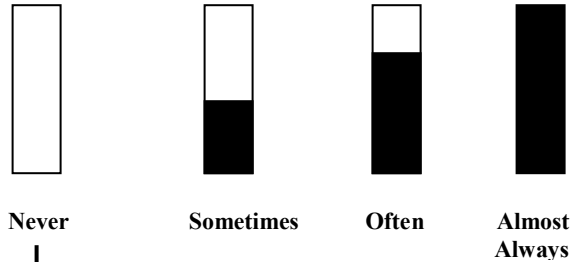
Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

8. How often has your mom's partner done something to hurt her body, such as:

- hitting her
- punching her
- kicking her
- choking her
- shoving her
- pulling her hair
- other _____

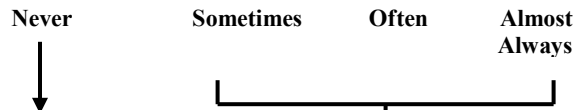


Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

9. How often has your mom's partner *threatened* to use a knife, gun, or other object to hurt your mom?

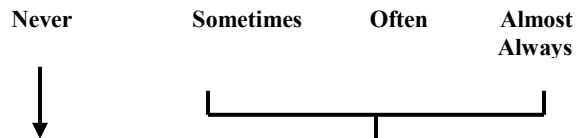


Circle never, then go to the next question.

How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.

10. How often has your mom's partner *actually* hurt your mom with a knife, gun, or other object?



Circle never, then go to the next question.

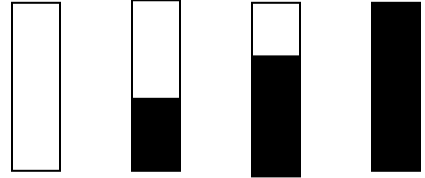
How did you know about it?

- = I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- = I heard about it afterwards.
- = I heard it while it was happening.
- = I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- = I saw it and was near while it was happening.





Part Two

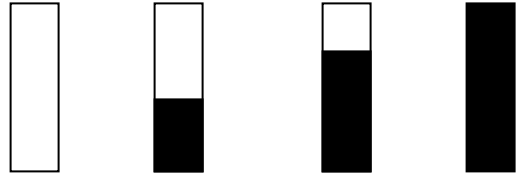
It's hard to know what to do when you see someone getting hurt. In the questions on this page the word "hurt" means hurting your mom's feelings on purpose, threatening her, physically hurting her, or stopping her from doing things.

Choose the answer that best describes your situation and circle it. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions.

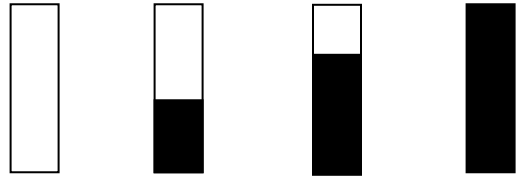


- | | Never | Sometimes | Often | Almost Always |
|---|-------|-----------|-------|---------------|
| 11. When your mom's partner hurts your mom, how often have you yelled something at them from a <i>different room</i> than where the fight was taking place? | | | | |
| 12. When your mom's partner hurts your mom, how often have you yelled something at them in the <i>same room</i> where they are fighting? | | | | |
| 13. When your mom's partner hurts your mom, how often have you called someone else for help, like calling someone on the phone or going next door? | | | | |
| 14. When your mom's partner hurts your mom, how often have you gotten physically involved trying to stop the fighting? | | | | |
| 15. When your mom's partner hurts your mom, how often has your mom's partner done something to you to hurt or scare your mom? | | | | |
| 16. When your mom's partner hurts your mom, how often have you tried to get away from the fighting by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • hiding • leaving the house • locking yourself in a different room • other _____ | | | | |
| 17. How often has your mom's partner asked you to tell what your mom has being doing or saying? | | | | |
| 18. How often do you worry about your mom's partner getting drunk or taking drugs? | | | | |

