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Implications of Maternal Perpetrated Interparent Violence for the Behavior of Female Adolescents: A Phenomenological Study

Georgette Merlena Percy Hinds
Walden University

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Walden University
2015
Abstract

Implications of Maternal Perpetrated Interparent Violence for the Behavior of Female Adolescents: A Phenomenological Study

by

Georgette Merlena Percy Hinds

MBA, Rider University, 1998
BS, Rider College, 1988

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Human Services

Walden University
November 2015
Abstract

Interparent violence (IPV) is a global family issue. Witnessing IPV confuses children and adolescents about the parental relationship. Adolescent females often perceived fathers as strong and depend on them for safety, security, and support. It is unclear how witnessing maternal perpetrated IPV (MPIPV) affects adolescent females’ socialization and development, the perception they have of their fathers, and the meaning they ascribe to father abuse. The purpose of this phenomenological study was to contribute to the literature, provide an understanding of MPIPV implications for adolescent females’ social development, and bring more awareness to the lived experiences of witnessing MPIPV. Social learning, feminist, and attachment theories were useful as the conceptual framework and in understanding the lived experience of adolescent girls who witness their mothers abusing their fathers. Five young adult females chosen through purposeful sampling from the southwest region of Florida responded to semi-structured open-ended questions. Interpretive phenomenology was the analytic framework to sort, code, and analyze the data. Findings revealed these females’ experiences of anger and emotional stress, their concurrent juggling of coping and stress, their closeness to both parents, and their forgiveness to them despite inimical events between them. Recommendations were that human services professionals who worked with this population develop education and training programs to support both parents and adolescent females in an effort to reduce the effects of MPIPV. This training could result in a positive social change over time as negative perceptions, thoughts, and behaviors of adolescent girls change and increased awareness about the implications of MPIPV in the home occurs.
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Dedication

First, I would like to acknowledge God leading in my life. He is an amazing and an awesome God. Second, my husband Dennis has been a source of strength and support to me during these past four and a half years. Accomplishing this project would not be possible without your love, understanding, and support. Thank you, dear!

This huge undertaking is dedicated to my parents, Ira and Irene Percy, posthumously, for instilling within me the ideals of hard work and determination. To my brothers and my sisters, all of you are all deserving and worthy of this dedication. To my children and grandchildren, may you never experience violence in your home; but if you do, may you always find a way to overcome and escape it.

Finally, thanks to my Pastor, Dr. Newton Hoilette and his wife Elaine, who provided encouragement and prayed for me along the way; to my church family, Lehigh SDA, thanks for your prayers. To my close friends and Ludo partners who understood when I could not play with them because I had an assignment to complete. Thank you for your love and support. Because of you all, my life will never be the same.
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Table of Contents

Abstract ................................................................................................................................ i
Abstract .............................................................................................................................. iii
Implications of Maternal Perpetrated Interparent Violence for the Behavior of Female Adolescents: A Phenomenological Study ................................................. iv
Table of Contents ................................................................................................................. i
List of Tables .................................................................................................................... vii
List of Figures .................................................................................................................. viii
Chapter 1: Introduction ........................................................................................................1
  Background ....................................................................................................................3
  Problem Statement .........................................................................................................6
  Purpose of the Study ......................................................................................................6
  Research Questions ........................................................................................................6
  Theoretical Foundation ..................................................................................................7
  Nature of the Study ........................................................................................................8
  Operational Definitions ...............................................................................................9
  Assumptions and Limitations ......................................................................................10
  Scope and Delimitation ...............................................................................................11
  Significance of the Study ............................................................................................11
  Social Significance ......................................................................................................12
  Summary ......................................................................................................................13
Chapter 2: Literature Review .............................................................................................15
Chapter 4: Results:.............................................................................................................93

Participants........................................................................................................................................... 93

Analyzing the Data ...........................................................................................................................................94

Formulating Themes and Answering Research Questions ...........................................................................96

Research Question ........................................................................................................................................98

Theme 1: Witnessing MPIPV ........................................................................................................................98

Research Sub-Question #1 .....................................................................................................................................99

Theme 2: Reacting to MPIPV ........................................................................................................................99

Research Sub-Question #2 .....................................................................................................................................102

Theme 3: Evaluating Female Control .............................................................................................................. 103

Theme 4: Being Unaware and Uninvolved ....................................................................................................... 104

Theme 5: Coping and Dealing with MPIPV .................................................................................................... 105

Research Sub-Question #3 .....................................................................................................................................106

Theme 6: Understanding Parental Dynamics .................................................................................................. 107

Theme 7: Showing Respect and Admiration ................................................................................................... 108

Theme 8: Feeling Unsafe, and Uncertain .......................................................................................................... 109

Theme 9: Lack of Trust and Confidence in Father .......................................................................................... 110

Theme 10: Managing Interpersonal Communication ..................................................................................... 110

Research Sub-Question #4 .....................................................................................................................................111

Theme 11: Identifying Social Problems ............................................................................................................. 112

Theme 12: Making Sense of MPIPV .................................................................................................................. 113

Trustworthiness..................................................................................................................................................115
Appendix B: Recruitment Protocol ..................................................................................179
Appendix C: Interview Guide ..........................................................................................180
Appendix D: Interview Protocol and Probe Questions ....................................................181
Appendix E - Coding Strategy .........................................................................................183
Appendix F: Themes and Participants Responses ...........................................................186
List of Tables

Table 1. Participants’ Demographic Data...............................................101

Table 2. Clustered Themes........................................................................108
List of Figures

Figure 1. Literature Search Strategy ..................................................................................21
Figure 2. Hermeneutic Circle...........................................................................................105
Figure 3. Steps in Interpretative Phenomenology Analysis.............................................106
Figure 4. Research Questions and Themes.......................................................................110
Chapter 1: Introduction

Interparent violence (IPV), a subcategory of intimate partner violence, is a social and health issue that affects the world’s population irrespective of social status, culture, religion, income level, race or gender (Bureau of Justice Statistics [BJS], 2011; Catalano, 2012; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2012). The phenomenon of IPV is extensive in its consequences, making the abuse complex in nature. Reports from numerous locations around the world show the prevalence of IPV against women in the home (Chang, Shen, & Takeuchi, 2009; Jankey, Prospero, & Fawton, 2011; Kumar, 2012). Occurrences of abuse of men in the home, from around the world are evident, though not as widespread as women. Researchers estimate that one out of three men sustains abuse by women, but only one in nine may report the event (Black et al., 2011; Hoff, 2010; Cook, 2009; Douglas & Hines, 2011).

Understanding IPV is critical for policy makers, program planners and developers, and representatives of nongovernmental and community-based organizations working in the area of violence prevention. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), publication of educational materials helps to prevent violence by providing scientifically credible strategies, conceived and implemented by entities such as the WHO in relation to causes of IPV, at the levels of the individual, family, community, and society (WHO, 2013).

In this study I sought to understand the implications of maternal perpetrated IPV (MPIPV) on the lives of adolescent daughters who witnessed the event(s). I am hoping to use the results to raise an awareness of the phenomenon of MPIPV and its effects on the
lives of adolescent females. This new knowledge could possibly explain how to reduce exposure to MPIPV in the home for children and adolescents. When parents learn about and understand the developmental harm that their children may experience from witnessing violence in the home, they may make an effort to stop fighting and thus remove any negative perception daughters may have of their fathers. New information gained from this research may inform helping professionals of ways to provide education and training that will bring improvement and change to the quality of life for troubled teen girls and their families. My hope is that their mental health will improve, enabling them to become contributing members of society.

Helping professionals may use the findings from this study to create a platform on which education and training could be available for girls in terms of a support system. Education and training enable girls to deal with their feelings and make better decisions, as they move from adolescence into young adulthood. They learn how to deal with stressful situations and avoid negative behaviors, such as running away (NCSL, 2012). By understanding how MPIPV girls feel, how it affects their perceptions about their fathers, teenaged girls can better deal with social issues of self-awareness and self-esteem.

Psychologists and social workers may use findings from this study to develop new interventions or improve on existing educational training programs. The implementation of new or enhanced programs could help to change false perceptions of adolescent females, such as perceiving father as weak. Developing positive attitudes and perceptions towards fathers may, and making better decisions may result in positive social change over time.
This chapter contains a brief background of IPV and research on the often dominant role of women in spousal abuse. The chapter also includes the study’s problem statement, purpose, research questions, definitions of pertinent terminology, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations.

**Background**

According to Straus and Gelles (1986), during the years 1970-1975, every year, more than two million individuals suffered abuse from IPV. Since that time, legislative policies such as the Violence against Women Act (VAWA) have aided in the prosecution of perpetrators of violence against women by holding offenders accountable for their actions, and by providing programs with services for the victims of such violence (VAWA, 2013). During subsequent years, legislation has added other groups, such as sexual minorities and men, to receive protection under VAWA.

IPV, once deemed a private matter between couples, is now widely understood by researchers to affect children and adolescents (Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe, & Stuart, 2013; Mandal & Hindin, 2013). Although statistics show that violence has declined over recent years, they also show that IPV continues to be a social and a health problem in families (Catalano, 2012; Truman, 2011; VAWA, 2013). In 2012, the BJS and the CDC reported that ongoing physical violence existed in two of three marriages in the United States. These agencies also reported that women were just as aggressive as men were in marital relationships in terms of fighting (Hines & Douglas, 2012). When children and adolescents observed violence in the home, they, too, may potentially become violent later in life (Hines & Douglas, 2009; Mandal & Hindin, 2013).
To support the findings that women were aggressive as men in marital relationships, a brief review of the literature related to female aggression in IPV follows. Hines and Douglas (2009, 2012), Arehart-Treichel (2007), Carmo, Grams, and Magalhaes (2011), and Henning and Holford (2006) contended that females were perpetrators of IPV equal to males, while Eckhardt et al. (2012) and Koverola and Murtaugh (2006) suggested that IPV was mostly perpetrated by men against women. Catalano (2012) and Hines and Douglas (2010) addressed the pervasiveness of IPV in the United States. They contended that while the evidence about the abuse of males in the home did not seem to be as significant and as well documented, researchers should know and understand that IPV on males was more prevalent than reports previously showed. Hines and Douglas (2011) also noted that males who sought help often carried the label of violence resistant (p. 17).

The incidence of IPV between women and men was about 3:1 annually, as noted by Schuler (2010) and the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2013). According to these studies, for every three women hurt, one man is hurt. Further, Gover (2012) found that women were likely to be victims, as well as offenders, of IPV. In addition, researchers (McNeely, Cook, & Torres, 2009) found that many fathers suffered abuse in silence and did not report the offense for fear of becoming belittled, laughed at, embarrassed, or ostracized by others.

Understanding the phenomenon of MPIPV is critical to practitioners in their daily work with fathers and daughter who seek their care. Some researchers (e.g., Allgood, Beckert, & Peterson, 2012) suggested that how a teenaged girl perceived her father might
have implications for her socialization and development. It was unclear in the literature how the witnessing of paternal abuse in the home affected an adolescent daughter’s perception of her father, her self-esteem, and her social development. This area of interparent violence, previously under searched, required exploring. Additionally, the literature was missing explanations from female adolescents regarding how MPIPV affected them. Thus I designed and implemented this phenomenological qualitative study to help close the existing gap in the literature.

My study was necessary because this area of IPV was under-researched. Of the studies reviewed, none showed how teenaged girls expressed in their own words, the implications of maternal perpetrated IPV on their lives. The insights about father abuse gained from the findings in this study may contribute to new knowledge in the literature. Moreover, these findings could be useful to researchers and professional counselors to develop educational and training programs to help change negative perceptions, thoughts, and behaviors of adolescent girls, in addition to raising more awareness about the implications of MPIPV in the home.

Massetti et al. (2011) noted that in the parental role, affirmation from fathers also affected the behavior of adolescent girls. Furthermore, witnessing father abuse could present a problem and have implications for adolescent girls who perceive their father as weak and not able to protect them. In the existing literature, quantitative studies about adolescents (boys and girls) and parental conflicts in general were more prevalent than qualitative studies. Therefore, this current study is a qualitative study specifically about adolescent girls who witness maternal perpetrated IPV. I used social learning theory and
attachment theory to help provide an explanation of the phenomenon of IPV as it related to adolescent girls’ behavior. I explain these theories further in Chapter 2.

**Problem Statement**

Adolescent girls between the ages of 12 and 19 appear to mentally and physically mature more rapidly than adolescent boys. This accelerated maturation sometimes caused confusion for girls regarding the changes taking place in their physical development, as well as in their mental attitude (Allgood, Beckert, & Peterson, 2012). Unclear in the literature was how witnessing father abuse affected adolescent girls’ development and socialization during this sensitive period of life. The problem is that adolescent females who witness their mother abusing their father might perceive their father as a weakling and not capable of protecting them (Allen & Daly, 2007; Grohol, 2012). Also, negative perceptions of father may lead to many personal and social ills, such as depression, lack of self-esteem, a poor daughter/father relationship, poor mental health and stress, blaming, and distrust in a future partner (Tajima, Herrenkohl, Moylan, & Derr, 2011).

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this phenomenological study of IPV was to examine and understand the lived experiences of, and the meanings adolescent girls ascribed to MPIPV. I also sought to understand their perceptions of and attitudes toward their fathers.

**Research Questions**

According to Moustakas (1994), researchers need to understand that in a phenomenological research study, the questions are not measures of quantitative issues
and cannot verify causal interactions. Instead, the main purpose or objective of a phenomenological research question is to explore the complexities of human experiences described through language. Bearing these ideas in mind, the central or overarching research question for this study was: What were the lived experiences of adolescent girls who witnessed their mothers abusing their fathers? Other secondary research questions were related to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers. Specifically

1. What factors, activities, actions, and/or reactions shaped their experiences?
2. How did these experiences affect their feeling about themselves?
3. How did these experiences affect their relationships with both parents?
4. How did these experiences affect their relationships outside the home?

Only the participants could answer these ontological questions.

**Theoretical Foundation**

Social learning theory (SLT), feminist theory, and attachment theory were theoretical frameworks to study the phenomenon of IPV. SLT concepts involved individuals learning through modeling, paying attention to their surroundings, and observing the behaviors, attitudes, and outcomes of other individuals’ behaviors (Bandura, 1977). According to the theory, individuals committed the behaviors to memory, and sometime in the future they reproduced or acted out those behaviors. Such behaviors could be negative or positive. Social learning theory also involved human behavior in terms of ongoing mutual interaction between behavioral, cognitive, and environmental influences (Bandura, 1977; Bell & Naugle, 2008; Fitton, 2012).
Feminist theory has many viewpoints and gives voice to women where previously they had none (Lord, Greiter, & Tursunovic, n.d). One perspective, radical feminism, supports the feminist viewpoint that women should have equal economic, social, and political power with men (Lord et al., n.d). Radical feminism further holds that women’s oppression is the most widespread, deeply rooted type of oppression and served as a conceptual model for understanding all other forms of oppression (Lord et al., n.d). The basis of attachment theory is the premise that humans formed emotional bonds and tended to feel safe and secure when close to certain individuals (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2009; Fitton, 2012). Further in-depth discussions about these theories are in Chapters 2 and 5.

**Nature of the Study**

This study had an interpretative phenomenological method of qualitative research. According to Creswell (2013), interpretative phenomenology is a qualitative method originated in the interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivist approaches depended on naturalistic methods of research, such as face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, other telephone communications, journal records, observations, and the analysis of existing documents, videos and pictures. All these methods were appropriate to achieve in-depth understanding of a phenomenon. Researchers held that these methods assured adequate communication between the researcher and participants (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005: Maxwell, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1985).

In this study, participants were late adolescent/young adult females who witnessed MPIPV. The main sources of data collection were open-ended semi-structured
interview questions addressed to study participants, and journal notes kept by me throughout the study period. Recruitment of participants was from local public libraries bulletin boards, public bulletin boards, schools, and housing projects around the southwest region of Florida.

**Operational Definitions**

Operational definitions for terms used throughout this study appear below. They emerged as I read the literature, and I have cited them accordingly.

- **Abuse**: A range of harmful behaviors, including physical violence that caused hurt, such as scratching, kicking, hitting, biting, stabbing, or use of demeaning words (BJS, 2011).
- **Late adolescent/young adult**: Young women age 18 and above (WHO, 2015).
- **Domestic violence**: A pattern of physical behaviors depicting or reflecting one’s individual need to control the other person (Cahn, 2006; Wright, 2009).
- **Father abuse**: A form of abuse causing physical or emotional harm to fathers who refused to fight back or report the abuse to the authorities (Cook & Hodo, 2013).
- **Help seeking**: Behaviors to gain assistance from formal sources of support, such as the criminal-justice system or human service agencies (Hines & Douglas, 2011).
- **Interparent/intimate partner violence (IPV)**: An abusive situation occurring between individuals in a connected and endearing relationship. Violence included physical or sexual threats causing fear and emotional stress. A physical
expression of IPV ranges from a simple slap or push to a fight or beating between parents resulting in injury (National Institute of Justice, 2012; CDC, 2011). In this study, MPIPV was synonymous with interparental, parental, father abuse, and maternal aggression.

- *MPIPV*: Interparent violence (IPV) perpetrated by mother. Also referred to as paternal or father abuse.
- *Perpetrator*: One who commits violence or other abusive acts against another in order to have control (Gover, 2012).

**Assumptions and Limitations**

A primary assumption of this study was that some girls developed their self-esteem from their fathers and depended on them for support and safety. In addition, a positive father daughter relationship might be attainable from appropriate socialization of adolescent daughters. A second assumption was that participants provided their worldviews and perspectives in their responses to interview questions and articulated their understandings of the meaning of father abuse based on their experiences. Finally, interpretative phenomenology (IP) was the most appropriate methodology suitable for use in this study because interpretative phenomenological analyses (IPA) allowed the researcher to demonstrate the simple yet complex methodological attention that IPA could offer as a research tool for understanding issues from the participants’ perspectives (Biggerstaff, & Thompson, 2008; Davidsen, 2013).

The first limitation in this study is that some of the data may be subjective in nature because as the researcher, I was the key instrument in collecting, coding, and
analyzing the data (Saldana, 2009). Second, interference may have occurred in data interpretation because I could not assure total bracketing (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2013). Third, I could not confirm with certainty that all participants accurately described their experiences with IPV. Some memory issues might hinder effective articulation of the problem.

**Scope and Delimitation**

The first delimitation to this study was the small sample size of five participants (Davidsen, 2013). Although the design of the study included any adolescent girl who met the inclusion criteria, only African American adolescent females who witnessed MPIPV participated in this study. A future study for adolescents in all ethnic groups, as well as in African American adolescent males who witnessed MPIPV, might be the next step. Findings from this study were not generalizable because the intent was to raise awareness of, and bring understanding to the lived experiences of specific individuals (Moustakas, 1994)

**Significance of the Study**

This project was worthwhile and unique because (a) no similar study appeared in the literature, and (b) The National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL, 2013) reported an increase in the number of adolescent girls leaving home because of parental violence. Girls often face other abuse and challenges ending up in shelters, group homes, halfway houses, on the street, or in jail after they run away from home. According to the NCSL report, girls were the fastest growing segment of the juvenile justice system
helping girls learn to cope might change how they turn out in the future (Robinson & Segal, 2013).

Due to a lack of research in this underrepresented population, female adolescent voices have remained silent. According to Blakemore (2013), adolescence is a sensitive period in life and the treatment adolescents receive might affect their socialization and their future decision making processes. Adolescence is also a time when unhealthy relationships can form. Succumbing to unhealthy behaviors might lead to a lifetime of problems if not mitigated. A positive change would benefit the criminal justice, welfare, and healthcare systems, schools, and the economy (NCSL, 2013).

Social Significance

Nelson and Prilleltensky (2010) described social change as the transformation of the status quo at the micro, meso, and macro levels of society. Transformation at the micro level results in the amelioration of the individual’s or family’s current need, while transformation at the mezzo and macro levels results in amelioration of community and societal needs. At each level, raising awareness about a phenomenon, bringing resolution to issues, and improving lifestyles could benefit individuals, families, and communities by allowing transformation to occur over time.

As noted above, MPIPV is a multi-faceted, complicated problem, and a public health issue (CDC, 2012). Preventing, reducing or eradicating the effects of MPIPV from the lives of adolescent females is necessary at the macro societal level through education and the development of interventions and educational training programs to meet the needs of families and the community. Education could help resolve perception issues of
adolescent girls towards their fathers. Through education, adolescent girls might learn that they are not alone in their situation and thereby reduce the tendency to self-blame. Education could provide coping skills to help reduce stress and strategies to gain a sense of self-worth and improve lives.

I envisioned my findings from this research as contributing to a greater and deeper understanding of MPIPV with implications for adolescent females. With this understanding, counseling professionals and other scholar practitioners could integrate into their practices a more robust awareness of the personal, relational, and community factors related to the well-being and liberation of adolescent females. These professionals could redesign or develop educational programs and tools with increased awareness and understanding to the issue of father abuse, in turn breaking the cycle of violence and providing knowledge to adolescent girls that will foster transformational social change over time. This study also makes an important contribution to the small but growing body of literature on the father/adolescent daughter relationship. I hope that in the near future, findings will be available in scholarly publications and disseminated at professional conferences.

**Summary**

Anyone experiencing IPV needs to know and understand that IPV is universal and not unique to them (Cahn, 2006). Thus, perpetrators need to recognize that violence is illegal in any form. This phenomenological study could provide understanding of how female adolescents give meaning to witnessing IPV.
Chapter 1 provided an overview of IPV, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the theoretical frameworks were basic to developing brief definitions, assumptions and limitations, scope and delimitations, and significance of the study. Chapter 2, the literature review, has more detailed background on IPV’s history, adolescents’ witnessing of MPIPV, adolescents’ development, and the father/daughter relationship. In this chapter I also discuss female dominance in IPV, men’s underreporting of IPV, the gap in the literature, and the theories used in this study. Chapter 3 includes the methodology, the research design, and the recruitment methods employed in the study, including ethical considerations and data analysis. Chapter 4 involves the findings from this study, while Chapter 5 is a discussion of the findings, recommendations for future research, and implications for social change.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a public health concern for families around the world (Catalano, 2012; CDC, 2012; Langenderfer, 2013; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Every year in the United States, over 834,000 men and 1.5 million women experienced assaults by an intimate partner (National Coalition against Domestic Violence, 2012). As cited by the CDC, the Bureau of Justice Statistics reported that in 2011, intimate partner abuse was the cause of approximately 2,340 deaths. Seventy percent were females and 30% males (CDC, 2012). The purpose of this phenomenological research study was to examine how female adolescents perceive, understand, and give meaning to father abuse.

This chapter includes a brief history of IPV and the effects of witnessing IPV on children and adolescents. The chapter also contains a synthesis of research studies supporting the extensive use of violence by women against men, and the underreporting of violence sustained by men from their partners or wives. A discussion of adolescent development and the father/adolescent daughter relationship in terms of socialization and development follows. The chapter also includes an exploration of existing theoretical frameworks providing a frame for understanding IPV in terms of (a) the dominance of females in IPV, (b) generalized human behavior, and (c) adolescent attachment in parental relationships. The chapter ends with a discussion of the methodology and scope of this study, an identified gap, and a summary.
Literature Search Strategy

Although a plethora of literature exists concerning the effects of IPV on children and adolescents in general, the literature is sparse in terms of providing qualitative studies that explain the implications of IPV for adolescent girls who may have witnessed mothers abusing fathers. A notable lack of empirical studies existed of publications within the past five years addressing the father/daughter relationship in terms of a daughter’s socialization, development, and perception of her father. In addition, few empirical studies focused on men underreporting father abuse, which may have implications for girls’ social development. Accordingly, I have provided some articles, which may be older than five years, to support the review. Figure 1 is a visual representation of the themes I used for the literature search.

Figure 1. Literature search strategy
**Historical Perspective on IPV**

Regardless of demographics, IPV constitutes a major public health and social issue around the globe (Ali & Naylor, 2013: Catalano, 2012; CDC, 2012) and also the demonstration of abusive behaviors and violence between intimate partners. Once considered only as violence against women committed by men, the phenomenon first appeared as “wife beating” (Ali & Naylor, 2013, p. 611) in the 1856 divorce reform campaign in the United Kingdom. Since that time, domestic violence (DV) has become the popular term for violence between intimate partners in the home.

IPV has always been prevalent in American homes (BJS, 2012; CDC, 1012; Straus & Gelles, 1986, 1990). It was not until the 1970s that acknowledgement and disclosure of the abuse, became more prevalent and more widely disseminated (Straus & Gelles, 1990). Some terms to address this change included: *interparent violence*, *intimate partner violence, domestic abuse, spousal abuse, wife battering, wife abuse, dating violence, family violence, and courtship violence*.

The World Health Organization broadened the definition of IPV to include both men and women as perpetrators, while framing elder abuse and child abuse as types of violence distinct from IPV (Ali & Naylor, 2013). In this study, the term MPIPV referred to interparent violence perpetrated by mother. The following sections have more detail on the potential consequences for adolescents witnessing IPV, female dominance in IPV, and men’s underreporting of the abuse.
Witnessing of IPV by Children and Adolescents

According to Owen, Thompson, Shaffer, Jackson, and Kaslow (2009), witnessing IPV in the home might cause disruption of children’s appropriate emotional development and social competencies. A number of researchers supported the idea that adolescents and children exposed to violence may be at an increased risk of becoming violent in later years (Cahn, 2008; Draucker, Martsolf, & Stephenson, 2012; Vatnar & Bjorkly, 2011). The results of these studies also were that children might fail to learn how to respond empathetically to others and develop a secure attachment to parents, becoming confused in their perception of family unity. The following paragraphs are a description of additional factors that may occur because a child or adolescent witnesses IPV. These factors included: internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems, depression, lack of parenting qualities and peer support, disengagement, children’s paradox and generational transfer.

As with any other abuse, adolescent exposure to maternal IPV can lead to both long and short term consequences of internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems both during the adolescence years and later into the young adult and even senior years (Chen, Jacobs, & Rovi, 2013). Consequently, a large body of existing literature supports the connection between IPV exposure and risk of externalizing symptoms. Children who remain with the batterer parent are at risk of internalizing problems, as the continuing violence encourages them to believe that violence is an acceptable way to resolve problems. Some children and adolescents who witness IPV accept violence as part of a normal relationship (Camacho, Ehrensaft, & Cohen, 2012; Davies, Cicchetti, & Martin,
Although the effects of IPV on children and adolescents are well studied, many studies fail to show the implications for mental health issues, such as depression. Depression often affects children and adolescents who witness IPV (Howell, 2011; Voisin & Hong, 2013). When compared to other children and adolescents who may or may not have witnessed violence, adolescent girls who witnessed MPIPV may be prone to depression. They may also be prone to anger, ill perception, low self-esteem, negative attitudes, poor socialization, ambiguity, and violence (Theran, 2010).

Research findings with young adults confirm that exposure to IPV is associated with increased likelihood of depression and perpetration of IPV in dating relationships. Women exposed to IPV reported more violence and antisocial behavior versus women not exposed to IPV (Chen, Jacobs, & Rovi, 2013; Deutsch, Crockett, Wolff, & Russell, 2012; Draucker, Martsolf, & Stephenson, 2012; Kelly & Anderson, 2012; Mounts, 2011; Rohde, Beavers, Stice, & O’Neil, 2009; Russell, Springer, & Greenfield, 2010; Siegel, 2013).

Parenting qualities and support from peers are factors that affect children and adolescents who witnessed IPV. Tajima, Herrenkohl, Moylan, and Derr (2011) investigated parenting qualities and adolescent peer support as future moderators of the effects of childhood exposure to IPV. The researchers conducted a longitudinal study of 416 participants from the community. The participants included parents and adolescents who experienced IPV.
On issues identified, like teen pregnancy, running away from home, dropping out of school, depression, victimization and violence, parental moderators, were warmth, respect, acceptance, and control. Peer moderators provided support, trust, communication, and friendship. After controlling for child abuse, early childhood behavior, and demographic factors such as race, age, and gender, Tajima et al. (2011) found that some parenting factors and peer support measures might help to subdue the variable adverse effects of IPV exposure on adolescents. They found that lack of parental support—not the support of peers—predicted adolescents’ future depression, suggesting that parental support was more important with regard to risk of depression especially among girls during adolescent development.

Tajima et al. (2011) also found no moderating effects for the outcomes of violence perpetration and victimization for adolescents. Peer trust and parental acceptance were critical targets for preventive intervention, with the greatest attention to supporting youth relative to their IPV experiences. Targeted interventions with protective influences, such as training for both parents and peers, might reduce the impact of IPV during adolescence. Parents could learn through shelter or community-based programs to help their children cope with adverse effects of witnessing IPV. Youth exposed to IPV might benefit from counseling to strengthen their peer relationships, and as a protective factor to help reduce serious and consequential actions, such as running away from home, dropping out of high school, and becoming depressed in their adolescent years.

As they move into adulthood, adolescents sometimes use disengagement from parents as a form of coping with having witnessed IPV (Brown, Oudekerk, Szwedo, &
Allen, 2013). Disengagement could mean mentally disconnecting from parents or tuning them out and not listening to them. Additionally, adolescents sometimes get involved in abusing drugs, resisting parental control, and refusing to communicate with parents. In a prospective study involving 184 youth participants, Brown et al. (2013) examined mother-perpetrated and father-perpetrated partner aggression. They sought to find out whether IPV precedes disengagement from parents by adolescents approaching adulthood.

In their data analysis, specific mediating factors included an ability to develop and maintain close friendships. Exposure to IPV in the adolescent years predicted reliance on disengagement coping eight years later. Making friends and maintaining friendships could serve as a buffer against disengagement coping. An interesting finding was that interparent aggression whether mother-perpetrated or father-perpetrated did not affect close friendships. The implication was that good friends developed independently might help adolescents deal with interparent aggression (Brown et al., 2013).

Children’s paradox is another interesting phenomenon in the lived experience of children who witnessed IPV. The presence of IPV in the home is often paradoxical for children. Children may be loyal to one or both parents, yet feel fearful because of the violence (Cahn, 2008; Shin, Hong, Yoon, & Espelage, 2013). When exposed to DV, children were likely to be disobedient at home, with adolescents showing high rates of negative relational and interpersonal problems with family members, in particular, conflicts with their parents. Some researchers (Cahn, 2008; Shin et al. 2013; Davies, Manning, & Cicchetti, 2012; Holmes, 2013) believed that boys were likely to be abusers
in adulthood while girls were likely to tolerate the abuse when they experienced it in adulthood.

Generational transfer of violence may occur when adolescents witness IPV. For instance, Halper, Spriggs, Martin, and Kupper (2009) explained that many studies focused on victimization, but few considered the risk factors for generational transfer when it comes to IPV. The central theme for Halper et al. was on understanding the possible transfer of violence from one generation to the next, where perpetration of violence in adulthood occurred by witnessing or experiencing IPV abuse during childhood. Perpetration of IPV to the next generation may be associated with poor parenting in childhood, substance abuse, mental illness, and low socioeconomic status. The SLT may account for the intergenerational transfer of IPV among adolescents as they enter adulthood.

**Female Dominance or Maternal Aggression in IPV**

Research regarding the increase of IPV against men committed by women has been controversial. In general, a segment of society believed IPV was a phenomenon, giving men dominance over women, and controlled by the patriarchal structure of society. The other segment does not agree with this belief (Douglas & Hines, 2011). Past beliefs about the nature of women’s aggression towards men gave the impression that the issue was a less serious problem than that of men and perhaps deserved less attention. Many people considered IPV as inconsequential and a common couple bilateral violence, where women acted in self-defense.
Researchers (e.g., Dutton & White, 2013) showed that violence within parental relationships is most often bidirectional, but women committed IPV against non-violent male partners more often than male partners do against non-violent female partners. Additionally, when violence was seemingly unidirectional, that is, mainly performed by only one of the parents, females were somewhat more likely to be initiators (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2009; White & Dutton, 2013).

In a 1995 study (as cited by Hines & Douglas, 2011), Johnson tried to clarify the controversy that women are the main initiators of IPV. Johnson’s study used intimate terrorism (IT) to mean IPV caused by a patriarchal system of control, initiated almost exclusively by men. Subsequent to these findings, Williams, Ghandour, and Kub (2008) presented evidence to suggest that women and girls significantly perpetrated violence against their male partners. Their review of 62 empirical studies covered a ten-year period (1996-2006). The purpose of the review was to determine the prevalence of female-perpetrated partner violence across distinct populations of adolescents, college students, and adults over time. The researchers examined physical, emotional, and/or sexual violence perpetrated by heterosexual females in intimate relationships. In order to avoid the discrepancies usually found in partner reports, the researchers used only female reports of perpetration to make the reported rates across studies comparable.

The findings from the review showed that female-perpetrated violence was common among adolescents, college students, and adults. Female perpetration of emotional violence was most prevalent followed by physical and sexual violence. Williams et al. (as cited by Hines & Douglas, 2011) found that prevalence rates varied
widely within each population probably because of the use of different sampling (purposive or convenience) and research methods (definition of IPV, types of instruments, length of relationships). Because of a lack of longitudinal studies, a clear picture of the developmental patterns of IPV throughout the female lifespan was difficult to obtain. The researchers recommended including content on female perpetration and sex-specific interventions in any prevention effort aimed at eliminating IPV.

In a study reviewing the available literature on female dominance in partner violence, Schuler (2010) noted that annually in the United States, for every 1000 persons who experienced IPV, 3.8 of them were women, and 1.3 were men. Schuler argued that the Bureau of Criminal Justice had not done significant empirical research on the subject of female-perpetrated IPV; therefore, a need existed for more research in this area. Schuler indicated that other areas, such as psychology, social work, nursing and counseling, started the conversation about IPV against men.

Other researchers, such as Chang, Shen, and Takeuchi (2009), conducted a study using a sample consisting of 1470 individuals (about 47% men, and 53% women) of different Asian ethnic groups, who responded to items on the Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS). The CTS is an instrument that researchers used to measure IPV in violent relationships. Findings showed 8.48% of women and 5.02% of men committed minor violence on their partners and that women perpetuated more severe violence than men did (approximately 1.54% women vs .71% men).

Using subjects from the Oregon Youth and Couples longitudinal Study, researchers, Capaldi, Kim, and Shortt (2007) examined young couples’ physical
aggression towards each other. Physical aggression in this study meant to push, grab, shove, punch, bite or burn the other, and threaten with knife or gun. The researchers assessed the couples’ behavior towards each other four times over a nine-year period between adolescence and young adulthood. Findings were that at each time point, young women initiated physical violence more frequently than young men did.

During early adolescence, women initiated physical violence 25% of the time versus men initiating violence 24% of the time (Capaldi et al., 2007). During late adolescence, women initiated violence 25% of the time versus men initiating violence 20% of the time. In young adulthood, the rate of initiation of physical violence by women was at least two times higher than initiation by men. The results of this study confirmed that women tended to initiate physical aggression as often as or more often than men.

In a qualitative study, Conradi, Geffner, Hamberger, and Lawson (2009) focused on women classified as perpetrators of violence in their intimate relationships to find out the reasons for their aggressive behavior. Ten women took part in a semi-structured interview and completed five written instruments to evaluate the causes for their aggression. Included in the testing were gender role identification, generational and intergenerational transmission of violence, sociocultural factors, and a history of trauma. Major themes emerging from the data included substance abuse, a history of violence across situations and relationships, and a history of victimization and trauma as causes for female aggression.

Ross and Babcock (2009) conducted a study to evaluate the Johnson (2001) typology to determine whether women, as well as men, engaged in intimate terrorism.
Intimate terrorism is violence between intimate partners. Examined were the frequency of perpetration, severity of control and abusive behaviors of both partners during a conflict discussion. No researchers had examined the aversive behaviors of female perpetrators during a conflict discussion with their partners.

From a community sample of 281 violent couples, the researchers measured the relationship to partner injury and observed hostile behavior toward one’s partner (Ross & Babcock, 2009). During the experiment, abusive husbands self-reported more aversive behaviors and tended to be more belligerent, contemptuous, and domineering, than husbands who were non-violent. Abusive wives self-reported their involvement in control tactics, hostile behaviors, and violent acts just as severe as the violence perpetrated by their husbands. Twelve percent of the wives admitted being the sole aggressor in the conflict. The researchers concluded that both genders might benefit from treatment to reduce control and violence.

Graham-Kevan (2009) published results from a study in the Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment, and Trauma, regarding the topic of female violence in intimate relationships with men. The results showed that both women and men appeared to give many reasons for using IPV including anger, jealousy, control, and lack of commitment from a partner. Their recommendations were that females cease using self-defense as the only reason for perpetrating violence, even in those situations where they are highly victimized. Furthermore, despite the evidence available, the fact that self-defensive claims still existed was cause for concern.
Further, in a Polish study consisting of 100 women and 100 men, Doroszewicz and Forbes (2008) utilized the revised conflict tactics scale to study dating aggression and sexual coercion in college students. The researchers measured rates of physical and psychological aggression, injury, and sexual coercion for men and women. They compared the data with preliminary data from 31 universities and 16 countries from the International Dating Violence Study by Straus (2004). The results showed that rates were high for physical aggression (36%), psychological aggression (77%), and sexual coercion (42%) for men, and physical aggression (48%), psychological aggression (89%), and sexual coercion (40%) for women. In relation to the IDVS samples, Polish men and women experienced high levels of physical aggression and sexual coercion. Women had higher levels of causing injury to their partner and using threats or actual physical force. Their conclusion was that females were more aggressive than males.

In a review article, Davis (2010) investigated domestic violence related deaths and suicide related deaths in a number of states. After reviewing published articles and statistics from various Councils on Domestic violence, Departments of Health, and websites reporting on DV fatalities, Davis concluded that to understand the tragic impact and broad scope of DV, further research is required on DV related suicides. In terms of violence related deaths, Davis suggested that the number of DV related deaths is greater for males than for females. Kumar (2012) examined men as victims of violence as a function of changing gender roles and power relationships in India. Of the females, 25.1% perpetrated violence experienced by Indian men, as physical aggression.
To find out the motivations behind heterosexual women’s involvement in physical IPV at such an alarming rate, Blair-Merritt et al. (2010) reviewed 144 articles from a search of 4000 database responses. Twenty-three of the 144 potentially eligible articles met the inclusion criteria, requiring that previous studies be a part of the primary data collection or current data set analysis, written in English, and published in a peer reviewed journal. Additionally, study participants had to be predominantly heterosexual and at least 22 years old. Approximately two-thirds of the participants enrolled in the studies were from shelters, courts, and batterers treatment programs.

The assessment of the women’s motivations was mainly through use of questionnaires created by authors or through interviews. Anger and not getting a spouse’s attention emerged as the main themes. Retaliation and self-defense were not pervasive motivators. Distinguishing self-defense and retaliation presented some difficulty in some studies because the researcher grouped them as one motivator.

Blair-Merritt et al. (2010) reported that women often used IPV in response to their partner’s aggression, which could insinuate either self-defense or retaliation. The researchers also reported that their study did not list self-defense as motivation, but assumed that women may or may not perceive self-defense actions and retaliation as separate motivators. Control emerged, but was not determined a primary motivator. Prevention and treatment programs for IPV need to find new ways of addressing anger in relationships, because women often get angry and feel powerless when ignored by their partners. They sometimes suppressed the anger, which generally, did not dissipate, and might subsequently cause overt aggression.
Research on female aggression is gaining attention, even though at a slow pace (English et al., 2009). However, a growing body of work includes children and adolescents witnessing IPV perpetrated by females. In a group of studies related to IPV, Fiebert (2012) provided evidence of female dominance in perpetrating violence in interpartner relationships. A summary of 286 scholarly investigations, of which 221 were empirical studies and 65 reviews and/or analyses, found that researchers across the globe demonstrated that females were physically aggressive, equally aggressive, or, more aggressive than males in their relationships with male partners or spouses.