				
	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
19. How often do you worry about your mom getting drunk or taking drugs?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
20. How often does your mom seem sad, worried or upset?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
21. How often does it seem like you have had big changes in your life? For example:	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • moving homes • staying in the hospital • your parents getting a divorce • the death of someone you're close to • a parent going to jail • other _____ 	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
22. How often have you heard a person hurt another person by making fun of them or calling them names in your neighborhood or at your school?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
23. How often has someone from your community or at your school done or said any of these things to hurt you?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
24. How often do you hurt a person's feelings on purpose, like making fun of them or calling them names?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
25. How often do you physically hurt a person on purpose, such as hitting, kicking or things like that?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always



	Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
26. How often have you seen someone else in your community or school get hurt by being: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • grabbed • slapped • punched • kicked • being hurt by a knife or a gun • other _____ 				
27. How often has someone at school or in your community hurt you by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • grabbing • slapping • punching • kicking • threatening you with a knife or gun • other _____ 				
28. How often have you seen someone being hurt or killed on television or in a movie?				
29. How often have you seen someone being hurt or killed in a video game?				
30. How often has an adult in your family hurt your feelings by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • making fun of you • calling you names • threatening you • saying things to make you feel bad • other _____ 				



31. How often has an adult in your family done something to hurt your body, like:

- hitting you
- kicking you
- beating you up
- other _____

Never

Sometimes

Often

**Almost
Always**

32. How often has someone who is not in your family:

- touched your private parts when you didn't want them to
- made you touch their private parts
- forced you to have sex?

Never

Sometimes

Often

**Almost
Always**

33. How often has someone in your family:

- touched your private parts when you didn't want them to
- made you touch their private parts
- forced you to have sex

Never

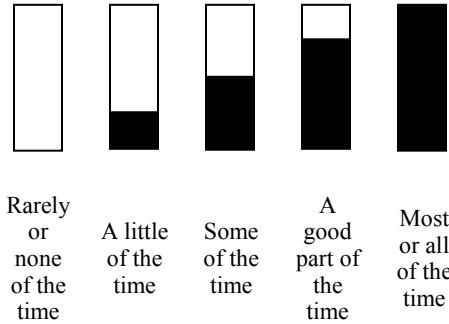
Sometimes

Often

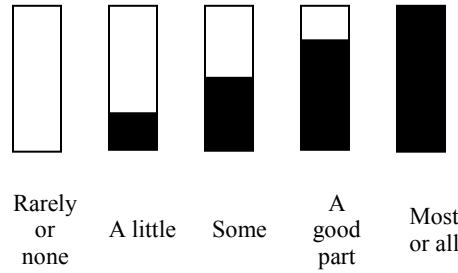
**Almost
Always**

Children's Attitudes toward their Mothers and Fathers

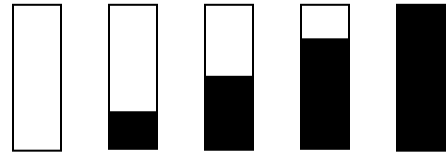
This questionnaire is designed to measure the degree of contentment you have in your relationship with your mother. It is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Answer each item as carefully and accurately as you can by placing a number beside each one as follows:



1.	<u>My mother</u> gets on my nerves.				
1-1.	<u>My father (mom's boyfriend or partner)</u> gets on my nerves.				
2.	I get along well with my mother .				
2-1.	I get along well with my father .				
3.	I feel that I can really trust my mother .				
3-1.	I feel that I can really trust my father .				
4.	I dislike my mother .				
4-1.	I dislike my father .				
5.	My mother's behavior embarrasses me.				
5-1.	My father's behavior embarrasses me.				



6.	My father is too demanding.					
6-1.	My mother is too demanding.					
7.	I wish I had a different father .					
7-1.	I wish I had a different mother .					
8.	I really enjoy my father .					
8-1.	I really enjoy my mother .					
9.	My father puts too many limits on me.					
9-1.	My mother puts too many limits on me.					
10.	My father interferes with my activities.					
10-1.	My mother interferes with my activities.					
11.	I resent my father .					
11-1.	I resent my mother .					
12.	I think my father is terrific.					
12-1.	I think my mother is terrific.					
13.	I hate my father .					
13-1.	I hate my mother .					
14.	My father is very patient with me.					
14-1.	My mother is very patient with me.					
15.	I really like my father .					
15-1.	I really like my mother .					