The role of maternal IPV dominance required more studies to allow for a better understanding of its implication for children and adolescents who may witness the phenomenon. The aim of the current dissertation study was to contribute knowledge in this area of research. The next section of this review discusses the underreporting of maternal perpetrated IPV by men who experienced the abuse.

**Male Underreporting of IPV**

Research from the 1970s suggested that men, as well as women, sustained harm from DV abuse, but the public did not acknowledge that finding. Decades later, the majority of the public still does not acknowledge abuse of men perpetrated by women (Capaldi, Kim & Short, 2010; Carney, Buttell, & Dutton, 2007). Douglas, Hines, and McCarthy (2012) conducted an exploratory study to assess the experiences of 302 men who sustained IPV from their female partners. The focus was their life experiences and demographic characteristics associated with where men sought help and their experiences while seeking help. The men reported seeking help from one of six
resources: hotlines, DV agencies, medical providers, mental health professionals, the internet, and the police, but felt ignored, ridiculed, or accused of being the perpetrator. The researchers believed that these kinds of responses toward men seeking help might discourage men from future reporting.

Accurate data providing the frequency, severity, and realistic number of men experiencing IPV and not reporting the event is not available because estimates showed that one in four men experienced abuse by women, but only one in nine reported the event (CDC, 2013; Hoff, 2010; Orzech, Rokach, & Chin, 2010). When it came to DV with men as victims, society appeared to view the occurrence with blinders. The notion that males experienced female perpetrated violence and were victims was unthinkable by some in society. This belief discouraged men from attempting to disclose the occurrence (Orzech et al., 2010).

Other reasons for underreporting IPV included the male ego (fear of loss of masculinity), embarrassment, and stigma (Gover, 2012). Men further failed to report female perpetration of abuse on their person because (a) they would like to keep their families together, (c) society already labeled them as the aggressor, and (b) their story might appear unbelievable. Further reported was that even when women were the perpetrators, shelters often turned men away because shelters supported women and children and not men.

Straus (2011) argued that advocacy for change in the treatment of women experiencing IPV took many years to get attention from the public. As a result, it may take years for society to acknowledge abuse of males as equal to abuse of females.
Although at a slow pace, IPV against men within the family environment is beginning to draw the attention of researchers (Orzech et al., 2010).

In 2008, Hines and Douglas carried out a large national survey of over 300 males who tried to get help for heterosexual physical IPV. The men received no help with the recommendation that agencies, service providers, and first responders tailored services for men and their families. Hoff (2010) reported that only some research was an acknowledgement of the existence of male victims of IPV, partly because organizations rejected or denied funding for such research. Hoff provided an example where the U.S. Department of Justice’s request for proposals included exactly what projects would receive funding and what projects would not. This request excluded females under the age of 12 and all males.

Hoff (2010) again reported that a great number of men reported lack of help from hotline workers who referred them to batterers program or even ridiculed them. Argued was that the police often responded to a man’s call with sarcasm or an arrest, leaving men to believe that social agencies and organizations already prejudged and biased against them. This belief resulted in discouragement and lack of interest to report instances of abuse by men.

Researchers from more and more countries conduct studies to provide empirical data on female abuse of males. Researchers (i.e., Drijber, Reijnders, & Ceelen, 2013) from the Netherlands conducted an online survey to gain more insight into the problems men faced when they encountered violence from their female partners. Three hundred and seventy-two men completed a questionnaire based on physical, as well as
psychological abuse, from their partners. Findings were that the main reason for men not reporting the abuse was that they believed the authorities (police) would not take any action.

A national survey in 2010 (released in December 2011) sponsored by the CDC and the DOJ advised that in the previous 12 months, men (5,365,000) more than women (4,741,000) became victims of IPV (Hoff, 2012). More than 40% of the serious physical violence reported focused on men as victims (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2010). Men became victims of emotional and mental aggression, and they lost control over reproductive health (Hoff, 2012). Despite this occurrence, still few services opened to male victims of IPV. A brief summary of the discussion on IPV appears below.

Summary of Historical Perspective on IPV

Prior to the 1970s, violence in the home against women appeared to be a family concern ignored by the criminal justice system (Straus, 1986; 1990). Society’s beliefs were that activities occurring at home were private matters. In many cases, neither the arrest of abusers occurred, nor the charges by the authorities for DV crimes committed against individuals (Straus, 1986). Since then, policies changed in how the criminal justice system dealt with reports of DV (VAWA, 2012). While a small number of individuals supported past ideas of what establishes appropriate behavior between endearing couples, disagreements lingered regarding the scope and focus of present policies against IPV (Dutton, 2012).

Some advocates argued that available programs to reduce IPV were shortchanging men, because those programs were not available to men (Hoff, 2012). Other groups
contended that IPV programs and their administrators practiced bias against men, promoting a feminist agenda to disparage or vilify marriage and support gender stereotypes of men as abusers and women as victims (Domestic Violence, 2010). Still others believed that researchers should conduct more studies on male victims of IPV (Domestic Violence, 2010).

Graham-Kevan (2009) suggested that the idea of evaluating IPV on a self-defense basis no longer held merit, based on the data in the literature. The following sections are descriptions of adolescents’ socialization and development, as well as the father and adolescent daughter relationship.

Adolescents’ Socialization and Development

As adolescent girls (or boys) develop and grow into maturity, three main areas are important to their development (Blakemore & Mills, 2014). The first is the physical changes, such as the increasing hormonal levels and puberty. Second, they advance in their cognitive development, and abstract thinking. Third, social changes occur in the relationship with their peers and their parents. Consequently, the teenage years signify changes marked or described by unique developmental or age-related socialization needs (Blakemore & Mills, 2014; Sousa et al., 2011).

Snethen and Van Puymbroeck (2008) reviewed the roots of aggression from a social and mental health perspective, as well as the changes in the environment that have occurred alongside the growth of physical aggression in girls. They engaged the SLT to provide a strong theoretical foundation to understand how a society that believed in aggression encouraged aggressive adolescents. They argued that society appeared
immersed in violence. Therefore while accepting of *physically tough girls*, simultaneously they overlooked the consequences of the behaviors of violent girls. The media was a basis of reinforcement of vicarious aggression in girls.

While girls are still less aggressive than boys, their arrests for aggressive behavior increased, while boys’ arrests decreased (NSCL, 2012). The National Research Council (NRC) advised that adolescence is a distinct, yet transient, period of development between childhood and adulthood characterized by increased experimentation and risk-taking, a tendency to discount long-term consequences, and heightened sensitivity to peers and other social influences. A key function of adolescence is developing an integrated sense of self, including individualization, separation from parents, and personal identity (Lewis, 2013). Experimentation and novelty-seeking behaviors, such as alcohol and drug use, unsafe sex, and reckless driving, served a number of adaptive functions for youth despite their risks (Bonnie, Johnson, Chemers, & Schuck, 2013).

During childhood and adolescence, parents had the responsibility to regulate behavior, and during adulthood, individuals regulated themselves (Bonnie et al., 2013). This definition applied to all adolescents, regardless of culture, ethnicity, or nationality. In adolescence, adolescents cannot make certain decisions, even when they achieve the age of 18. The responsibility of parents and the justice system was to guide the transition to adulthood while keeping adolescents and society as a whole, safe. In fact, certain critical conditions would result in a healthy psychological development for adolescents.
One is the presence of a parent, or parent figures, who were involved with the adolescents and concerned about their development (Tucker, 2013).

According to Jouriles, Mueller, Rosenfeld, McDonald, and Dodson (2012), adolescents react negatively to harsh parenting. By examining the phenomenon of harsh parenting of adolescents who witnessed serious IPV, they sought to find out whether witnessing IPV encouraged committing of violence during adolescent dating. The sample consisted of 88 teens in the juvenile system, along with their mothers. Mothers participated in interviews about IPV with ex or current partners, while the teens answered questions about harsh parenting. Exposure to severe IPV and harsh parenting contributed to the expectation of violence in the teen years. Both factors seemed likely to surface or emerge in families where teens exhibited anti-social behaviors. The researchers asserted that prior exposure to IPV appeared to have lasting effects, which often required ongoing clinical intervention to help youths exposed to it.

Jouriles et al. (2012) suggested that clinical efforts aimed at reducing violence among teens at high risk for dating violence, document and consider trauma symptoms, such as anger, avoidance, and depression. The details of how trauma symptoms contribute to teen violence perpetration is not yet clear, but similar findings from other studies suggested the importance of examining trauma symptoms in the context of violence during adolescent dating.

Margolin and Vickerman (2011) wrote about changing concepts in the growing field of trauma related to IPV. They described how the repetitive nature of IPV exposure often made it difficult for clinicians to diagnose posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD).
When violence was chronic in the home, it was difficult to identify a pre-trauma state for the child, since more than one traumatic event may exist and make it difficult to identify trauma.

Margolin and Vickerman (2011) outlined issues assessments, and treatment planning for adolescents who witnessed IPV. When adolescents witnessed parental violence and physical abuse, they were apt to experience pervasive traumatic stress, which could often lead to PTSD. Furthermore, if exposure continued, it could complicate diagnosis and lead to other disorders, as well as developmental issues. More than 4000 adolescents responded to digitally random dialed telephone interviews. Responses showed lifetime PTSD rates as 15.2% for boys and 27.4% for girls who experienced either physical abuse or physical assault. Comparing rates with adolescents who were not physically assaulted or physically abused, results were 3.1% for boys and 6.0% for girls.

Sometimes health care practitioners are confused as to whether violence in the home qualifies to be a traumatic event. Margolin and Vickerman (2011) suggested that even though children may present to health centers with exposure to one specific type of violence, assessment for other types of violence should be standard procedure. Their rationale was that DV encompassed many events and could be either physical or emotional at different degrees and in different stages of development. For example, shaking can be detrimental to an infant, but not an adolescent.

Physical abuse and exposure to IPV are potential precursors to PTSD in children. Treatment professionals working with youth traumatized by violence in the family should be aware of this foundational background information. Their professional assessment
should consider cultural and family contexts, developmental stage of the child or youth, degree of stress experienced, and evaluation of all areas of the child’s life and his or her ability to function successfully (Margolin & Vickerman, 2011).

Knous-Westfall, Ehrensaft, MacDonell, and Cohen (2012) found that witnessing of parental violence made it difficult for children and youth to adapt and change destructive behaviors. The researchers followed three generations of adolescents for 25 years and noted associations between practices of parents and reports of IPV among original participants. Findings revealed that all types of IPV had an effect on offspring victimization of others. Severe IPV projected a higher rate of offspring victimization and peer bullying.

Within a developmental psychopathology framework, Narayan, Englund, Carlson, and Egeland (2013) investigated adolescent conflict with friends, dating partners, and parents as peacemakers. They examined the potential path from exposure to IPV during the early childhood years to the dating perpetration and victimization of violence in early adulthood. They discovered that adolescent conflict was partially predicted in the early years, and dating violence later on.

Narayan et al. (2013) recruited participants from a large group of potential high-risk mothers who monitored their children from delivery through later life or maturity. Using the CTS to assess the interviews with participants and mothers for victimization, and physical perpetration, path analyses showed that exposure to IPV in early childhood resulted in IPV violence in early adulthood as expected. Predicted conflict with best friends in early adulthood also occurred as expected. Impett, Sorsoli, Schooler, Henson,
and Tolman (2008) examined the authenticity of self-esteem and relationships during the teenage years. They used latent growth curve modeling over a 5-year, 3-wave, longitudinal study, with 183 adolescent girls participating in the study. Following the feminist theory, which promulgated that what individuals think and feel, and what individuals do and say in relational contexts, was fundamental to well-being and self-esteem, the researchers explored the role of relationship genuineness in developing girls' self-esteem.

The Impett et al. (2008) results were that self-esteem and genuineness in relationships grew for girls from eighth through twelfth grade. Violence was not a variable in this study. This study connects Bowlby’s attachment theory to the parent-child relationship and important to my study, because it shows that self-esteem improves when adolescent girls’ exposure to violence is not a factor. Developing strong and secure attachments may aid in self-confident relationships in later years.

Father/Daughter Relationships

Relative to other family relationships, the father/daughter relationship may be the most understudied relationship (Barrett & Morman, 2013). As an important unit in the family, several psychosocial issues if not appropriately addressed may have consequences for daughters as they grow into adulthood. The quality and depth of emotional attachment between father and daughter and the perception of the daughter towards her father are important in the daughter’s social development as she grows up and matures.
A study of father-daughter assessments of closeness in their bonding relationships and the events that cemented those bonds during daughters’ development found that both had many similarities in their relationships, and daughters sought affirmation in their social development from their fathers (Barrett & Morman, 2013).

A small, but increasing body of research revealed that a father had great influence over many important psychosocial outcomes in the life of his daughter (Barrett & Morman, 2013). Daughters who expressed unhappiness with the relationship they had with their fathers were more likely to be involved in bad peer relationships, unpleasant romantic experiences, and made life-threatening decisions, versus daughters who were happy with the relationship with their fathers. For example, risky behaviors, mental health, and depressive issues were symptoms in adolescent girls who experienced conflicting father/daughter relationships.

Barrett and Morman (2013) cited Elliot (2010) who agreed that an association existed between the quality of the paternal relationship and an adolescent girls’ perception of her body image. A daughter's desire to be thin and consequently developing eating disorders related directly to her perception of closeness and care giving in the relationship with her father (van den Berg, Mond, Eisenberg, Ackard, & Neumark-Sztainer (2010).

Gavazzi (2013) conducted a qualitative exploratory study to respond to a shortage of research on father/daughter relationships in low-income and ethnic minority families. Twenty adolescent girls, primarily Latina and African American, participated in the study. Through semi-structured interviews, the girls provided their perceptions of the
relationship they had with their fathers. Most of the girls were interested in having activity-oriented relationships with their fathers, such as conversations about the world of sports and school. Some girls desired more attention from their fathers, while others perceived them as overprotective. Gavazzi suggested a need to explore further, how adolescent girls perceive the relationship between them and their fathers.

Another study of African American girls and their paternal relationships suggested that these relationships were consequential to girl’s academic related outcomes (Cooper, 2009). Positive social interactions may play a substantial role in the achievements of African American adolescent girls in the educational arena. The sample of 122 African American adolescent girls had an average age of 13 years old and explored their paternal relationship quality and academic success. Another goal was to investigate self-esteem in a global context as a mediating factor of girls’ academic commitment.

Findings (Cooper, 2009) were that a close relationship existed between a girl’s academic commitment and paternal quality of the father-daughter relationship. Global self-esteem established a link between academic commitment and father-daughter relationship quality. The paternal relationship quality was important in both the academic engagement and self-esteem of African American adolescent girls. All girls benefitted from having a supportive, loving, paternal relationship regardless of ethnicity. This relationship had a far-reaching lifelong impact on daughters (Nielsen, 2011).

From these perspectives, the father/daughter relationship appeared to deserve additional attention from researchers for a number of reasons. These reasons included: (a)
a daughter’s social development, (b) a perception of changeable roles throughout personal relationships, and (c) being knowledgeable about the influence that perception, closeness, and care giving may have on a daughter’s social development and other relationships. According to Barrett and Morman (2013), the emotional connection between a father and his daughter is an important aspect of their relationship and links to psychosocial developmental outcomes in the daughter's life. Their study was an acknowledgement of the significance of exploring more about father-daughter relationships and about how findings might influence outcomes for daughters.

Fathers and mothers parenting styles affect the personality of their children, and can have positive or negative influence on their behavior. For example, Tur-Porcar, Mestre, Samper, and Malonda (2012) conducted an empirical study to analyze the relationship between verbal and physical aggression of sons and daughters and parenting styles of father and mother. They used a sample of 2,788 students from 10-15 years of age of which 1,412 (50.6%) were boys and 1,375 (49.3%) girls. The results reflected that children's aggressiveness relates more to factors associated with the mother's parenting. In the case of daughters, the influence of parenting factors rests on both father and mother.

A number of research studies indicate that fathers appeared less engaged and less involved with their young children and adolescents girls. Mammen (2011) found that fathers often spend less time engaging in conversation with their adolescent girls, but when they do spend time together, the time is usually qualitative, distinctive, and interactive. For example, fathers liked to be involved in activities, both active and
entertaining at the same time, such as sports activities and watching television. This model was what adolescents need at this period of transition from adolescent into early adulthood. They needed a parent who respected, allowed, and supported the developing adolescent.

Results of some studies (e.g., Mammen, 2011) showed that adolescent daughters were satisfied with the role their fathers played in their lives. They perceived fathers as models for ongoing developmental goals, such as an expectant marital life and helping them to feel safe. The argument was that fathers had a natural attitude better suited to balance closeness and separateness than mothers did. Fathers appeared more flexible and responsive to the different developmental goals of their adolescent offspring.

A significant value of the father-adolescent daughter relationship manifested itself through biology and the father’s presence in the home. Nielsen (2011), referenced a 1999 study carried out at Vanderbilt University, where researchers followed 173 girls from kindergarten through seventh grade. The findings were that when fathers actively participated in their daughters’ lives, with activities, such as care giving at home and had positive relations with their daughters’ mothers, daughters felt loved and reached puberty later in adolescence. A father’s participation, rather than the mother’s, was the key factor in the positive development of girls.

Nielsen (2011) described another study conducted by the University of California, Berkeley, where girls residing in homes with no biological father appeared to physically mature sooner than those with their biological father. The reason for this, they believed, was that relationships with fathers could literally prevent girls from getting into careless
situations that would be conducive to them engaging into illicit sex and becoming pregnant. Unrelated men in the home perhaps gave off pheromones that interfered and set off girls’ biological clocks.

Moreover, father-daughter interactions could be difficult in terms of a bias against fathers. The bias related to the nature of women to communicate through their emotions, while men do not. Daughters desired to speak more to mothers because they related easily to each other when communicating. Nielsen (2011) maintained that adolescent girls felt comfortable discussing certain female topics with fathers and were often surprised about how their father’s wholehearted and empathetic responses greatly improved their resultant relationships.

The absence of father from the home is of concern for the father/daughter relationship. Girls experiencing absence of fathers from the home, struggled with issues of teen pregnancy, early onset of sexual promiscuity, decreased self-esteem, and many behavioral problems (Strauss, 2013). Adult women interviewed about their childhood experiences without their fathers’ presence confirmed that they developed emotional barriers that prevented them from forming strong connections with others. Strauss’ case study on the impact of father absence found that regardless of their anger, daughters wanted to be with their fathers. They desired to have a relationship with him. Even if they had a step or surrogate father, the feelings of pain and emptiness persisted because of their missing biological father.

According to Strauss (2013), another study found that father’s absence was strongly associated with high risks for early pregnancy and belligerency for adolescent
girls. Girls who experienced the loss of their father at early ages were at considerably more risk than those who experienced the loss in later years. Strauss continued that these studies elucidated how absence of father had the possibility of bringing on negative impact on adolescent girls’ present and future relationships with males.

In summary, the father-daughter relationship influenced how (a) girls felt about themselves as maturing adults; (b) they chose future romantic partner(s); and (c) they handle or tolerate exposure to abuse at home and in the workplace (Nielsen, 2011; Simon, & Furman, 2010). Daughters of abusive fathers were more susceptible and likely to become abusers of alcoholism and drugs. They might develop dangerous eating disorders, become sexually promiscuous and involved in DV. Daughters could grow up to accept the abusive behaviors demonstrated by their abusive parent. Sons might develop passivity in adulthood, always co-dependent, be abused or become an abuser. Strong relationships with fathers were central to the development of high self-esteem in daughters (Dunleavy, Wanzer, Krezmien, & Ruppel, 2011; Nielsen, 2011).