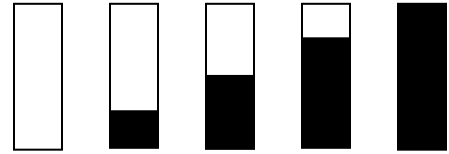


Rarely or none A little Some A good part Most or all

16.	I like being with my mother .					
16-1.	I like being with my father .					
17.	I feel like I do not love my mother .					
17-1.	I feel like I do not love my father .					
18.	My mother is very irritating.					
18-1.	My father is very irritating.					
19.	I feel very angry toward my mother .					
19-1.	I feel very angry toward my father .					
20.	I feel violent toward my mother .					
20-1.	I feel violent toward my father .					
21.	I feel proud of my mother .					
21-1.	I feel proud of my father .					
22.	I wish my mother was more like other I know.					
22-1.	I wish my father was more like other I know.					
23.	My mother does not understand me.					
23-1.	My father does not understand me.					
24.	I can really depend on my mother .					
24-1.	I can really depend on my father .					
25.	I feel ashamed of my mother .					
25-1.	I feel ashamed of my father .					

Parent Perception Inventory

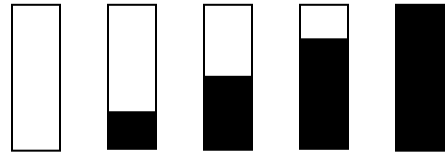
These questions are asking about your mother and your father, mother's boyfriend or partner, whichever one in your house with you now.



		Never	A Little	Some times	Pretty much	A lot
1.	How often does <u>your mother</u> thank you for doing things / tell you when she likes what you did / give you something or let you do something special when you're good?					
1-1.	How often does <u>he (father, mom's boyfriend or partner)</u> thank you for doing things / tell you when he likes what you did / give you something or let you do something special when you're good?					
2.	How often does <u>your mother</u> take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride your bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?					
2-1.	How often does <u>he</u> take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride your bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?					
3.	How often does <u>your mother</u> talk to you when you feel bad and help you to feel better, help you with your problems, or comfort you?					
3-1.	How often does <u>he</u> talk to you when you feel bad and help you feel better, help you with your problems, or comfort you?					
4.	How often does <u>your mother</u> tell you you're no good / tell you that you messed up or didn't do something right / criticize you?					
4-1.	How often does <u>he</u> tell you you're no good / tell you that you messed up or didn't do something right / criticize you?					
5.	How often does <u>your mother</u> talk to you / listen to you / have a good conversation with you?					
5-1.	How often does <u>he</u> talk to you / listen to you / have a good conversation with you?					



		Never	A Little	Some times	Pretty much	A lot
6.	How often does he order you around / tell you what to do / give orders?					
6-1.	How often does your mother order you around / tell you what to do / give orders?					
7.	How often does he let you help decide what to do / let you help figure out how to solve problems?					
7-1.	How often does your mother let you help decide what to do / let you help figure out how to solve problems?					
8.	How often does he spank you / slap you / hit you?					
8-1.	How often does your mother spank you / slap you / hit you?					
9.	How often does he play with you / do things with you which you like?					
9-1.	How often does your mother play with you / do things with you which you like?					
10.	How often does he get mad at you / yell at you / holler at you / scream at you / shout at you?					
10-1.	How often does your mother get mad at you / yell at you / holler at you / scream at you / shout at you?					
11.	How often does he say nice things to you / tell you that you're a good boy or girl / compliment you?					
11-1.	How often does your mother say nice things to you / tell you that you're a good boy or girl / compliment you?					
12.	How often does he threaten you / tell you that you'll get into trouble if you do something wrong / warn you?					
12-1.	How often does your mother threaten you / tell you that you'll get into trouble if you do something wrong / warn you?					



		Never	A Little	Some times	Pretty much	A lot
13.	How often does <i>your mother</i> let you do what other kids your age do / let you do things on your own?					
13-1.	How often does <i>he</i> let you do what other kids your age do / let you do things on your own?					
14.	How often does <i>your mother</i> send you to a room or corner when you do something wrong?					
14-1.	How often does <i>he</i> send you to a room or corner when you do something wrong?					
15.	How often does <i>your mother</i> help you when you need it (with a hard job, with homework, or when you can't do something by yourself)?					
15-1.	How often does <i>he</i> help you when you need it (with a hard job, with homework, or when you can't do something by yourself)?					
16.	How often does <i>your mother</i> nag you / tell you what to do over and over again / keep after you to do things?					
16-1.	How often does <i>he</i> nag you / tell you what to do over and over again / keep after you to do things?					
17.	How often does <i>your mother</i> hug you / kiss you / smile at you?					
17-1.	How often does <i>he</i> hug you / kiss you / smile at you?					
18.	How often does <i>your mother</i> ignore you / not pay attention to you / not talk to you or look at you?					
18-1.	How often does <i>he</i> ignore you / not pay attention to you / not talk to you or look at you?					

Part Three

34. If your mom and her partner fight, when did the fighting start? (Circle one answer.)

1. I don't remember them fighting.
2. They started fighting this year.
3. They started fighting 2-3 years ago.
4. They started fighting 4 or more years ago.
5. They've been fighting for as long as I can remember.

35. Do you think your family has enough money for the things it needs?

1. No, there are times when my family doesn't have enough money for food or rent or other things we need.
2. We seem to have enough money to pay for what we need.
3. We have enough money to buy extra things we don't really need.
4. I don't know.

36. How old are you? _____

37. Are you male or female? (Circle one answer.)

1. Male
2. Female

38. What race or ethnicity do you consider yourself? (Circle all that describe you.)

1. White/Caucasian/European American
2. Black/African American/African
3. American Indian/Native American
4. Asian or Pacific Islander
5. Latino/Latina/Hispanic
6. Multi-racial/No primary racial or ethnic identification
7. Other (What?) _____
8. I don't know
9. I don't want to answer this question

39. Where did you stay last night? (Circle one answer.)

1. House
2. Apartment
3. Shelter
4. Other (Where?) _____

40. Where do you live? (Circle one answer.)

1. House
2. Apartment
3. Shelter
4. Other (Where?) _____

41. Who are the people you live with? Circle all that apply.

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Mother | 6. Mother's boyfriend or partner | 11. Younger brother (s) |
| 2. Father | 7. Mother's girlfriend or partner | 12. Older brother (s) |
| 3. Step-Mother | 8. Father's boyfriend or partner | 13. Younger sister(s) |
| 4. Step-Father | 9. Father's girlfriend or partner | 14. Older sister(s) |
| 5. Grandmother | 10. Grandfather | 15. Other (Who?) _____ |

42. How many sibling(s) do you have? (Write all number.)

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| () older brother(s) | () older sister(s) |
| () younger brother(s) | () younger sister(s) |

43. Who was he abusing your mother?

1. Father
2. Step-father
3. Mother's boyfriend or partner

44. How long had your mom seen him (father or mom's partner)?
1. less than 1 year
 2. 1 year to 3 years
 3. 3 year to 10 years
 4. over 10 years
45. Have you witnessed that your father or mom's partner got caught by police because he abused your mom?
1. Yes
 2. No
46. Have you participated in any program at shelter for last month?
1. Yes. If so, what is it? _____
 2. No.
47. What is your favorite family activity? _____

This measure was created and produced by
Jeffrey L. Edleson and numerous student colleagues.
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Appendix B: Recruitment Review

CPP Project Staff Review of Recruitment

This step-by-step procedure is a summary of what will be discussed during the training!