This current study confirmed and supported most of the issues raised by previous researchers regarding the father/daughter relationship. New information about the perception of adolescent girls who witnessed father abuse also emerged from the study data. The theoretical foundation for this study appears in the next section.

Theoretical Foundation

Gitterman and Heller (2011) asserted that theory is a way of examining a field of evidence with the aim of extracting beliefs, thoughts, and ideas from it. In recent years, the debate and research about female control in IPV increased. The cause for this increase
dwelt on the premise that societal attitudes and belief systems were shifting concerning IPV against males, even though at a slow pace (Allen-Collinson, 2009; Hines, Brown, & Dunning, 2010). The most notable ideas and thoughts leading the literature on the investigation of IPV emanated from (a) feminist theory to explain female aggression; (b) social learning theory (SLT) to understand why individuals acted and behaved the way they do, and (c) attachment theory to help explain the bond between individuals.

**Social Learning Theory**

Bandura was the originator of the SLT, as well as the theory of self-efficacy (Gilchrist, 2009). Bandura was influential in the shift between cognitive psychology and behaviorism. Bandura (1977) proposed three main elements of social learning, (a) paying attention, (b) learning a behavior, and (c) retaining the information learned, and acting out or reproducing the behavior in the future (Bell & Naugle, 2008). These elements materialized by observing the attitudes and behaviors of others through live demonstrations, verbal instructions, descriptions, and symbolic models (movies), and the outcomes of those behaviors. Bandura (1977) believed it would be extremely hazardous and laborious if individuals were to look to their own actions to direct their behavior. Therefore, humans acquired learning by observing, and modeling, This coded information served as a guide to repeat or exhibit the behavior in the future.

SLT applied to the study of the intergenerational cycle of violence that suggested children who witnessed violence or who were victims of violence, were at risk of becoming perpetrators or victims of violence in adulthood (Black, Sussman, & Unger, 2010; Millett, Kohl, Johnson-Reid, Drake & Petra, 2013; Milner et al., 2010). Smith,
Elwyn, Ireland, and Thornberry (2010) conducted a study on the impact of adolescent exposure to intimate partner violence on substance use in early adulthood. Using a prospective design, they sought to determine whether an increased risk of IPV occurred due to gender. The main objective was to investigate whether exposure to IPV during adolescence led to drug and substance abuse in young adults. This longitudinal study was a test for antisocial behavior and drug use. The researcher used logistic regression analyses to evaluate 508 mostly minority adolescents as participants.

Furthermore, an association between exposure to severe IPV in adolescence and drug use occurred in young adults (Smith et al., 2010). The evidence was inconclusive due to limited research on the association between early exposure to IPV and later consumption of alcohol. Exposure to IPV in adolescence significantly increased the odds of drug use in early adulthood, specifically for females. Problems in early adulthood increased for young women, but not for young men. Thus, girls may be at increased risk for problems with alcohol use in adulthood, if exposed to IPV and should be a target for intervention and prevention efforts.

Roberts, Gilman, Fitzmaurice, Decker, and Koenen (2010) investigated whether witnessing of IPV in childhood supported the proposition that perpetration of IPV continued in adulthood. They applied the SLT to understand the relationship between witnessing of IPV in childhood versus perpetration of IPV in adulthood. Roberts et al. (2010) placed the focus on learning and skills development, aimed at teaching batterers to embrace new non-violent approaches for addressing family conflict. The SLT data revealed that individuals pay attention, learn a behavior, retain the information, and then
act out or reproduce the information in the future. According to Randle and Graham (2011), when adolescent girls witnessed IPV, they might learn the behavior, retain it, and try to act it out on their friends or even with older adults later. In addition, by failing to learn how to appropriately understand and manage IPV conflict in the childhood or adolescent years, violence transfers to another generation by observing and imitating.

The reason for selection of this theory was to assist me as the researcher in understanding how adolescent girls who witness father abuse respond to IPV violence in general. I discovered that, from observing the behavior of others, adolescents often feel justified in performing the same behavior. Bandura (1977) stated that it was exceedingly difficult for individuals to learn from their own behaviors. SLT encompassed motivation, memory, and attention, but omitted the biological and intuitive survival elements (Fitton, 2012).

The SLT related to the present study by helping me understand and articulate adolescents lived experiences while in their living environment. According to Ali and Naylor (2013), SLT was one of the weightier theories that supported an understanding of IPV relationships.

**Attachment Theory**

John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth first introduced the attachment theory in 1958 (Bretherton, 1992; Fitton, 2012). The theory developed as a substitute to psychoanalytic theory in order to clarify why parting or separation produced anxiety in children and adolescents (Fitton, 2012). Bowlby wished to describe the connection between youth and adult loss and sadness, or grief and separation. In describing the process of developing
defenses in the human intellect, he explained the social behavior from the early stages of life that influenced and affected the development of the individual ranging from a healthy situation to a debilitating situation. Attachment theory reflected a departure from a drive and dependency theory associated with biological needs, toward a theory of primary intuitive responses, which functioned to encourage social interactions from physical needs.

Attachment theorists speculated that witnessing parental violence disrupted the relationship between parents and children (Fitton, 2012). In turn, this disruption could lead to emotional issues, anxiety, abandonment, and dependent attachment attitudes. Attachment theory was difficult to define and study, because of its complexity in terms of internal and external needs. Some influences across generations related to the recreating of the attachment theory and existed as to how mothers and fathers bonded to their children. How mothers and fathers related to their children was the way they saw their own parents relate to them. This behavior had a connection between perception and attachment.

Researchers, Lowenstein (2010) and Riggs (2010) believed that abused children often showed more aggression and avoidance tendencies especially if the loved attachment figure detached from them. They usually developed anger, hatred, and rage, which might lead to more aggression. This behavior severely restricted social interaction in all settings (Lowenstein, 2010). In the past, attachment theory was applicable mainly to the infant and parent relationship, but the theory has moved beyond infancy to throughout
the life span (Riggs, 2010). The attachment of children and intimate relationship were the most significant attachment relationships in adult life (Fitton, 2012).

As specified by Fitton (2012), the four patterns of attachment were secure, dismissing, fearful, and preoccupied. If individuals were secure, then they would see themselves in a positive light. If individuals were dismissing, they viewed themselves as positive and others as negative. On the other hand, if individuals were fearful, they held negative views of others and self, while preoccupied individuals had negative views of others, but positive views for themselves.

Victims of IPV often reflected the preoccupied attachment style. In extending the theory of attachment, researchers created a four-part model. The model, created to understand one’s self, involved the degree to which one values one’s own self-worth and the self-worth of others. Individuals perceived themselves and others as either trustworthy and supportive or unreliable and rejecting (Fitton, 2012). Those who sensed detachment from loved ones or experienced ongoing abuse often felt rejected and fearful. They projected their feelings on to others and then behaved in the way they believed that others were behaving toward them. They often transferred these behaviors to intimate relationships, which could be a cause of aggression and hostility between partners.

One of the basic principles of attachment theory becomes visible through the lens of postmodern, qualitative methodology and specifically interpretative phenomenology. This principle had an emphasis on the personal meaning attributed to the lived experiences of parents and their children (Reid, Flowers, & Larkin, 2005). According to Fitton (2012), long lasting relationships, such as the parent/child relationship, could have
an effect on the social development of adolescents and children. The attachment theory provided another lens with which researchers could analyze the problems that surfaced for an adolescent girl if she became detached from her father and perceived him in a negative way. The expectation was that the nature of the attachment relationship instilled a sense of security, encouraging confidence and competence in individuals as they related to their social environment. The overarching goal of this research was to understand adolescent girls’ perception of their father after they witnessed MPIPV.

**Feminist Theory**

Feminism is a competing, often opposing, and diverse compilation of social theories and philosophies driven and connected with the experiences of women from various lifestyles or strata of society (Bell & Naugle, 2008; Rosser, 2005). Feminism involved the elimination of inequality between men and women, and the promotion of the rights of women, their interests, and the issues they faced in society (Rosser, 2005).

The most popular types of feminism are radical feminism, liberal feminism, social feminism, and post-modern feminism. Radical feminists believed that women’s rights were most important because the oppression of women was the deepest and most pervasive. Radical feminists rejected most scientific theories, experiment, and data because radical feminists believe that these theories excluded women and were not women-centered (Rosser, 2005). In the phenomenon of IPV, radical feminists believed that men abused women, because they were from patriarchal societies and wanted to have control and power over women. Liberal feminists did not ask for special privileges
for women, only that all women received equal treatment without discrimination based on sex.

Many female advocates believed that IPV was a societal issue that affected only women, and examination of the issue must be from that perspective and only in that context (Randle & Graham, 2011). They viewed IPV only from the experiences of women who experienced the phenomenon. Other feminist researchers, such as Bell and Naugle (2008) and Rosser (2005), believed that inequality of females developed originally from societies of certain male-dominated countries. They argued that some men brought up in male-dominated societies believed that having power and control over their wives and female partner was normal behavior. On the other hand, others thought that women’s use of violence against their partners was not for the same reason; they believed that women might only be protecting themselves. Gilchrist (2009) supported the argument that gender-based roles and gender-based theories involved victimization of females due to the restrictions society placed on the roles that women played and on the encouragement of male dominance.

Resource theory and feminist theory were two of the main theoretical foundations for the feminist’s explanation of IPV. In resource theory, power was the main concept behind IPV (Basile, Hall, & Walters, 2013; Dardis, Dixon, & Edwards, 2014). Resource theory involved males perpetuating violence against their spouses when an imbalance in the economic resources occurred in favor of the spouse. Men may also lacked the finance, the education or the job status required in order to feel powerful and gain control over their spouses (Basile et al., 2013).
Resource theory brings together the idea that constraints in social and material resources could cause social stress and was conducive to IPV (Basile et al., 2013). Feminist informed theorists contended that in a patriarchal society, men had more economic, political, and social power than women did. Some men believed that violence was an acceptable way to subordinate women.

The rationale for choosing the feminist theory was to help me, as the researcher, understand the meaning behind the female attempt to control the home environment (Basile et al., 2013). This current study was about investigating MPIPV and discovering how the behavior affected the behavior of adolescent daughters. Knowing some of the reasons women abuse men, how witnessing that abuse affects daughters, and what intervention, if any, can be improved upon, or developed, to help women abusers change their behavior and effect social change. This theory helped me as the researcher; put in context the roles that women played in the lives of their daughters who witnessed MPIPV. Findings coincided with existing theory by helping to answer the research question of what was the lived experience of adolescent females who witnessed MPIPV.

The next section deals with the method and scope as used in the literature.

**Methodology**

Interpretative or hermeneutical phenomenology was the chosen methodology in consideration for this study. Interpretative or hermeneutical phenomenology was concerned with the development of human knowledge by the lived experience of the individual (Moustakas, 1994). This review presented several studies where researchers used the method to accomplish their goals.
Benavides (2012) designed a hermeneutical phenomenological qualitative study to determine whether spirituality served as a protective factor or a source of strength for adolescents who experienced DV. From the hermeneutical phenomenological perspective, researchers interpreted the meanings individuals gave to their lived experiences (Patton, 2002). The researcher used semi-structured interviews with 14 adolescents, obtained through a DV agency for survivors of domestic abuse. Some of the participants connected their understanding of spirituality as relating to God and organized religion or both. Some participants provided different insights as to their concept of spirituality and the definition they ascribed to it.

All the participants drew upon their own experiences, self-expressions, feelings, and beliefs to help them express their spiritual strengths. Four significant themes similar to those expressed by the participants emerged. Spirituality was a protective factor and a source of strength to adolescents exposed to domestic violence. Spirituality helped them deal with their adverse circumstances. A significant finding was that adolescents are able to articulate their feelings and beliefs on spirituality regardless of their age.

Hogan, Hegarty, Ward, and Dodd (2012) aimed to identify the experiences of counselors working with men, victims of female-perpetrated abuse. No evidence of a study on the topic existed within the counseling literature. Their concern was about the common theme in the majority of men’s reports, which centered on revictimization by a system appeared to be set up solely to help female victims. Using a phenomenological qualitative approach to meet the goal of the research, they used a snowball technique to find suitable participants. Of these six counselors (three males and three females) who
worked with male victims of female perpetrated abuse participated in semi-structured interviews.

Using interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA), ten overarching themes emerged from analyzation of the data suggesting a clear acknowledgement of male victimization (Hogan, et al. 2012). Three themes revealed the participants’ experiences of working with male victims of domestic abuse: How can this possibly be happening to a man? A definite lack of recognition of male victimization was clear. The counselor’s gender presented a dynamic in itself. Three themes revealed the impact on the counsellor’s sense of self (I was surprised; My outlook is continually changing; I felt I was given a gift). Four themes revealed strategies used to cope with work related difficulties; (1) I think it’s challenging; (2) I needed my supervisor to help me stay upright; (3) keeping yourself safe was important; and (4) I rely much more on experience.

Counselor participants reported that the results changed their perceptions about women within modern society (Hogan et al., 2012). Some counselor participants saw working with men abused by females as hampering their work, because they (counselors) felt embarrassed and found it difficult to accept that male clients experienced abuse by female partners. Participants reported that some male clients were in denial of victimization because acknowledging the abuse affected their masculinity. Participants also emphasized a need to reduce the preconceptions around domestic abuse and the stigma against men.

According to Hogan et al. (2012), a number of participants stressed the idea of viewing domestic abuse as a human problem rather than a problem of gender.
Recommended was that professional counselors consider the importance of their own gender, including their assumptions and values about male victims of domestic abuse. Furthermore, counselors could endeavor to increase awareness of male victimization among colleagues, as well as include support for services geared toward male victims, outside of therapy. They concluded that training on DV should include issues pertaining to male victims.

Swanston, Bowyer, and Vetere (2014) designed a study to capture, illuminate, and obtain a deep understanding of how school-aged children from 8 – 12 and their mothers, residing in the community, made sense of DV. Interpretative phenomenology analysis was the qualitative methodology used to investigate the viewpoints of both children and their mothers about their experiences. Answering the research question was interpretative phenomenology, a method to allow children to express themselves through voice communication, pictures, and drawings.

One significant finding from this phenomenological study was that children as young as eight years old were able to articulate their feelings about IPV. Interpretative phenomenology had an emphasis on individual experiences in a subjective rather than in an objective way. This method had an assumption that as different individuals, everyone experienced and interpreted the same event in different ways (Smith et al., 2009).

The phenomenological method of research adapts to usage with people of all age groups and nationalities. Band-Winterstein (2014) embraced the phenomenological method to focus on the lived experiences of adults who experienced long-term exposure to IPV as children. These adults had extensive knowledge of IPV because they grew up
and lived through the exposure every day. The descriptive power of the phenomenological approach allowed participants to provide detailed information on their experiences with IPV, and enabled researchers to collect, rich and in-depth data.

The studies presented in this section provided examples of how using interpretative hermeneutical phenomenology enabled researchers to extract important information from participants. They also showed that interpretative phenomenology allowed participants at any age to express themselves and their lived experiences. More details on the interpretative phenomenology methodology are in Chapter 3. The next section describes the gap in the literature that this study filled.

**Gap in the Literature**

A plethora of researchers confirmed that women perpetrated all types of interparent violence, both verbally and physically. But the idea of viewing women as primary aggressors in IPV, as opposed to being compassionate and nurturing, was often counter-intuitive, and challenges dominant social norms (Capaldi, & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012; Eckhardt, Samper, Suhr, & Holtzworth-Munroe, 2012: Fiebert, 2012; Gover, 2012; Hamel, 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2011, 2012; Hogan, Hegarty, Ward, & Dodd, 2012; Kumar, 2012; Randle & Graham, 2011; Straus, 2012a). Consequently, abuse of men by women appeared to be more tolerable in mainstream society, than abuse perpetrated by men (Gover, 2012).

As is noted in the literature, the adolescent years can be turbulent or confusing ones for adolescents, especially girls (NSCL, 2013). Researchers (Barrett & Morman, 2013: Nielsen, 2011) found that social development and self-esteem were attributes that
adolescent girls developed through a caring and close relationship with their fathers. Observing paternal abuse had implications for a daughter’s social development and self-esteem. Furthermore, MPIPV had implications for the behavior of adolescent daughters in their social development and in the perception of their fathers. Findings from this study now complete this previously unfilled gap.

In order to provide rich in-depth data to adequately provide answers and fill the identified gap in the literature, I used an interpretative phenomenological qualitative research method to collect the data from study participants answering the primary research question, what is the lived experience of adolescent girls who witness their mothers abusing their fathers? This method was an appropriate platform on which to give female adolescents the opportunity to discuss their lived experiences of father abuse (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009).

The phenomenological approach produced meaningful results because it allowed adolescent females to give a firsthand account of their perceptions and lived experiences. The researcher drew upon the social learning theory to explain how violence often occurred; the feminist theory, as to why women perpetrated abuse on men; and the attachment theory, as to how positive parenting supported the growth and development of children and adolescents (Fitton, 2012).

Chapter Summary

IPV is a significant public health issue that interferes in the lives of people around the world (WHO, 2013). Both men and women are perpetrators of IPV. Men do not like to report their abuse because of embarrassment, bruised ego, fear of losing family, job,
and status in the community, and many other reasons (Gover, 2012). Many abused fathers failed or neglected to report aggression from their wives, probably to the detriment of the mental stability and socialization of their adolescent daughters.

Similar to IPV in adults, adolescents’ witnessing of MPIPV is a public health concern. The phenomenon is very costly and widespread (Bonomi, Anderson, Rivara, & Thompson, 2009). Children and adolescents who witness parental violence are at high risk for repeating family violence in their own adult intimate relationships. Since the socialization and development of adolescent girls is often dependent on the relationship between father and daughter, it is important for daughters to view fathers in a positive light as having strength to protect them. When men do not report violence against them, they may appear weak to adolescent daughters.

According to the literature, adolescent girls who witnessed IPV developed a propensity for losing respect for parents, running away from home and school, and becoming involved with drugs and alcohol. They also risked premature pregnancies and motherhood, abuse their peers, and aggressive and violent behavior into adulthood. It is essential to know whether implications for adolescent girls’ socialization, development, and self-esteem after exposure to MPIPV existed.

Of the available studies on the potential effects of witnessing IPV, the majority were quantitative, providing numbers, percentages, and suggestions for future studies. More qualitative research was necessary in order to hear from adolescent girls how witnessing the phenomenon of IPV abuse against their fathers affected their lives. A better understanding of how female adolescents viewed and experienced paternal abuse
will bring further awareness to the helping profession and policy makers, that the problem of IPV affected many lives and warrants urgent attention. Increased awareness of this public health issue could help researchers, psychologists, teachers, and those who contribute and provide mental health care and other services to adolescent girls better understanding of how to treat them, perhaps allowing them to experience a better quality of life. This study attempted to fill this gap.

This chapter provided an in-depth review of empirical data applicable to this study. Chapter 3 includes the methodology, the research design, and the recruitment methods employed in the study, including ethical considerations and data analysis. Chapter 4 involves the findings from this study, while Chapter 5 is a discussion of the findings, recommendations for future research, and implications for social change.
Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

My review of available literature showed a need for qualitative studies to give voice to female adolescents who witnessed father abuse. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the perceptions, attitudes and the meanings ascribed to maternal perpetrated IPV in the home by a sample of female adolescents. This chapter includes my study design and rationale, and a rationale for choice of tradition. Next, I offer the research questions and explain the role of the researcher. I conclude the chapter with a presentation of the methodology, highlighting my identification and recruitment strategy, inclusion criteria, methods for data collection, procedures for data analysis, and ethical concerns.

Study Design and Rationale

Social science researchers are aware more than ever of the varied methods of quantitative and qualitative research and paradigms. They determine their methodology based on their epistemology and assumptions about their research problem, because they recognize that no perfect method has yet been offered (Maxwell, 2013). According to Patton (2002), the fundamental values of research stretch across a continuum, and scholars appear to be most efficient at the point on the continuum, at which, they answer the research question in the best way possible.

Two major theoretical standpoints in social science research are positivism and post-positivism. Positivists support a deductive reasoning process, focusing on discovering the general tendency of a specified sample and using statistical techniques to
determine what findings are likely to be the same for the entire population. The positivist’s paradigm is consistent with quantitative research (Creswell, 2013).

Post-positivists support an inductive reasoning process, focusing on studying individuals through in-depth verbal descriptions of what they observe and then making inferences about similar underlying themes and patterns. The post-positivist’s paradigm is consistent with qualitative research (Creswell, 2013) and supports values of different approaches, including insights that go beyond measurable and discoverable realities.

Qualitative researchers pointed out that they must accept and appreciate uncertainty because they work to make sense out of the relationship with participants instead of just discovering and soliciting facts (Janesick, 2011; Maxwell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). In post-positivist research, a researcher and participant learn from each other through an interactive process. This interactive process results in a realistic understanding of the interpretation of the cultural and social background of their lives, promoting the development of rich in-depth and detailed data as they construct and interpret their perspectives and experiences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

**Constructivist/Interpretivist Paradigm**

Constructing and interpreting data are components of qualitative research. According to Patton (2002), the constructivist approach takes as a premise that humans change behaviors over time. As a result, their ability to interpret and construct reality becomes different. Social constructivism has the assumption that in terms of problems, solutions, and findings, generalizations cannot transfer from one setting to another, and
understanding of events and phenomena becomes clearer by studying them within their contexts (Patton, 2002).

Also described as interpretivism, social constructivism is associated with the postmodern era of qualitative research (Andrews, 2012). Using an interpretative framework with origins in sociology and other social disciplines, constructivists hold that people try to understand what is going on around them and supply unique meanings to events from their own experiences (Creswell, 2013). Social constructivists approach truth and knowledge as constructed by the relationships of individuals within a society (Andrews, 2012). Some researchers have suggested that language predated concepts and allows an individual to structure their world the way they experienced it.

The interpretivist paradigm includes naturalistic methods, such as case study, grounded theory, ethnography, narrative, or phenomenology. These interpretative approaches have the same methods of observing, interviewing, and analyzing available textual data to extract life events (Moustakas, 1994). Interpretivist researchers believe that these methods ensure substantial communication between participants and the researcher. The consensus amongst interpretivists is that meanings often emerged from the research process. A brief discussion of some of these methods appears in the rationale for research design section.

Furthermore, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), reality is relative and many realities exist. Hence, more than one structured way exists to discover such realities. Multiple realities depend on other systems for meaning and can be difficult to interpret. Knowledge derived from interpretivism is constructed and subjective in its
interpretations. Employing the interpretivist paradigm implies that the researcher seeks to interpret and understand the behavior of individuals rather than predicting causes and effects to generalize findings.

Interpretivists have argued that interpretative methods and approaches should embrace naturalistic methods (Creswell, 2013). In addition, naturalistic research methods occur in their natural spheres/spaces. Some natural methods include: interviews (both telephone and face-to-face), general telephone conversations, journal or diary records, semi-structured questionnaires, overt or covert observations, analysis of existing documents, and viewing videos and pictures (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Janesick, 2011; Maxwell, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1985; Patton, 2002). Furthermore, phenomenology is an examination of an individual's life-world as she or he intentionally and consciously contemplates it (Finlay, 2013; Moustakas, 1994).

From a methods viewpoint, a phenomenological study indicates the significance of several individuals’ lived experience related to a particular phenomenon (Tuohy, Cooney, Dowling, Murphy, & Sixmith, 2013). In this study, I employed interpretative phenomenology to understand how individuals constructed and interpreted their conscious experiences from a first person viewpoint. Applying the inductive method approach that I provide in Chapters 4 and 5, I sought to understand the meanings, attitudes, and perceptions of adolescent girls who witnessed father abuse in IPV.

**IPV and Qualitative Research**

IPV is a serious phenomenon affecting the lives of many families around the world. Its root causes are yet unknown (CDC, 2012). Researchers have suggested that
witnessing IPV affects children and adolescents in their later years, lowering self-esteem and opening the doors for continued perpetration in adulthood (Mandal & Hindin, 2013).

Both qualitative and/or quantitative research methods could help researchers learn more about IPV and help to stop or prevent the violence. However, a qualitative research design was more appropriate for this type of study because it adopted an entirely distinctive philosophical outlook that a quantitative design could not offer. A quantitative design focused on the prevalence of IPV phenomenon, would use yes or no answers, and would present findings in a numerical fashion with clearly explained, predicted, and controlled outcomes. On the other hand, my qualitative design promoted understanding of, explored meanings, described and interpreted through language how humans dealt with the phenomenon of IPV (Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

**Rationale for Research Design**

The phenomenological design fulfilled the need for an in-depth understanding of maternal perpetrated IPV and its implications for daughters. The method involved investigating the many ways in which female adolescents perceived and interpreted their experiences of witnessing IPV. The method also allowed me to study a small, purposeful sample size (Creswell, 2013). A hermeneutic or interpretative phenomenological exploration provided strength in the interpretation of IPV. As female adolescents made meaning of their experience, I reflexively interpreted their meaning (Finlay, 2011; Sandage, 2010). Consequently, this hermeneutic or interpretative phenomenological study of adolescent females who witnessed father abuse was in accordance with an interpretivist paradigm. The concept of multicultural otherness was considered during the
development of this study. This concept could provide additional support for this type of research design (Zevallos, 2011).

The phenomenological method of inquiry provided me an opportunity to explore the way individuals think and interpret the activities and interactions in their lived environment; how they lived, how they talked, and how they gave meaning to and interpreted the things going on around them (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As a philosophy and a method, interpretative/hermeneutic phenomenology was appropriate for this study because it was both descriptive and interpretative in investigating perceptions and lived experiences of female adolescents. The intended research design was a reasonable fit because of its capacity to generate important information related to understandings of father abuse expressed by adolescent females.

**Alternate Designs**

Other qualitative paradigms, such as grounded theory, narrative, case study and ethnographical approaches, all celebrate the same philosophical and ontological framework, but were not appropriate for this particular study (Creswell, 2013). For example, the grounded theory method, established and popularized by Glaser and Strauss (1967), also has an assumption of an interpretative and naturalistic stance in the world of lived experience. Distinctive in its approach, grounded theory research produces original theory out of raw data. The grounded theory investigator starts the collection of data with a large number of participants and completes the process with an empirically grounded theory qualified for further testing and research employing either qualitative or quantitative procedures (Hallberg, 2006; Tracy, 2010).
As a method of inquiry, the grounded theory was not appropriate for this current study, since the aim of this study was to understand the lived experience of adolescent females as they attempted to give meaning to MPIPV in their own words. Furthermore, the process of data collection for the grounded theory method required in-depth interviews of at least 20 to 60 participants (Creswell, 2013). Including so many participants in this study would be laborious and time consuming for a student researcher with time and financial constraints.

The narrative method of inquiry purports that individuals categorize lived experiences into stories. Like phenomenology, in narrative inquiry participants assign meaning to their experiences as they tell their stories (Leggo, 2011; Thomas, 2012). However, because of its probing, in-depth approach, narrative inquiry has an emphasis on the stories of just one or two individuals. Autobiographies, biographies, and life histories are examples of narrative inquiry (Creswell, 2013). While the narrative method is similar to the phenomenological method, the phenomenological method of inquiry was my choice because it allowed many perspectives, instead of just one or two.

In a single case study design, an investigator spends time gathering detailed information from many sources over time. The goal of the case study is to offer an in-depth understanding of varied multiple sources of information including all details of the case where issues or themes are recognizable during data analysis. Intrinsic, instrumental, and collective are several different types of case studies. An intrinsic case study is a specific case with an unusual interest and needed detailed analysis; instrumental case study is one in which an investigator tries to understand a specific problem, issue or
concern. A collective case study is one in which the investigator selects multiple cases to illuminate a concern, a problem, or an issue. Though appreciated for its in-depth and insightful approach, the case study method can sometimes be laborious, time consuming, and expensive for a single investigator with limited time and resource constraints (Creswell, 2013; Stake, 2009). The case study strategy was not complementary to this current study.

The final alternative qualitative method in consideration was an ethnography paradigm. Ethnography is the logical, scientific study of human societies in their natural settings. The method draws some of its beliefs from the fields of sociology, psychology, and anthropology. In ethnographic research, investigators collect data for analyzing by immersing in the day-to-day activities of a group of people sharing the same culture with a great deal of time spent in the field (Longhofer & Suskewicz, 2014).

Similar to other research methods, ethnography often draw from a wide spectrum of research strategies, such as interviews, focus groups, and review of texts and records, but observation and participation over time are the cornerstones of ethnographic research (Creswell, 2013). The method was not feasible for this study, since a cultural group was not the unit of analysis.

In summary, the alternative qualitative methods discussed did not meet the recommended rules for this current study as designed. The phenomenological method was the most appropriate to support the requirements of this current study. The research questions for this phenomenological study follows:
Research Questions

According to Moustakas (1994), researchers need to understand that in a qualitative research study, the questions are not to measure quantitative issues or verify causal interactions. Instead, the main purpose or objective of a qualitative research question is to explore the complexities of human experiences described through language. Bearing these ideas in mind, the central or overarching research question of this study was: What was the lived experience of adolescent girls who witness their mothers abusing their fathers?

Other secondary questions, according to girls living in a home where their mothers abuse their fathers, included:

- What factors, activities, actions, and/or reactions shaped their experiences;
- How did these experiences affect their feeling about themselves;
- How did these experiences affect their relationships with both parents;
- How did these experiences affect their relationships outside the home?

Role of the Researcher

As the key research instrument in a qualitative study, my role was to collect the data and ensure trustworthiness and credibility. I was also responsible for disclosing to readers (a) my relationship with IPV, (b) an identification and description of my perspectives, and (c) be prepared to deal with any bias on the subject. I needed to be self-aware, by providing a clear window to the research in terms of interpretation, description, and analyzation (Creswell 2013; Maxwell, 2013). Both Creswell and Maxwell suggested disclosing assumptions and expectations, as well as the ability to conduct the study.
To position myself in the role of the researcher in this phenomenological study, I acknowledged that I am a novice researcher with limited knowledge about interparent violence (IPV). My judgment and thinking played a significant role in collecting and analyzing the data for this study. In my previous experience, I worked as an associate director in clinical research for a major pharmaceutical company, where I had the opportunity to interview many professionals.

Currently, I am a volunteer Guardian ad Litem appointed by the court to monitor and assess the living conditions of children in foster care in my own community, as well as in surrounding communities. I served and worked with youth from well-rounded families to those with disadvantaged backgrounds. I also served as education committee chairperson in my church organization, serving teenagers from varied backgrounds.

I chose to research this topic because I have a concern for vulnerable teenaged girls who (a) must deal with stressful situations every day of their lives and (b) are from broken and violent homes. My goal is to help them live better lives by bringing awareness to areas of stress in their lives that warrant change. I believe my interviewing skills to be adequate for this research project.

According to Janesick (2011), qualitative researchers keep a journal that reflects their reactions, thoughts, and insights, about themselves, including bracketing. During this study, I kept such a journal from the start of my recruitment and data collection processes. I delayed my judgment and postponed my thoughts, allowing for an open mind about everyday activities, as best I could (Tufford & Newman, 2011). Also, I made every effort not to become over emotionally involved with the data.
Reflexivity

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested that qualitative researchers be reflexive, explaining their role, whether emic or etic, in the data collection process. Emic means (a) having a relationship with the organization and interpretation of data that makes use of the categories of the people involved in the study and (b) staying objective and not participating in what is going on in the study. In this study, I was an emic researcher, participating in all the activities of the research.

As a qualitative researcher, I was reflexive in my role as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). I was both an insider and a co-participant. Further, Bulpitt and Martin (2010) believed that reflexivity was not a negative behavior because bias was inevitable in certain aspects of qualitative research. They believed that the investigator and participants become self-aware and that this action brought potential value to the research process.

I started my researcher role as an outsider and ended as an insider as I practiced being a reflexive researcher. I clearly explained this relationship during analyzation of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In my role as researcher, I listened, thought about, and repeated probing questions to extract in-depth information from the study participants (Maxwell, 2013). My role was to develop a picture using ideas and theories from varied and various sources (Creswell, 2013).

Managing Researcher Bias and Power Relationships

It was important that I developed the trust of my participants and made every effort to protect them from any harm. These actions protected the integrity of my study
and protected the participants’ privacy. I explained the study to participants assuring them that they will be free from harm. In this study, protecting participants from harm meant not exploiting them for my own professional accomplishment by asking questions that may force them to relive traumatic events causing them embarrassment and or pain; not publishing information that would cause them to be arrested, lose a job, a promotion, or lower their income (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

I informed them that their choice was to participate or not be participants. I tried to maintain a scholarly voice, avoiding sexist and inappropriate language, including the use of insensitive labels. I provided an explanation of the potential benefits of their participation in the study, and I explained any issues concerning them as well as their right to privacy (Appendix D). Additionally, I identified participants through use of pseudonyms and not by their real names. Participants were aware that they were under no obligation to answer questions that made them feel uncomfortable (Maxwell, 2013). I also explained and clarified the purpose of the study to the participants, as described in the study protocol.

As researcher, I made every effort to prevent participants from feeling deceived. I fully disclosed every detail and followed all the steps outlined in the study protocol, and as approved by the IRB. Even though generalization was limited because of the small sample size and the nature of qualitative research, I designed this study such that results could be beneficial to many individuals, rather than just one group or one individual (Creswell, 2013).
Another way that I avoided bias in this study was to ensure that the research approach was appropriate. Sometimes researchers choose inappropriate designs causing data to skew, bringing about personal desired results. For example, employing a quantitative or a mixed method approach would produce generalizable results versus a qualitative approach, where results are generally not generalizable. Choosing the appropriate design helped me as researcher account for any bias (National Academies Press, 2009).

**Methodology - Selecting Participants**

The most qualified candidates for participation in a qualitative research study were those providing the most credible data (Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2013). Using a purposive sampling strategy, criterion-based with a snowballing technique, produced such candidates. A criterion-based purposive sampling strategy meant participants must meet certain inclusion criteria to participate. Furthermore, I selected participants based on their knowledge of the subject matter. Snowballing meant that I chose a qualified participant and then relied on that participant to refer another qualified participant. This process continued until I reached the desired sample size (Trochim, 2006).

It was important that I chose participants who had a willingness to disclose “their story” (Creswell, 2013, p.133). Additionally, interviewees offer more information if they feel comfortable and are in their own environment (Creswell, 2013). For this study, the participants were late adolescents/young adult females. They received the opportunity to choose the most convenient, private, and comfortable environment for the interview.
sessions. It was not necessary to use the snowballing technique, since all participants met the recruitment protocol requirements.

**Inclusion Criteria**

To be included as a participant in this study, adolescent girls had to be age 18 years old and above and witnessed violence between their parents, where mother initiated the event. Participants signed the informed consent form and acknowledged voluntary participation in the study. Their signatures will remain in a file folder in a locked drawer at my home for five years. I am the only one with a key to the drawer.

**Sampling**

In qualitative studies, many factors helped to determine an appropriate sample size causing some researchers to be reluctant in defining a set number of participants (Patton, 2002). A student doing a phenomenological study must decide wisely to save money and time (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002). Choosing the right sample size hinged on my judgment as the researcher, the purpose of the research, and the method of inquiry used. Creswell and others (e.g., Maxwell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994; Patton, 2002) suggested that purposeful sampling was the most appropriate kind of non-probability sampling used to identify participants for a phenomenological study. Patton believed that no hard and fast rules applied to sample size in phenomenology. However, a sample size from previous studies illustrating and explaining the phenomenon of study was suitable.

**Recruitment**

After receiving approval from the IRB on April 7, 2015, to begin the study, I immediately prepared and distributed the flyer (Appendix A). In order to find
participants, I aimed recruitment efforts at public libraries, alternative schools, public employee bulletin boards, the guardian ad litem’s office employee bulletin board, a community center, and a large local housing project in the southwest region of Florida. I also reached out to professional colleagues working in universities and social agencies to assist in distributing the flyers. The flyer was a brief description of the nature of the study and provided initial contact details.

Using the recruitment protocol (Appendix B). I screened for potential participants providing brief information about the study including the inclusion criteria. Respondents who qualified to be participants signed an informed consent (Appendix C) prior to the start of the study. I met with the participants prior to the start of the study to provide further details of the study and have the participants signed the informed consent form.

At the initial meeting, participants received a packet outlining the details of the study. The packet included important reassurances that (1) no harm (defined on page 72) would come to them as participants and (2) all shared information kept secured and in confidence by the researcher. To establish trust, I fully disclosed all potential benefits and risks of participating in the study. I clarified the language criterion to mean that the researcher speaks only English, so the requirement would not appear as a bias (Appendix E).

The sample size used in this study was five. Initially I intended to interview at least seven participants. However, five of the ten recruited, did not show up for the interview. Smith, Flowers, and Larkin (2009) suggested that three to five was sufficient for an interpretative phenomenology study. Saturation took place at three participants as
repetition of the same information started to occur with Camille, and no new and relevant information emerged.

**Data Collection Instruments and Procedures**

Qualitative studies required that researchers aspire to stimulate free and open answers. Negotiation or a compromise between obtaining in-depth examination of restrictive questions and full attention to all topics could be a challenge (Creswell, 2013). Semi-structured or unstructured interview protocols provided answers to open-ended questions. Immediately after each interview, I went over the interview with each participant to clarify any unusual wording or phrases that were unfamiliar to me. This assured me that the lived experiences were accurate.

Using the interview protocol, I was able to capture each participant’s perceptions and meanings firsthand. This step was a desirable and necessary strategy in qualitative data collection, because it allowed me to (a) report the sense making and meaningfulness of the data gathered from the participants’ perspective and (b) answered the research questions. A mental health counselor was available during and after the interview sessions in case of a need for counseling.

As the key investigator, it was important to journalize records of conversations, ideas, and thoughts during the course of the research. This journal is available to serve as an audit trail if ever the need arises for an audit to determine trustworthiness (Janesick, 2011).

Interviews represented a two-way communication process, consisting of follow-up and probing questions by the researchers or interviewers. In order to confirm the
accuracy of the data, I audiotaped the interviews to ensure that I captured the verbatim words of the participants (Creswell 2013; Maxwell, 2013). I destroyed the tapes immediately after transcription as requested by the Institutional Review Board of Walden University.

I used a flexible, prepared discussion or interview guide in order to enhance the interview experience for both participant and researcher making the interview a successful one (Janesick, 2011). I utilized good listening skills to help me process the data. A good understanding of the data is helpful during the interpreting and analyzing phase of the study.

In this study, face-to-face interviews, journal notes, and audiotape recordings were the main methods of data collection. I practiced the interview questions on some of my friends to ensure that the questions did not have weaknesses, flaws, and other limitations (Maxwell, 2013). I used face-to-face interviews because they were the most acceptable method of data collection for phenomenological studies, allowing the researcher to create a more personal relationship with participants. A personal relationship allowed greater cooperation from participants.

Some researchers believed that face-to-face interviews generated the highest number of responses because the researcher was in the presence of participants and able to tailor their questions to reflect body language of participants (University of Wisconsin, n.d.). I developed rapport with the participants and was able to extract rich in-depth information from them about their lived experiences witnessing MPIPV. I personally knew none of the participants.
Weaknesses in Method and Design

No research method or design can provide all the answers to research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Trochim, 2006). Limitations of the qualitative research method included depending heavily on the mindset and skills of the researcher. Relying heavily on the researcher could result in potential flaws to the study, as researchers often interject their own idiosyncrasies, bias, and personal views, rather than the lived experiences provided by the participants (Randall & Mello, 2012). Rigor may be difficult to demonstrate, assess, and maintain, and many in the scientific community did not accept the qualitative methods as rigorous enough (Maxwell, 2013).