1. Thank you for agreeing to participate! Your agency will be compensated with a \$200 donation as gratitude for your participation in this study.
2. Identify potential maternal guardians who have children between the ages of 10-16 years who are residing in your shelter or participating in any of your support programs and services.
3. Contact these mothers, inquire about participation and discuss five areas: purpose of the study, consent and assent forms, questionnaires, confidentiality, and mandated reporting.
4. Speak with children whose mothers agreed to have them participate, preferably in group situations for your convenience, and discuss the following: the mother's agreement to have their child(ren) participate should the child(ren) consent, assent forms for the children, number and types of questionnaires they will be completing, when and how they will be completing them, confidentiality, acceptance of the child's decision to complete them, mandated reporting, and compensation in the form of a \$5 Target gift card upon completion of the questionnaires.
5. Administer the survey by first reading through the directions with them and then answering any questions that arise throughout the duration of the administration.
6. Following administration, collect all measures and place them in the large manila envelope (provided) and seal it. We will collect the envelope from you so that you are unaware of each child's response and we are unaware of who responded not only to which measure but also who chose to participate.
7. Follow your agency's mandated reporting requirements for any information that was revealed aloud during the administration.
8. Distribute the \$5 Target gift card to each child after he or she has turned in the finished questionnaires to staff.
9. Thank you. Your participation is complete and we appreciate your assistance and cooperation with this study! Please ask any questions directly to the person provided below for pick-up.

Appendix C: Letter to the mother or guardian of children

DATE

Dear:

I am writing to ask your child to participate in a study conducted by the Minnesota Center Against Violence and Abuse to gather information about your child's perception of the parents. We are interested in developing a better understanding of how exposure to domestic violence affects a child's perception of his or her battered mother and abusive male at home, as there is a huge need in the field for increased services. After completion of the survey, your child will receive a \$5 Target gift card as gratitude.

The project in which your child is invited to participate will require less than 60 minutes. The parent or legal guardian will be given a Consent Form for the Child's Perception of Parents questionnaire. The children will also be given the Child Assent Form, and meet with a staff member from the agency individually or in a group environment. In the session, the children will be asked to complete two questionnaires. A copy of the assessment tools is attached for your review.

All children's answers are considered confidential and children's individual answers will not be shared with staff or parents. Children's answers will be given anonymously and the research team will not be able to identify them. Only children ages 10-16 who have parental permission and who have agreed to participate will be involved in the study. Also, the child/children and/or the parents may withdraw their permission at any time during the study without penalty by indicating this decision to the staff member or the researcher. You can submit the permission forms directly to a staff member of the agency.

This study has been reviewed for ethics clearance through the Institutional Review Board at the University of Minnesota. Clearance and acceptance was received On November 13, 2008 under IRB reference number 0802S26103. There are no known or anticipated risks to participation in the study.

If you have any questions about this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision, please feel free to contact me at the Minnesota Center Against Violence and Abuse at 612-624-8795 or at jedleson@umn.edu.

We would appreciate it if you would allow your child to participate in this project, as we believe it will contribute to furthering our knowledge about children exposed to domestic violence.

Sincerely,

Jeffrey L. Edleson, Ph.D.
Director, Minnesota Center Against Violence & Abuse
School of Social Work, University of Minnesota

Appendix D: Parental Consent Form for Study Sample

Parental Consent Form for Study Sample

Your child is invited to be in a confidential research study conducted by _____ on his or her exposure to domestic violence. This study will be conducted at _____ (name of agency/program). All the children between the ages 10-16 have been selected as possible participants. Children from other domestic violence programs from around the Twin Cities will also participate in the study. There will be a total of about 100 participants.

This study is being conducted by Jeff Edleson from the School of Social Work at the University of Minnesota, in St. Paul, MN.

Background Information

The purpose of this study is to improve our understanding of how children exposed to domestic violence perceive their battered mothers and the adult males who are perpetrating this violence.

Here are some examples of questions on the questionnaires:

A) “I feel violent toward my father/mom’s partner.”

Rarely or none of the time A little of the time Some of the time A good part of the time Most or all of the time

B) “How often does father/mom’s boyfriend/mom’s partner take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride your bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?”

Never A little Some times Pretty much A lot

C) “How often has your mom’s partner done something to hurt her body like hitting her, punching her, kicking her, choking her, or beating her up?”

Never Sometimes Often A lot

“How did you know about it?”

- I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- I heard about it afterwards.
- I heard it while it was happening.
- I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- I saw it and was near while it was happening.