The analysis and interpretation of data may consume a substantial amount of time if voluminous in nature. Because of the unavoidability of the researcher’s presence during data collection, the responses of participants represented their worldviews. Anonymity and confidentiality issues may prove difficult during presentation of findings because the participants came from a small purposive sample (Maxwell, 2013).

Because the researcher was the key instrument, weaknesses may include subjective data. Bracketing may not occur, causing interference in interpreting of the data (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002). Some participants may not have expressed themselves articulately because of language barriers and memory issues. Researcher reflexivity was essential in order to ensure reliability and validity, minimize, and prevent limitations.

In this study, to establish trust with the participants, I consciously became self-aware. After each interview, I went over my notes with each participant to ensure that (1) I captured the essence of their story, and (2) my notes reflected accuracy. In order to
adhere to the IRB’s request for not doing a second member checking to protect participant’s privacy, I made every effort to clarify my notes with the participants. During the interviews, I avoided the use of inappropriate sexist language, and stereotyping or labeling. I treated all participants with respect and showed no bias. These activities helped to confirm trustworthiness of the study’s findings (Bonnie et al., 2013).

Finally, I made sure that data analysis occurred on the participants’ experiences and not on my own experience, supporting the goal of trustworthiness, honesty, and integrity in this investigation (Creswell, 2009). Before collecting any data, I ensured that I received approval from Walden University’s Institutional Review Board for this study. The approval number is 04-07-15-0289927, granted on April 7, 2015.

**Instruments**

Data collection instruments for this study included an interview protocol, developed and produced by this researcher, noted as Appendix D. Face-to-face interviews, personal journal notes, and a recorded audiotape were other data collection instruments used in this study (Maxwell, 2013). Face-to-face interviews allowed participants to tell their story in their natural setting and at their convenience, speaking freely (Creswell, 2013). Face-to-face interviews provided more communication through body language and personal contact, but were more time consuming and expensive.

I scheduled the interviews according to the availability of participants focusing on their convenience, safety, and privacy in their natural setting. As the key researcher, I collected the data in this qualitative study. Using the interview protocol developed and two forms of recorders, I generated rich descriptions of all participants’ lived experiences
and gained an understanding and perception of maternal perpetrated IPV. During the interview sessions, I asked questions for clarification of anything I did not understand so that there is an accurate record of responses. In an effort to engage fully with the participants, I took minimal field notes during the interviews in order to listen more so participants would feel that their story is important (Eide & Kahn, 2008).

After each interview, I documented in my journal the interview experience and my initial reactions of each participant. These reflexive entries help me to write my methodological and analytic memos later on in the study. Each interview session lasted from 45 minutes to one hour. Thus, the data collected via semi-structured open-ended questions were of varying lengths.

**Recording of Data**

Prior to the recording of any data, I ensured that participants read and understood the informed consent. Using two forms of digital recording, each interview was audio taped. I took notes on a minimal scale in order to focus on the participants’ experiences. Following each interview, I wrote a memorandum reflecting on my initial impression of the participant’s testimony and about the interview encounter.

After the interviews, I thanked participants for their time and asked them whether they had any questions for me. I then gave them the $25.00 gift card offered as a thank-you for their time. In this study, no follow-up was necessary to comply with the IRB’s request of maintaining complete privacy for participants, so that no harm (defined on page 72) comes to them.
Data Analysis Plan

Audiotaped data from face-to-face interviews and information from my personal journal were the sources for the analysis and interpretation. Notes taken during the interviews also served as background support in case a word or phrase was not clear on the audiotape. My journal notes helped me to be reflective.

Connection of Data to Specific Research Questions

Interpretative phenomenological analysis is an inductive approach to explore and describe the meanings that participants in the study ascribed to their lived experiences (Reid, Flowers, & Larkin, 2005). Participants were late adolescent/young adult women who knew and understood their own lived experiences and were able to provide rich and in-depth information to answer the overarching research question. The participants were able to provide an understanding of their own thoughts, feelings, and the details of their own stories in their own words. As the researcher, I reduced the complexity of the data by systematically and rigorously analyzing the information gathered to make sense of it.

Procedures for Coding

In analyzing the data, I attempted to find the commonalities across all participants to balance the information gathered. The analysis though successful in its interpretation, was also subjective. Therefore, the results represented participants’ worldviews and were transparent and credible to participants, supervisors, and general readers (Reid, Flowers, & Larkin, 2005). The data analysis process for this phenomenological study was flexible and could be adapted to other qualitative studies (Creswell, 2013; Rudestam & Newton, 2007). A principal reason for using the interpretative type of data analysis in this
In beginning to analyze the data, the first task was to make sense of the data by organizing and preparing it. After ensuring all documents of the analysis were available and present, I attempted to become more familiar with the information. This process included transcribing the interview notes as quickly as possible and then reading through the transcription a number of times to get the full meaning of the data from the participants. Next, I examined the data in an effort to reduce it. The exercise consisted of creating categories, looking for themes, and coding data elements. This process probed deep into the data, to gain a greater understanding of what was going on (Creswell, 2009).

Completion of the data analysis process included performing a repeat review, summarizing individual interviews and all appropriate documents, as part of the study. I prepared a final report (Chapters 4) to include all the general themes, including minor ones, and interpreted my findings in Chapter 5.

**Data Collecting and Coding**

This study employed hermeneutic interpretative phenomenology to understand how individuals constructed and interpreted their conscious experiences from a first person viewpoint. I applied the inductive method approach to assist in providing an understanding of the meanings, attitudes, and perceptions of adolescent girls who witnessed father abuse or MPIPV. Hermeneutic interpretative phenomenology analysis (IPA) is both descriptive and interpretative in terms of its methodology and allowed the
phenomena of MPIPV to be studied and understood from lived experiences. According to Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014), IPA is descriptive because it allows individuals to speak for themselves, expressing how things appear to them. The method is interpretative because it recognizes that all phenomena have an interpretation and can be interpreted.

**Analyzing and Interpreting Data**

During the interpreting phase, I continued to make sense of the data compiling it into themes, consistent with repetitions of ideas, phrases, and words, appearing frequently in the data from the participants (Kvale, 2007). I applied both content and theme analyses to eliminate unnecessary and redundant meanings. I determined prior to interpretation, a scheme or way of formulating codes and themes. A peer and colleague working on their dissertation assisted in reviewing the themes to verify the efficiency and quality of the interview transcripts (Creswell, 2013). This procedure helped to reduce bias or my over-analyzing of the data.

**Software for Analysis**

To assist with laborious line-by-line coding, I first transcribed the interviews using Microsoft Word 2010. I then transferred the data into Excel 2010, where I was able to manipulate the data line-by-line. Excel 2010 was a powerful software that allowed color-coding, analyzing and storing of the data (Hahn, 2008; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

**Analytic Process of Interpretative Phenomenology**

Performing the interpretative phenomenology analysis (IPA) on my collected data became a stimulating and motivating effort, even though it was time consuming and somewhat complex. As suggested by Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014), I immersed myself
into the data and tried to step in the participants shoes as much as I could. By doing this, I was able to understand the participants’ perception of MPIPV, and as the researcher, made sense of the data I gathered. I moved between the emic and etic perspectives.

The emic perspective protected me as a researcher and prevented me from mentally oversimplifying the data by including the behavioral and cognitive processes while neglecting to illuminate the complications of the mind. By looking at the data from an outsider’s perspective, I had the opportunity to develop high-level insights and themes. The etic perspective allowed me to examine the data through a psychological and emotional lens by helping me to illuminate my understanding of my research problem (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014).

The guidelines for IPA are flexible and can be adapted to the researcher’s objective with the beginning stage of IPA utilizing and iterative handling of the transcripts (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). The steps that I took to analyze the data are below in Figure 3. In my study, I read the transcripts and listened to the audio tapes a number of times before deleting the audio recordings as required by the IRB. This process helped me to immerse myself in the data, recalling the atmosphere, and the setting in which I conducted the interviews.

I noted any insights directly on each page of the transcripts as I repeatedly went through the data. I made notes about my observations and reflections on the interview experience in addition to other significant thoughts that focused on what actually occurred. I noted uses of metaphors, repetitions, and pauses. I initially transcribed each
interview using Microsoft Word, so that I could format it appropriately, to include all the necessary details, such as pauses, metaphors, empty spaces and even chuckles.

I then transferred the transcripts into a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet. Six column headings were created for (a) first level coding; (b) second level coding; (c) third level coding (themes); (d) interview questions and probes; (3) research questions; and (f) participants’ identification. This organization of pertinent and relevant headings was such that I could easily manage the data, assigning codes line by line with the ability to filter and retrieve specific codes relating to specific statements or comments from individual participants. I highlighted as much as possible any unique phrases and emotional responses.

The transcriptions yielded approximately fifty-five pages of data, typed, and double-spaced. The initial coding strategy called open coding yielded approximately 413 codes. Open coding is carefully reading the data and identifying all statements relating to the research question, assigning each statement a category or a code. The codes and each relevant statement are then placed under the most suitable code (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). Fifty-three emergent themes evolved from the 413 initial codes. All relevant statements were assigned to a specified theme.

I proceeded to the next stage of the analysis process by reading through the data again, looking for new statements that might fit into any of the newly created themes. By means of axial coding (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014), I continued searching for patterns and similarities looking for connections between the emerging themes. I grouped them together according to their conceptual similarities creating clusters. From these fifty-three
clustered themes, twelve higher-level themes emerged, and received descriptive labels. Clustered themes from the data are in Appendix F.

The study methodologist verified that the method and codes represent the phenomenon being investigated, reducing the uncertainty of incorrect interpretation (Maxwell, 2013). Again, all statements fitted under the theme that was most relevant to its meaning. At this point in the analytic process, I confirmed that the part is understood as part of the whole, and the whole is understood as relating to the part, an example of the Hermeneutic Circle, the basis of phenomenology (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014).

*Figure 2.* The hermeneutic circle.

The hermeneutic circle is a circular process of continuously examining and reexamining the data through continuous movement providing an understanding of the data to enable correct interpretation (Tuohy, Cooney, Dowling, Murphy, & Sixsmith. 2013). For example, I examined and reexamined codes, categories and themes to be able to understand and interpret the data, as it reflects the whole as a sum of its parts, and the parts the sum of the whole.
Smith (2009) described a method of interpretative phenomenological analysis to capture the exhaustive description of the basic structure of MPIPV. This study examined the lived experiences of adolescent girls who witnessed their mothers abusing their fathers, and the meanings they give to their experiences. The phenomenon was uncovered by analyzing the emergent themes as well as reviewing the thematic memos, and rotating back to address the main and sub research questions driving the investigation of the phenomenon.
Data Analysis Steps

Step 1
Read and re-read data listening to tape recordings to become familiar with content and patterns and developing descriptive comments on the interview transcripts.

Step 2
Reduce data by collapsing data into labels to create first level categories asking how and what questions to understand the meaning behind the participants’ words.

Step 3
Read through again and reduce data by collapsing data into labels to create second level categories, ensuring that all codes fall into a category.

Step 4
Read transcripts again in order to find new codes. Combine codes under overarching themes that accurately depicts what the data is saying. Each individual coding or codes must fit under a category.

Step 5
Provide a comprehensive analysis of what the themes represent in interpreting the data, using direct quotes from participants to show credibility of research, and in helping to answer the research question.

Figure 3. Steps in interpretative phenomenology analysis.
**Issues of Trustworthiness**

Employing the appropriate design was a critical requirement to address and answer the research questions (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 2002). In order to ensure trustworthiness in a qualitative study, such as phenomenology, credibility, confirmability, dependability, and transferability, key strategies needed consideration (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To ensure rigor and trustworthiness in this study, I established credibility. Credibility emphasized the interpretations and the concepts of the research determining whether the research can be trusted and was believable (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I crosschecked thematic findings, which allowed me to cross-validate interpretations of any data overlooked and enhanced my awareness of different meanings of stories told by participants. This crosschecking occurred a few times.

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested confirmation of trustworthiness by using internal and external validity strategies to confirm my findings. I employed the technique of triangulation with my methodologist in order to cross-examine the analyzation process I used and the findings. Triangulation is a process that allowed a thorough review of the complexity and richness of the collected data, by examining it from a perspective other than the researcher’s (Creswell, 2013).

I used member checking immediately during and after the interview to allow participants opportunity to provide explanations to meanings (Charmaz, 2006). Member checking is a technique qualitative researchers used to (a) assist in the improvement of accuracy and (b) confirm that interpretation of the interviews corresponded or agreed with participant experiences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member checking was appropriate
either during the interview or at the end (Creswell, 2013). I employed member checking during and at the end of the interviews. The IRB requested that no further member checking be done for this study. I engaged a colleague who was also a qualitative researcher as a peer reviewer to ensure that all procedures met the study guidelines.

Transferability is determining whether the research was transferable over the boundaries of the project (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The participants were able to provide rich and thick description of MPIPV, because they lived with it. Participants were of varied age group (18 and above) and offered different types of data based on their experience. To account for dependability of my study findings, I kept an audit trail in my journal, which shows the systematic process of data collection and analysis (Janesick, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulation was also a method to account for dependability (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Confirmability was a measure of how accurately the collected data supported and reinforced the findings (Patton, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994). My role as an emic reflexive researcher ensured that the collected data and findings from the study agreed. As I conducted this study, I tried to remember these strategies and ingrained them into my mind to ensure that the results emerge as trustworthy and of a high quality (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

**Ethical Procedures**

Ethical issues were always of great importance in this research. As in other qualitative research paradigms, ethical issues were important in hermeneutic phenomenology. Some issues must be carefully monitored and evaluated while
conducting this kind of research. Besides the ethical standards proposed by qualitative researchers, such as Creswell (2013), who suggested using aliases to protect the privacy of participants, clarification of the purpose and procedure, obtaining informed consent, and not disclosing participants identifications prior to the start of the study were important (Kafle, 2011).

I received approval from Walden University Institutional Review Board’s (IRB) to conduct this study on April 7, 2015 (# 04-07-15-0289927). No data collection or recruitment of participants occurred prior to receiving this approval. Included in the IRB application was an assessment of the study requirements, outlining benefits and risks to participants. Also included, were statements regarding early withdrawal from the study, privacy and confidentiality. No confidential information or language suggestive of discrimination or bias in any form was on the recruitment flyer.

Participants received further information about the study after they expressed interest by calling this researcher. Participants were advised that the inclusion criteria of choosing English speaking participants only was to avoid the cost of employing a translator, since I speak only English.

In this study, all participants received the utmost respect. No exploitation occurred because of my personal objective of earning an advanced degree. Face-to-face interview of participants was at their convenience and choice of location. Participants were advised of their right to stop the interview and drop out of the study at any time, if they so desire, for any reason. I provided to participants the informed consent document in a language that they understood outlining to them the risks and benefits associated with
participation in the trial. The informed consent specified to participants that participation in the study was voluntary and participants were free to withdraw at any time if they felt uncomfortable. They received information about risks and benefits and the protection of their privacy.

Ten potential participants responded to the recruitment flyer and protocol. Only five completed the interviews. Saturation occurred at three participants and interviews from five yielded sufficient data for analysis. I expect to have the results of the study published to verify that I made every effort to consider and report any bias in analyzing the data. No participant became overwhelmed or emotionally distraught while interviewing, therefore a mental health counselor was not needed, even though one was available in case a need emerged.

Confidentiality was a critical issue in data collection and data analysis in research (Creswell, 2009). I provided information to participants about the confidentiality of their personal identities and their data. I advised them that I would use fictitious names in any written report about the study. None of the participants were closely connected or related to this researcher.

All written documentation on the computer is password protected for appropriate data management. A hard copy representing a backup copy in case of computer glitches is stored in a locked file drawer with other study documents at the researchers’ place of residence. Only this researcher has access to this study’s documents. Study documents are available for release to Walden University, if the need arose. All records and data
connected to this study are stored in a locked file drawer in the researcher’s home. After five years, I will destroy this material physically and electronically.

According to the American Psychological Association (APA) Code of Ethics for social science researchers, my responsibility as a researcher was to ensure appropriate behavior from everyone participating in this study. I ensured the protection of participants from harm, as much as possible, by not asking questions that would cause them to remember embarrassing and painful details of lived events (APA, 2009). Their privacy and confidentiality were paramount in the research and protected by assuring them that I would not publish any data that would cost them the loss of a job, a promotion, lowered income, or get them arrested.

**Conclusion**

As qualitative methods of inquiry continue to become more widely used across research institutions, more practical guides for the implementation of protocols have appeared in peer reviewed journals. Participants in this study were from a vulnerable population; therefore, special approval was required to conduct this study. The approval number is 04-07-15-0289927, granted on April 7, 2015. This phenomenological study design was appropriate for understanding the lived experience of the study participants in order to raise awareness about the phenomenon of interparent violence. This chapter provided a summary of research design and methodology for a phenomenological qualitative study. Chapter 4 will be a discussion of the study results.
Chapter 4: Results:

The purpose of this hermeneutic interpretative phenomenological (IP) study was to examine and understand the lived experiences and meanings adolescent girls ascribe to maternal perpetrated interparent violence (MPIVP). The study focused on understanding the perceptions and attitudes toward fathers who experienced MPIPV, and whether there were implications for the socialization and development of adolescent girls.

This chapter is a presentation of the study results, followed by a discussion of the organization and analysis of the data. Next, I explained how patterns and themes emerged from the analysis and I addressed the main research question and sub-questions. Finally, I included a discussion of the procedures supporting the accuracy of the data.

Participants

All participants were at different levels in their education. Tiffany was an 18-year-old, high school senior. She lived at home with her mother who separated from her stepfather, the only father she ever knew. She had one older sister. Camille was 20 years old with an Associate degree. She was single with no children, lived with parents, and was employed.

Tatyana was 21 years old, a sophomore in college, and lived with her mother and an older sister. Both Shanah and Valerie were 22 years old, Shanah had an Associate degree, was married, but lived alone with a young child. Valerie was a new college graduate with a Bachelor’s degree. She worked as an assistant coach at a local high school. She was in a dating relationship, but lived alone. Based on information from
participants, all incidents of witnessing MPIPV reported in the interviews happened
during the adolescent years (12 – 17).

Table 1

Participants' Demographic Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Relationship Type</th>
<th>No. of Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tiffany</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>H S Senior</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camille</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>African American</td>
<td>Associate’s</td>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tatyana</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Valerie</td>
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Analyzing the Data

In this section, I describe the procedures I followed to analyze the data in
accordance with an interpretative phenomenological method presented in Smith, Flowers
and Larkin (2009), and Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014). In level one of coding the data,
413 initial codes emerged. I then reread the data, went through each one of the codes,
assigned them to a group or pattern reflecting higher-level codes and ensured that each of
the 413 level one codes fell under a category. This process resulted in 53 level two codes
(Appendix F). I again read the new codes and again combined, assigned, and developed
new themes that would best reduce, yet accurately represent the data. The final listing of themes is presented in Table 2, and is reflective of all the participants’ experiences.

Table 2

*Clustered Themes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Participants</th>
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<tr>
<td>Witnessing MPIPV</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reacting to MPIPV</td>
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<td>Being unaware and uninvolved</td>
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<td>Coping and dealing with MPIPV</td>
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<td>Understanding parental dynamics</td>
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<td>Showing respect/admiration</td>
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<td>Feeling unsafe, and uncertain</td>
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<td>Lacking trust/confidence</td>
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<td>Identifying social problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>Managing interpersonal communication</td>
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<td>Evaluating female control</td>
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Tiffany | Valerie | Camille | Sharah | Tatyana |
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95
Formulating Themes and Answering Research Questions

In forming themes, I combined the code parts, such as threatening with a weapon, hearing threats, quarrelling, fighting, arguing, screaming, yelling, cursing, breaking glass, showing aggression, throwing plates, slamming doors, seeing violence, etc., to form the theme, Witnessing MPIPV (See Appendix I for formation of other themes). These themes reflected the answer to the main research question: What is the lived experience of adolescent girls who witness their mothers abusing their fathers? The themes represented characteristics of the phenomenon under investigation. By reflecting, journaling, and memoing (Moustakas, 1994), I endeavored to capture the essence of MPIPV.

The following subsection on the findings covers the forming of themes to answer the research questions. The themes are not presented in hierarchical order, but as they emerged from the data. Quotations from the participants (Appendix F) are included to support the themes and ensure that their voices are heard. According to Pietkiewicz and Smith (2014), all data in a phenomenological study are important, and researchers should avoid numbering to eliminate a sense of hierarchy in the data. Therefore the themes are not numbered.

Moustakas (1994) suggested that researchers understand that in a phenomenological research study, the research questions facilitate an exploration of the complexities of human experiences described through language rather than the measurement of quantitative issues. By focusing on the perceptions and experiences of young adult women, I hoped that this study will not only deepened the understanding of MPIPV in the adolescent girls’ population, but also bring to parents, communities and the
general population awareness about the relationship between fathers who have experience MPIPV and their adolescent daughters. In general, the IPA guidelines for analysis are flexible and adaptable by individual researchers according to their research objectives (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014).

Figure 4: Research questions and theme

In this study, I sought to present the voices of late adolescence/young adult women as they shared their experiences with MPIPV, by using the emergent themes from the analysis of all participants to answer the research questions at the same time. Full comments from each participant supporting each research question and theme appear in Appendix F. Only excerpts of comments are in this chapter. Figure 4 shows the research questions and the themes to answer them. In a phenomenological study such as this, all themes had the same level of importance (Smith & Larkin, 2009).
Research Question

What was the lived experience of adolescent girls who witnessed their mothers abusing their fathers? The lived experience of adolescent females who witnessed MPIPV included: (a) witnessing MPIPV, (b) reacting to MPIPV, (c) understanding female control issues, being unaware and uninvolved with MPIPV, and (d) coping with witnessing the violence. Adolescent females lived experience also included (e) understanding the parental dynamics, (f) experiencing poor communication between themselves and their parents, (g) showing respect and admiration for the father in the face of violence, and (h) feeling unsafe and uncertain about family protection. Furthermore, (a) lacking trust and confidence in parents, (b) identifying social problems, and (c) making sense of their perceptions and their attitudes toward their fathers, were lived experiences of adolescent females. A brief explanation of each of the findings appears below as themes which emerged from the analyzation of the data. I used each theme to provide the answer to the appropriate relevant research question. Theme 1 follows:

Theme 1: Witnessing MPIPV

All of the women witnessed their mothers attacking their fathers. In some instances the mother threatened the father with weapons, such as a knife and/or a hammer. In other instances the mother threw objects, such as plates and dog food, at the father. Sometimes mom and dad argued, but often it seemed mom started the fight.

According to the young women, most of the time, the issue started out as something small, but then would escalate to a full-blown fight. The father may have done something that the mother disapproved of and a fight would ensue. Sometimes the mother
would be inebriated and behave badly. In Valerie’s case, she reported that her mother threatened her father and would not let him see the children unless he gave her money. If he did not, he would often be kicked out of the house. All five participants related their experiences of witnessing a fight initiated by the mother. (Appendix F). The following sub-questions help to illuminate the answer to the main question.

**Research Sub-Question #1**

Research sub-question #1 was, *According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, what factors, activities, actions and or reaction shaped their experiences?* In a home where mother abuse father, adolescent daughters reported that their experiences were shaped by the violence to which they must often react. Their reactions included (a) experiencing emotional distress, (b) getting involved in inappropriate actions/behaviors/and conducts, and (b) dealing with anger management issues. Theme 2 relates how the young women react to MPIPV violence.

**Theme 2: Reacting to MPIPV**

All participants reacted to witnessing violence (i.e., mom perpetrating a fight against dad) in basically the same way. According to the young women, they became emotionally distressed, very angry, upset, scared and fearful. They became afraid, anxious, stressed and tense. They experienced feelings of sadness and felt frightened and confused. Tiffany, Camille and Tatyana reported that they often cried and felt sorry for dad. They were often embarrassed watching mom hurt dad. They ran and hid, because they were not sure what would have happened next. Tiffany said she became confused. Valerie said she was somewhat naïve about her surroundings. Tiffany and Valerie said
they stayed out of the fight and did not get involved. Camille, Shanah, and Tatyana said they ran and hid in their rooms during the fight. Shanah stated she felt like she was “walking on eggshells” because of the tension that existed in the house after a fight. Their statements, as noted in Appendix F, further amplified their reactions from witnessing a fight where mom started the fight.

Anger was a major reaction to MPIPV and fell under the theme of reacting to MPIPV. All five participants reported their experience of anger from witnessing MPIPV: Tiffany said she got angry when she had an argument and a fight with her sister. She called her sister names and threatened to kill her. She stated she felt as if she was repeating what she saw her mom did.

Valerie specified that she had anger management issues when she was younger, but channeled it in a positive way. When she felt angry, she would use her aggressive energies to fight off bullies, harassing weaker students. Camille stated she got angry and sad when she witnessed her parents fighting. She did not want to be home. She would often go a friend’s house.

Sharah informed she often took the car without a license, just to get away from it. Tatyana said she often acted out at school and took out her anger on everyone.

Tatyana: It was … um, … like it was a repeat ‘cause … um … last year when I was in arguments with my sister and then at one point we actually end up fighting and then, I was like, I was really mad and angry. And then I was yelling at her and calling her names, and then she was doing the same and then at one point, I was
telling her how I was going to kill her, and then I did what my mom did. I grabbed a knife, and then it was like a repeat of what she did.

Responses from the other women appear in Appendix F, showing how these participants dealt with their anger.

Negative behaviors, actions and conduct were significant issues in reacting to MPIPV. All the participants reported witnessing offensive or unrefined behavior and hearing demeaning words from mother when she attacked their father. She called him names and cursed him. Tiffany was surprised to hear her mother using those curse words, because she could not use them as a young child or a teenager. Valerie reported that her mother was sometimes drunk when she cursed and used demeaning words to describe her father. She also believed that her stepfather was submissive and that is why her mother treated him with such an aggressive manner.

Sharah said she became confused and retreated to her room to write poetry. Tatyana felt reluctant and stated she was embarrassed to repeat some of the words her mother called her dad. Camille was the only participant indicating that she was not upset at hearing the words mom used to demean her dad because she had heard them a lot.

Even though Goddard (2015) suggested that including offensive words in the analyzation helps to provide true interpretation of the data, out of respect for readers of this dissertation, I did not include all the curse words. Snippets from Tiffany and Valerie’s comments appear below.
Tiffany: She was cursing at him and yelling… ...horrible curse words …and … then she was just … I can’t remember all of them, but it was a whole bunch of stuff, she was yelling

Valerie: I mean … a no good bastard… Pretty much all the curse words; all the spectrum of the curse words that you know. She would tell them …like… they are good for nothing.

Full comments are in Appendix F. The response to research sub-question #2 follows:

Research Sub-Question #2

According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers how did these experiences affect their feelings about themselves? The young women reported how they felt about themselves after witnessing MPIPV. Each one showing in her response that she developed her feelings about herself based on her own experience and not on anyone else. They all viewed and handled paternal abuse in different ways. Their feelings about themselves did not appear to change over time. However, they all had fears about repeating the behaviors they saw in their mothers, including controlling their future intimate partner(s).

The women had fears about physically hurting someone or someone physically hurting them. They dealt with issues, such as female control, unaware of what is going on around them, and coping with MPIPV. Only Tiffany and Valerie spoke about the impact of female control on their behavior, but all five had to deal with coping with MPIPV and unawareness and non-involvement in their daily lives.
**Theme 3: Evaluating Female Control**

Female control issues though significant in two participants’ experiences did not seem to be a pervasive and prevalent factor with all participants, as did other issues. Based on Tiffany’s response, she perceived that her mom was justified in fighting because she was protecting herself and looking out for her family. Tiffany believed that her stepfather had to leave the house if he had no money. Camille thought that her mom was justified because her husband was cheating on her and Sharah made no comment about control.

Valerie, however, stood out among the participants, as she laid out the details in her home as a teenager. She believed that her mom was controlling and mean as she prevented dad from seeing the children unless he gave her money. She also thought that she was afraid of mom, because she did not realize that she had such evil ways about her. She felt that the men in her mom’s life, including her father, were submissive and subservient with mom manipulating the situations to get what she wanted.

Valerie said at one point, she viewed her dad as weak, but her opinion changed as she grew older and understood the dynamics in the relationship between her mom and her dad. Valerie felt that her mom “ran” (controlled) her father and stepfather. She felt that her mother’s manipulative behaviors gave her the wrong perception of her dad. As a teenager, she often did not know what the fight was about, as she learned to “stay out of grown folks business”. Furthermore, she believed that she adopted the controlling ways of her mother.
Valerie: …but it was kind of like … it was kind of like… putting him down, throwing him down, pretty much kicking him down while he was down, because he had no control, ’cause he pretty much was in a wrong kind of situation. But, at the same time, she was using it like an upper hand no matter what you see on TV and in real life you don’t see women like running over men and like pretty much demeaning them.

Valerie continued….I didn’t feel it was supposed to be done that way, but as I said, now that I am older, I realize that’s its why I acted the way I acted when I was in high school like I am never scared of any males. Like, I am not scared of boys like they would try to bully people, but I wouldn’t stand down because I was not scared of them, because my mom showed me not to be scared of them.

Valerie also indicated that she was controlling in her own relationships when she first started dating. She confessed that, “I dated boys that I ran,” in other words, she controlled them from a young age and they would have to listen to her.

**Theme 4: Being Unaware and Uninvolved**

All participants were unaware of what was going on with their parents when fights broke out. In addition, they did not seem to know how mother would react, once she was in the middle of a fight she started. According to the young women, this uncertainty made them scared and fearful. Tiffany and Valerie were brought up to “stay out of grown folks business”, more so Valerie. Valerie believed her youth caused her to be naïve about her home situation, and she did not want to get involved.
Tiffany stated that she did not want to get involved because she did not understand what was going on. Camille thought that feeling angry and being sad were normal behaviors, because she experienced those feelings so much. She stated that she became confused and did not know what to do. Sharah commented that she did not know what caused the problem, but she did not like to see or hear the fight so she went to her room. Tatyana also said she did not know what was happening. She said she tried to stop the fight, but did not succeed.

**Tiffany:** I was not going to get involved because I didn’t understand. I didn’t…I didn’t know what was going on, but I was just watching… I think at one point I was saying stuff…, but then again, I was just sitting there. …I didn’t know what she was going to tell me. I was just like …. I am not going to get myself into that.

**Theme 5: Coping and Dealing with MPIPV**

All five women expressed their feelings of dissatisfaction with watching fights between their parents and wanting to leave their environment. They all indicated that they ran away or tried to run away from home at some point to cope with their stressful feelings and escape the violence. Tiffany explained that she “did not want to get into that.” She had a major fight with her sister and threatened her as she saw her mother did. She had to go outside of the house to calm down.

Camille indicated that she hid in her room or sneaked out to a friend’s house to escape seeing and hearing the violence. Sharah went to her grandfather’s house or slammed the door, locking herself in her room. She also wrote poetry in order to cope and
escape. One time she drove the car illegally, just to get away from hearing and seeing the violence.

Tatyana tried to escape the violence by going outside to play sports. On one occasion, Tatyana and her sister tried to get in between their parents in order to stop the fighting. Valerie took the position that she was going to “removed her-self from the situation and stayed in her room all day.” She was raised to “stay out of grown folks business.” See Appendix F for supporting comments.

Research Sub-Question #3

According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, how did these experiences affect their relationship with both parents? In a home where mothers abused fathers, witnessing the violence affected the relationship between daughters and their parents. When the young women witnessed the violence, it (a) created a lack of trust and confidence in both parents. They felt (b) unsafe and unprotected during violent episodes. They thought about (d) how they communicated their thoughts to their parents. They discussed (e) the conflicts they experienced with each parent, (f) the support they received from each parent, as well as (g) the example their parents set in helping them to make the appropriate choice in future intimate relationship.

All of these issues affected the relationship with their parents. On the other hand, each young woman discussed the attachment or connection they had with their parents. All expressed the close relationships with their parents, in spite of the violence, indicating paradoxical relationships. Themes 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 addressed the parental relationship experienced by adolescent girls who witnessed MPIPV.
Theme 6: Understanding Parental Dynamics

The parental dynamics were the same for all participants. According to Tiffany, she was attached to her mother and her stepfather. She never met her biological father, so her stepfather was the only father she ever knew. She respected him and felt that he provided for her, but did not fill her social needs, while mother fulfilled her social needs. Her mother was about to divorce her stepfather, so he did not come around as often. She was not thrilled about future relationships because of the fights she saw between her mom and dad. She did not believe that people in love should be fighting.

Valerie, on the other hand, was in a mixed family situation because her mother married another man. She had healthy relationships with both her father and her stepfather, and they got along with each other. She saw her role as neutral, but was loyal to her mother, because her mother cared for her.

Camille related that she loved her father immensely in spite of his cheating ways. She considered herself a “daddy’s girl”. She believed that he was a strong man and could hurt her mom if he wanted to do so, but he chose not to hurt her. This action strengthened her attachment to her dad.

Sharah thought the relationship with her parents was like a “double edge sword”. She did not want to see either parent hurt. She just wanted them to stop fighting. They always supported her needs, but not with their time. Tatyana loved both parents equally. However, she was more attached to mother. It made her sad to see her parents fight. Her experiences occurred from her mid-teenage years.
The fathers of Tiffany, Valerie and Camille did not call the police after an attack, while the fathers of Sharah and Tatyana did. Tiffany felt that her father’s behavior suggested he did not care anymore. She did not think that he wanted to get her mom arrested, because he left the house. Valerie’s father did seem upset, but he did not try to hurt her mother. He appeared submissive, and most of the time he also would just leave the house. She did not think it was right for it to be done that way.

Camille’s father was scared and tried to run out of the house to get away from her mother at the time. Sharah, whose father called the police, said her father was angry and cursed at her mother. She was angry and very sad that her father called the police. Tatyana was scared when her father called the police. She too was afraid that her mom would be taken away from her. All five young women showed concern for both parents even after father did not call the police when mother attacked him.

**Theme 7: Showing Respect and Admiration**

Participants showed respect and admiration for parents in spite of the violence. Tiffany and Camille were happy that their dad did not call the police. Tiffany felt her mother fought only to protect herself. Camille expressed admiration for her dad for not trying to hurt her mom back and for not calling the police to arrest her. He could have done so, because a strong man and could have hurt her, if he wanted to do so. This behavior made her “love stayed.”

On the other hand, Sharah lost respect for her father as a youth, but changed her attitude as she got older. She said he had made the right decision for the family. Valerie
was the only participant who thought her father acted weak or showed weakness in his relationship with her mother.

All the young women acknowledged that they changed their attitude and became more respectful to their parents and other adults as they got older; however, during their youthful years, they were confused about fighting between their parents.

**Theme 8: Feeling Unsafe, and Uncertain**

After a fight with her father, Tiffany felt uncomfortable with her mother. She had fears that the police would remove her and her sister from the home. She later got over her fear. Tiffany, Camille, Sharah, and Tatyana were concerned that if dad called the police, mom would go to jail. They expressed their fears and uncertainty as to whether dad would protect them.

Tiffany, Camille, and Tatyana were happy that dad did not call the police or report the incident. However, Sharah questioned dad’s thinking for calling the police on her mom. She felt the situation was like a “double edge sword”. Tiffany later reflected on the incident and said that dad should have called the police. She trusted them to protect him, even though she was glad that he did not call the police. Valerie felt that her dad was weak, because he did not call the police.

Most people believed that a father shaped the self-confidence in his children. In the home, his presence as a physically strong man empowered his children especially his daughters, to feel safe, secure, and protected (Page, 2015). All five young women reported that they felt unsafe, as well as being unprotected, with their fathers at one point. During fights with mom, they were nervous and afraid for themselves and their fathers,
because they did not know what their mom would do when she was angry, especially in situations where he did not call the police. However, according to the young women, their moms did not attempt to hurt their them.

**Theme 9: Lack of Trust and Confidence in Father**

Tiffany explained that her dad was there for her for most things she needed, but he did not fulfill all her social needs. Valerie stated that she did love her dad and have confidence in him, but he appeared weak to her when he called the police. Sharah felt that she did not trust her dad, because he called the police on her mom. However, she changed her thinking about him, as she got older. Camille recognized that her father’s cheating on her mom, caused the fight, and therefore made her not trust her intimate partners. Similarly, Tatyana said she blamed mom and dad’s violence for the lack of trust that she had in her intimate relationships. She said, “I don’t trust no dudes, period.”

Trust and confidence are important attributes between a teenage girl and her father. The young women needed to know that they could trust their fathers to be there to protect them, not only physically, but emotionally (Nielsen, 2011). When adolescent girls trusted and had confidence in their fathers, they often made good choices in intimate partners. Lack of trust and confidence were evident in MPIPV witnessed by these participants.

**Theme 10: Managing Interpersonal Communication**

Managing interpersonal communication was important for all of the young women. Tiffany, Camille, Sharah and Tatyana responded that poor communications were commonplace between them and their parents, especially when they had a fight. When
Tiffany questioned her mother about the fight, her mother told her that she was too young to understand. Valerie felt that it was none of her business what was going on with her parents. According to Valerie, she was raised to “stay out of grown folks business,” and a fight to her was grown folks business. So no communication took place about the fight with her. When Camille’s mom was enraged, there was no talking to her. Tatyana also indicated there is no talking to her mom, “when she is at that point, she is at that point.”

**Tatyana:** Well ... my dad, he’ll come sit with all of us…. like it’s five of us … and explain why she is so angry… because he did this or because he did that, … and… he shouldn’t a done it… but my mom … there is really no talking to her. When she is at that point, she is at that point.

**Research Sub-Question #4**

*According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, how did these experiences affect their relationships outside the home?* Adolescent girls believed that the experience of witnessing violence in the home affected their relationships outside of the home by creating unnecessary social problems in their everyday lives. Social problems included: (a) being cantankerous and/or contentious with peers for no apparent reason, (b) showing disrespect to teachers and other adults, (d) failing in academic pursuits, (e) experiencing the distress of insomnia, which resulted in the inability to focus on studies, and (d) having a lack of confidence in choosing intimate partners.
Theme 11: Identifying Social Problems

The participants spoke of the social issues they encountered because of witnessing interparent violence in the home: Tiffany was more respectful to adults as she got older than in the past. She mentioned that witnessing MPIPV between her parents made her want to get into fights affecting her relationship with her peers. However, she also felt that her mom was protecting herself when she fought.

Valerie specified that in middle school, she was very angry and tried to use her anger in positive ways, but it did not always work. When she went to college, she became involved in track and field and ended up winning a full-ride scholarship to play sports. Now plays sports to help her deal with anger issues.

In her teenaged days Camille was snappy with adults, even though she was taught to be respectful to her elders. However, her relationships were different with her peers, because she did not want to be bothered with them socially. When Sharah saw fighting between her parents as a teenager, the behavior rubbed off on her. She found herself arguing and fighting with her peers, because she thought fighting was the way to go. Tatyana was involved in so many fights that she was suspended from school, and the principal had to visit her home.

All participants discussed disruptive behavior on their part because of their experiences with witnessing MPIVP. Tiffany displayed disruptive behavior at school when she was upset, thinking about the fight between her parents and what people were saying about her. Valerie kicked one of her classmates in the shin because he made her
really upset. She was up the night before because of a fight between her parents, and was sleep deprived. That was the only time she was ever violent.