Procedures

If you agree to let your child participate in this study, your child will meet with a shelter staff person once. In the session, your child will be asked to complete the Child’s Attitude toward the Mother/Father, the Parent Perception Inventory, the Conflict Tactic Scale and the Child Exposure to Domestic Violence Scale. These questionnaires ask about the child’s relationships with adults at home and the kinds of violence he or she has experienced, seen, heard, or learned about in the community, on T.V. and at home. It will probably take about 30 minutes. If you agree to let your child participate and if your child agrees to participate, following the completion of the session a staff member from your domestic violence program will give your child a \$5 gift card to Target stores for you and your family to use.

Your child will NEVER be asked to write his or her name on the questionnaires, nor the name of any family member. All of your child’s answers will be CONFIDENTIAL and will not be shared with shelter staff. Only children ages 10-16 who agree to participate and who have parental permission will be involved in the study.

A member of the research team will immediately put your child’s completed questionnaires into a sealed envelope. The envelope will then be taken to the University of Minnesota, where the questionnaires will be stored in a locked cabinet. A child will not be required to write a name. Nobody on the research and shelter team can know children’s name.

The shelter staff members are all mandated reporters. This means that if a child verbally tells a staff member that they are being neglected, physically abused or sexually abused during the survey, then the staff must report the information to the local social service agency, police department or county sheriff according to Minnesota law.

To further help us protect your child’s privacy, we have obtained a Certificate of Confidentiality from the National Institutes of Health. With this certificate, we cannot be forced to release information that may identify your child, even by a court subpoena, in any federal, state, or local civil, criminal, administrative, legislative, or other proceedings. We would like to emphasize that no identifying information about your child will be

retained. During that week of interviewing, we will use the certificate to resist any demands for information that would identify your child.

Please understand that you or your child may voluntarily release information about your child or their involvement in this research. If an insurer, employer, or other person obtains your written consent to receive research information, then we will not withhold that information. However, since we will not be keeping any identifying information, we will not have any information to release, even if we are asked to do so.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study

The questionnaires ask about sensitive topics that may stir up emotions. The shelter will have a staff member present to answer any questions your child may have and to help him or her with any difficulties that result from the topics.

There are no direct personal benefits to participating in the study.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

You, your child, or the shelter staff may withdraw permission at any time during the study by indicating this decision to any shelter staff member or a member of the research team. There will be no penalty if your child withdraws from the study. Your decision to either let your child or not let your child participate in the study will not affect the services you are receiving at _____ (name of agency/program).

Contacts and Questions

The study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Institutional Review Board at the University of Minnesota. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than a member of the research team, contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 55455; (612) 624-1650.

I am the lead researcher conducting this study. My name is Jeffrey Edleson. If you have any questions about this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision, please feel free to reach me at the Minnesota Center Against Violence and Abuse at 612-624-8795 or at jedleson@umn.edu.

You may keep this form for your records.

Sincerely,

Dr. Jeffrey L. Edleson
Professor of Social Work

Appendix F: Child Assent Form for Study

Child Assent Form for Study Sample

We are asking you if you are willing to fill out two questionnaires because we are trying to learn more about what children think about parents and family relationships at _____ (name of agency/program). We asked one of your parents or guardians if you could participate in this study. You were given permission to participate if you want to.

This study is being conducted by Jeff Edleson from the School of Social Work at the University of Minnesota, in St. Paul. If you agree to be in our study, we will ask you to fill out two questionnaires today. After you finish completing the questionnaires, a staff member will give you a \$5 gift card to Target for you and your family to use.

Each questionnaire is a little like a test because you work alone and you fill in your answers with a pencil. But unlike a test at school, there are no right or wrong answers. It will probably take you about 30 minutes to finish a questionnaire.

Some of the questions ask about sad things and events. You may be surprised or you may get upset. _____ (name of staff) from _____ (name of agency/program) will be nearby while you answer the questions in case you want to talk about these issues. You will never be asked to give your name or the names of any of your family members. This way nobody will know about anything you said on the survey.

Here are some examples of questions on the questionnaires:

A) “I feel violent toward my father/mom’s partner.”

Rarely or none of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A good part of the time	Most or all of the time
-------------------------------	-------------------------	---------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------

B) “How often does father/mom’s boyfriend/mom’s partner take away things when you misbehave (like not letting you watch TV or ride your bike or stay up late or eat dessert)?”

Never	A little	Some times	Pretty much	A lot
-------	----------	---------------	-------------	-------

C) “How often has your mom’s partner done something to hurt her body like hitting her, punching her, kicking her, choking her, or beating her up?”

Never Sometimes Often A lot

“How did you know about it?”

- I saw the outcome (like someone was hurt, something was broken, or the police came).
- I heard about it afterwards.
- I heard it while it was happening.
- I saw it from far away while it was happening.
- I saw it and was near while it was happening.

Your finished questionnaires will be put into a sealed envelope and taken to _____ (name of research center). No one will look at any of the questionnaires until everyone in this study has had a chance to fill out both questionnaires. Your answers are confidential (secret).

If you tell an adult who works at the agency new information about someone in your family hurting you, that worker might need to share this information. The worker might tell other people in the community whose job it is to protect children. This is a law to help children who are in danger of getting hurt. All the people who work at this agency need to follow this law.

We also have something called a Certificate of Confidentiality that we got for this study. This means that we won’t share your name or any other information about you that would help someone figure out who you are.

Filling out the questionnaires is totally up to you, and no one will be angry if you don’t want to do it. You can even stop filling out the questionnaires at any time if you decide you don’t want to finish them.

You can ask any questions that you have about this study. If you have a question later that you didn’t think of now, you can still ask it. Just raise your hand and someone will come over to you.

If you fill out the questionnaires, it means that you are willing to be in this study. If you don’t want to be in this study, don’t fill out the questionnaires. Remember, being in this study is up to you, and no one will be mad at you if you don’t want to participate now or later.

You may keep this form for your records.

Appendix G: Correlations among Key Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Gender	1.00																		
2. Age	.08	1.00																	
3. Income	-.16	-.02	1.00																
4. Perpetrator	-.10	.07	.03	1.00															
5. Length	-.02	-.05	-.01	-.59***	1.00														
6. Arrest	.11	.06	.08	0.24*	-.09	1.00													
7. CEDV	.35**	.03	-.28*	0.06	-.00	.45***	1.00												
8. Violence	.33**	-.01	-.25*	-.01	.18	.43***	.86***	1.00											
9. Exposure	.25*	-.00	-.20	-.00	.19	.30**	.84***	.70***	1.00										
10. Community	.01	.23*	-.11	.25*	-.20	.20	.16	.09	-.02	1.00									
11. Involve	.09	.09	-.20	.03	-.05	.28*	.66***	.48***	.32**	.11	1.00								
12. Risk	.12	.15	-.15	.05	-.22	.33**	.52***	.30**	.18	.41***	.46***	1.00							
13. Victimization	.11	.25*	-.06	.07	-.21	.23*	.39***	.24*	.14	.25*	.26*	.37***	1.00						
14. Mothering	.08	-.09	-.11	-.24*	.15	-.06	.11	.24*	.05	-.24*	.18	-.07	-.10	1.00					
15. Fathering	-.14	-.18	.17	.03	.03	-.25*	-.43***	-.37***	-.39	-.04	-.19	-.15	-.38***	.01	1.00				
16. CAM	.05	-.20	-.08	-.16	.09	-.02	.01	.13	.08***	-.22	.05	-.05	-.19	.75***	.02	1.00			
17. CAF	-.24*	-.27*	.26*	.07	-.06	-.21	-.47***	-.50***	-.43	-.06	-.21	-.15	-.37***	-.16	.83***	-.03	1.00		
18. AmbiMom	-.03	.24*	-.02	.13	-.06	-.02	-.02	-.15	-.04***	.25*	-.06	.00	.10	-.73***	.00	-.93***	.06	1.00	
19. AmbiDad	.10	-.01*	-.14	-.10	.07	.10	.05	.03	.03	.02	-.02	.05	.11	-.01	.22*	-.17	.15	.24	1.00