Camille refused to do her schoolwork, prompting her teachers to question her behavior as to why she was not doing her work. Similar to Valerie, Sharah behaved badly when she did not get any sleep all night long. When someone said something causing her to lash out at that person, she explained the behavior was related to what is going on at home. She also refused to listen to her teachers. Tatyana was suspended every week because of fighting a lot for no apparent reason.

Witnessing MPIVP also affected the confidence of teenage girls in choosing an appropriate intimate partner. This area was covered under the theme Understanding Parental Dynamics, but was worth mentioning here again because of its importance. Fathers assist in building self-confidence in their daughters. Girls learn to value themselves the way their fathers value them. If they witness violence without affection, their sense of worth is diminished. Tiffany changed her perception and thinking about the marital relationship because of witnessing the fight. For Valerie, when she was in college and taking sociology classes, she began to understand the reasons for some of her behaviors.

**Theme 12: Making Sense of MPIPV**

In trying to make sense of their lived experience, all five women recognized that issues came about because of the violence they experienced in their teenaged years. They experienced issues, such as (a) feeling bad for their fathers, (b) being indifferent about violence, (c) feeling estranged from family, and (e) observing pretense or facade from
father. All showed compassion towards their father, in spite of his weaknesses and often changed their attitudes toward him, as they grew older. In general, none of the women changed their perception about their fathers, even after they did not call the police for protection. They admitted that they later admired him for not calling the police. They often had a wrong perception of him, when they were younger. Feeling protected was very important to girls, and they often perceived their father as strong and able to protect them.

Camille: At that time, I felt like he did the right thing, because he could have … Most of … from what I knew, because he could have fought back… but he didn’t… that showed me that a man isn’t supposed to hit a woman. Because, it’s kinda …like …and you look at your dad …and dad is supposed to do things, and kinda teach the girls the kind of boyfriends, man, or husbands that she is supposed to have. …So by him not doing that … it makes me feel that he did the right thing and that is what every man should do. Aam … I now know, as an adult that he should have called the police, because it happened more than once, by him not calling the police. His behavior did not change how I view him though.

Sharah: At the time when he did it, I was angry with him… I was angry. I have friends that experienced it, but I never experienced it. All kids want both parents so it was kind of a double edge sword for me.

In sum, adolescent girls lived experience of MPIPV in the home affected their relationships with their parents. Witnessing MPIPV also had an effect on their external relationships including the relationship with their intimate partners. The implications
from MPIPV were that some adolescents experienced more ill effects than others did. In
general, witnessing the violence affected the socialization skills of young girls. The
following sections are discussions about the trustworthiness of the study, discrepant
cases, and the chapter summary.

**Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness in this study was ensured as much as was possible. I recorded
each interview on two forms of tape recording and personally transcribed them as soon as
possible after the interview, usually the same day. This procedure ensured accuracy of
data and a verbatim transcription of the interview. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested
that ensuring credibility occurs by interacting with participants, as much as possible. I
developed rapport with participants, so that I could contact any one of them, if need be, to
clarify what they meant when the tape recording was not clear. The field notes taken
assisted in the triangulation of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Purposive sampling of young women who witnessed MPIPV allowed for
transferability of the study to other settings. As well, a dense and detailed explanation of
the study results and literature search supported the findings. My methodologist, versed
in qualitative coding and analysis, provided expert assistance in reviewing the codes and
agreeing on the adopted themes and categories to support confirmability, as suggested by

Member checking occurred during and at the end of the interviews to ensure
accuracy in capturing the participants’ essence and meanings. Due to the sensitive nature
of the data collected, the IRB required that member checking (second interview) be
removed from the data collection steps to ensure complete privacy and safety of participants. Thus, participants agreed to a 15-20 minutes follow-up if necessary, but follow-up was not needed.

To ensure accuracy of data, I went over my field notes with each participant at the end of the first interview to clarify any unclear wording or statement. Although all agreed to further contact, further contact was not necessary because I recorded the interviews using two forms of recording and was careful to personally transcribe with accuracy, the exact words of the participants. Based on instructions from Walden University’s IRB, I destroyed all recordings immediately after transcription to protect the privacy of participants, should any implicating data be revealed about any ongoing case. To my knowledge, no implicating data appeared in these interviews.

**Discrepant Cases**

Discrepant cases occurring in this study reflected in Themes 3 and 10, Evaluating Female Control and Managing Interpersonal Communication, respectively. Female control issues though apparent in the experiences of Tatyana and Valerie did not seem to be an issue for Camille, Sharah or Tatyana. Camille did not think that her mother was controlling, but reacted from the hurt that she was feeling from finding out about dad’s cheating ways. Normally, her mom was kind and loving, “I loved my mom,” she said. Dad provided for the family, so mom did not try to control him. She was just upset at what he did.

Sharah made no comment on control issues with her mom. She believed that her mom initiated the fight because she was inebriated or intoxicated at the time. Tatyana felt
that mom’s aggressive behavior was because she had anger issues. She attacked dad at any time for things he did, but would not explain why she did what she did. Dad on the other hand explained, why she was upset, but he also fought with mom behind closed doors. Tatyana believed that her mom just could not control her anger, “When she is at that point, she’s at that point, and there is no talking to her.”

Tiffany, Camille, Sharah, and Tatyana spoke about the need to communicate with their parents and for their parents to communicate with each other rather than turning to fighting as a solution. Valerie did not need to communicate with her parents about the fight, because she was raised to “stay out of grown folks business.” A fight to her was grown folks business. When no communication from parents occurred, adolescent girls became confused and withdrew from family activities.

Summary

This chapter included the description of the data collection and analysis sections of the study. I presented and used the themes developed from the data and answered the main research questions and sub-questions simultaneously. The themes were supported by verbatim transcripts from the interview of five participants (see Appendix F), and were also from my reflexive notes during data collection. The 12 themes that emerged from the data were: (a) witnessing MPIPV, (b) reacting to MPIPV, (c) understanding female control issues, (d) being unaware and uninvolved, (e) coping with MPIPV, (f) understanding parental dynamics, (g) respecting and admiring father, (h) feeling unsafe and uncertain about protection in the family, (i) lack of trust and confidence issues, (j)
understanding interpersonal communication with parents, (k) identifying social problems and (l) making sense of IPV.

All participants experienced the phenomenon of interparent fighting initiated by their mothers. They all lived through the experience and handled it in much the same way with the same behaviors. In reacting to MPIPV, participants experienced sadness, anger, emotional distress and many other discomforts that surfaces during the witnessing of violence.

Some participants felt that their mom controlled the home environment and behaved aggressively to get what she wanted, which was money. Most participants did not understand the reason for fighting therefore became confused as to what to do. One participant felt unconcerned because she thought fighting was “grown folks business.” Participants tried to cope with fighting, by running away to relative’s homes, playing sports, staying in their rooms behind locked doors, or becoming engaged in illegal activities.

Frequently, participants became confused about the role of their parents and the examples they set, while other participants blamed parents for their choices because of their violent behavior. Participants believed more communication needed to occur between parent and child. One participant felt that father was weak, because he called the police during mom’s violent episode, but others thought father did the right thing to protect them and mother. Overall, participants tried to make sense of their situation and hoped that mom and dad would find other ways of solving problems other than fighting.
In Chapter 5, I will interpret and discuss the findings of the study: The discussion connects to the theoretical framework previously outlined in Chapter 3. Also included will be the limitations of the study, recommendations for further studies, and implications for social change and a conclusion.
Chapter 5: Discussion: Interpretation of Findings: Recommendation

Introduction

The purpose of this interpretative phenomenological study of maternal perpetrated IPV (MPIPV) was to examine and understand the lived experiences and the meanings adolescent females ascribe to MPIPV, as well as to understand their perceptions and attitudes toward their fathers. A need existed for research to raise awareness and provide further understanding in this area of interparent violence. This chapter provides an overview of the rationale for the study, its findings and interpretation, limitations of the study, recommendations for future studies, implications for social change, and a conclusion.

Overview

Research shows that adolescent females experienced confusion regarding the changes taking place in their physical development and their mental attitudes (Allgood, Beckert, & Peterson, 2012). In the literature it was unclear how and whether witnessing father abuse affected their development and socialization during this sensitive period of life. Researchers have posited that an adolescent girl’s perception of her father’s behavior significantly affected her social development (Allgood, Beckert, & Peterson, 2012).

My examination of the literature showed that girls were the fastest group entering the juvenile justice system in 2013 (NCSL, 2013). The search also revealed that the expression of feelings by adolescent girls’ about witnessing episodes of MPIPV was understudied (Allgood, Beckert, & Peterson, 2012; Allen & Daly, 2007; Grohol, 2012; Howell, Barnes, Miller, & Graham-Bermann, 2014).
In this study, I focused on the implications of witnessing father abuse and its socialization for female adolescents who may perceive their father as weak and not able to protect them. Examining the phenomenon of IPV from the perspective of MPIVP allowed me to understand my assumption, that witnessing father abuse has implications for adolescent girls, bringing further awareness and understanding to the meanings adolescent girls give to witnessing fathers being abused. Findings from this study will contribute to the current literature by outlining strategies on how better to assist young women who experience MPIVP and help them maintain positive mental health and social attitudes. Perhaps these findings will also stimulate positive social change by increasing the awareness of MPIVP amongst professional counselors and other human service professionals responsible for developing relevant educational interventions for this underserved group.

**Summary of Findings**

The overarching research question guiding this study was: What is the lived experiences of adolescent girls who witnessed their mothers abusing their fathers? Rigorous analysis of the transcribed data yielded 12 themes that I used to provide answers to the research question and sub-questions.

Two significant themes emerged as the central organizing variables addressing the primary research question. The themes were used to provide insight into the participants' meanings, perceptions and attitudes towards the phenomenon of MPIVP. These themes (1) witnessing MPIVP, and (2) reacting to MPIVP illuminated the understanding to
helping professionals that witnessing father abuse elicited anger, fear, anxiety, and emotional distress in addition to many other social ills for most adolescent girls.

Overall, I found that adolescent females reacted to these physical and emotional stresses by learning to cope with their individual experiences and family dynamics (e.g., their attachment to the family, communication in the family, and social learning behaviors). Adolescent females used their own strength, resources, and resilience to cope. They also drew upon the bond of attachment that parents and children usually share in spite of negative situations (i.e., violence in the home).

Four participants related that their lived experiences of hearing threats against their fathers manifested as feelings of anger, sadness, and confusion. One participant reported not being affected by the violence. She instead reported a feeling of wellbeing and happiness because violence was adult business and her role was to stay out of it. All participants reacted in their own way to the violence. As they became adults, their attitudes and perceptions of their fathers remained positive and had not changed considerably. They reported feelings for their fathers as either one of acceptance or mixed emotion during the young and mid-adolescent years.

Four sub-questions were used in unearthing the details of the participants’ stories. The sub-questions were: (1) According to young women, who as girls lived in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, what factors, actions and or reactions, shaped their experience? (2) According to young women, who as girls lived in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, how did these experiences affect their feelings about themselves? (3) According to young women, who as girls, lived in a home where their
mothers abused their fathers, how did these experiences affect their relationship with both parents? (4) According to young women, who as girls lived in a home where their mothers abused their fathers where their mothers abused their fathers, how did these experiences affect their relationship outside the home? Patterns from the data revealed that adolescent girls were confused about the violence, did not understand why it happened, and believed that parents needed to find ways of communicating and not resort to violence, especially in front of their children. Unconditional forgiveness also emerged from the data, when it showed that all of the young women still loved their father in spite of his behavior.

### Findings and Interpretation

The overall results of this study confirmed previous findings and extended knowledge in the discipline of human services, creating the potential for further awareness about MPIPV amongst service providers. Findings confirmed previous research that some women were as aggressive, or more aggressive than men in IPV. Additionally, I found that men underreport interparent violence (CDC, 2013; Hines, Douglas & McCarthy, 2012; Hoff, 2010).

A new finding was that fathers tended to underreport the abuse to protect their abuser (wife) and children from further abuse or stresses by police and the social welfare system. Several other findings confirmed that children and adolescents who witnessed parental violence were prone to developing emotional problems such as fear, anxiety, and anger towards themselves and others. They often became involved in activities that were detrimental to their wellbeing (Gover, 2012: Cook, 2009). Similarly, all participants
witnessed interparent violence. I interpreted the reactions to the violence of four participants, as supporting previous studies by implicating emotional distress, while only one participant did not experience any emotional distress.

**Female Dominance or Maternal Aggression in IPV**

Findings from this study confirmed the findings of Graham-Kevan and Archer (2009), and Dutton and White (2013) that women were as aggressive as or more aggressive than men during interparent violence. Clearly, mothers attacked fathers with force and without reason at times. They used demeaning words, punched and kicked, and at times used weapons and other objects to abuse their partners.

Some also used controlling behaviors and threats to get their husbands and/or the children’s fathers to submit to their will. In this study, all five participants reported that their mother was the initiator of the fights, even though some participants felt that she was justified in doing so when they understood the reasons for her fighting. Also confirmed was that women committed IPV against non-violent male partners more often than male partners against non-violent female partners. Moreover, when violence was seemingly unidirectional, only one of the parents perpetrated it (Hines & Douglas, 2011). It is important to note that only five young women participated in this study. There were no male participants.

Valerie described her mother as “mean.” She exerted control over her husbands and boyfriends through various threats such as preventing her ex-husband from seeing the children if he did not give her money. This reasoning suggested that some mothers believed that fighting to defend their selves is a justifiable or acceptable action.
Female control or maternal dominance in terms of trying to control men for power was not as prevalent in this study as expected. Only two participants (Tiffany and Valerie) discussed dominant controlling behaviors in their mothers. Tiffany believed that her mom was justified in fighting because she was protecting herself, and she needed money for the children. Valerie remarked that her mother was only ensuring financial security for the children. Thus, some females were aggressive in initiating violence, but perhaps their aggressive behavior was not because they wanted to take control or be in control of husbands and fathers. Rather they experienced hurt for one reason or another by husbands or partners and there was underlying anger. An investigation as to whether there is justification to violence in the home could provide more insight into MPIPV in terms of female control.

**Men Underreporting of IPV**

The findings that men underreported interparent violence are consistent with those in the literature (CDC, 2013; Hines, Douglas & McCarthy, 2012; Hoff, 2010). Fathers tended to be hesitant, reluctant, and/or unwilling to involve police in marital disputes due to fears of losing their children and their attackers (i.e., their spouse and/or the children’s mother). Fathers seemed to believe that the police would take them to jail and remove the children from the violent environment.

The fathers of Tiffany, Camille, and Tatyana did not call the police, but either left the house or ran and hid from their wives during incidents of IPV. They often left the house when attacked by a spouse in the presence of their daughter(s). The other two fathers did call the police. Valerie’s father called the police to scare his wife into stopping
the abuse, while Sharah’s father called because he was tired of her beating him repeatedly.

The reactions of the daughters were quite surprising. Tiffany, Camille and Tatyana were scared during the fight when the father did not call the police. However, they were later happy that he did not. They also did not change their perception of him. Sharah questioned her father as to why he called the police about her mother, when she never called the police about him. Thus, the father might have been the perpetrator at one time, which would confirm the data in the literature about bidirectional violence (Dutton & White, 2013).

Further understanding of the data showed the family dynamics occurring in terms of the girls being afraid of losing their mom if the police responded. They did not want mom to go to jail, and at the same time they did not believe or think that dad wanted mom to go to jail. Further research may uncover ongoing family dynamics of mixed messages occurring between parents and their teenaged daughters, and the reluctance of fathers to report MPIPV.

**Adolescent Socialization and Development**

Based on previous literature, the socialization and development of adolescent girls are often dependent on the relationship between the parents and their children. Violence at home often leads to emotional issues, anxiety, abandonment, and dependent attachment attitudes (Fitton, 2012). It is important for daughters to view fathers in a positive light, in terms of strength to protect them (Nielsen, 2011). When men report violence and abuse
by women, they may appear weak to their daughters (Douglas, Hines & McCarthy (2012).

In this study, one participant (Valerie) agreed with the literature by stating that she thought her father “appeared weak” when he called the police on her mother. She continued to say that his behavior was contrary to that which she had heard about other fathers, and what she had seen on TV. Valerie had a controlling mother, so her experience with father abuse was different from the other participants. Sharah questioned her father about calling the police on her mother. She had mixed reactions about his action. She thought the idea of her father calling the police was like a “double edged sword”, because she did not want her father or her mother to get hurt. The other three participants, Tiffany, Camille, and Sharah were happy and admired their father for not calling the police, even though, at first, they were scared about the violence. They believed that their father loved them and their mother, and was willing to undergo the abuse to keep them and their mom safe from the police, and perhaps from other social agency’s interference. These findings suggest that the relationship between fathers and daughters are different in families. The findings suggested that adolescent females react differently to violence in the home based on their values, cultures, background and upbringing. Findings also suggested that the relationship between parent and child in the adolescent years often stays strong, even in the face of adversity.

Findings in this study also confirmed previous studies, which state that, consistent witnessing of IPV by children and adolescents could lead to behavioral problems during the adolescence years, and into the young adult years (Chen, Jacobs, & Rovi, 2013). A
large body of existing literature supports the connection between IPV exposure and risk of both externalizing and internalizing symptoms of emotional distress. Adolescents who witness the violence often believe that violence is acceptable and a way to resolve problems. They accept the violence as part of a normal relationship (Camacho, et al., 2012; Davies, et al., 2012; Jouriles, et al., 2013; Narayan, et al., 2013). In this study, Tiffany fought with her peers because she thought she was defending herself, and fighting could resolve her problems. Valerie thought it was none of her business and went to her room. She later became the aggressor or controller in her relationships. Camille, witnessed violence so often, and heard demeaning words every day, that when her mother cursed her dad, she was not surprised because she saw and heard so much of it. She internalized her feelings or became emotionally numb because of her experiences. She abused her intimate relationships because of what she saw growing up. Sharah had difficulty maintaining relationships, and Tatyana does not trust men at all.

This study also confirmed that adolescent females were prone to mental health issues such as depression, anger, ill perception, negative attitudes, poor socialization skills, and insecurity after witnessing MPIPV. They were also at high risk for repeat violence with peers, family members, and in their own adult intimate relationships. Howell (2011), Jouriles et al. (2012), Theran (2010), and Voisin and Hong (2013) found similar results in their studies. Findings from this study showed that adolescent females’ exposure to MPIPV were associated with anger, ill perception, negative attitudes, depression, perpetration of IPV in dating relationships, and repeating violence on peers and other family members. There was no indication that these associations caused low
self-esteem or any deep-seated, basic, negative beliefs about themselves. All participants became angry and fearful about witnessing MPIPV, and excerpts of their comments and behaviors are in Chapter 4 and Appendix F. Tiffany spoke about a violent episode with her sister and said that, to her “it felt like a repeat”, because she tried to carry out the same actions her mother did, by attacking her sister with a knife. She also fought with her peers at school. Camille spoke of abusing her intimate relationships, because she saw her mother abuse her father, even though she witnessed the abuse during her teenaged years. Tatyana’s tone of voice changed to one of sadness when she spoke about current intimate relationships. She appeared contemplative of her words when she exclaimed during the interview that she did not “trust any dudes, period”. Confirmations of these comments are in interview transcripts, Chapter 4 and Appendix F.

The majority of the participants used coping to provide relief from their stressful experience. The literature in Chapter 2 stated that girls were the fastest growing segment of the juvenile justice system and helping them learn to cope today may change how they turn out in the future (NSCL, 2013; Robinson & Segal, 2013). In this study, all participants sought relief from violence by coping differently. Valerie coped by becoming emotionally numb, ignoring the fight, because it was “none of her business, it was not her place to interfere”. Sharah coped mentally by writing poetry and Tiffany, Camille, and Tatyana coped by running away from the violent environment. They would go behind closed doors (their rooms), go to a friend’s or to grandma’s house.

The literature explained that teenage girls who have witnessed MPIPV sometimes run away from home and school. They then find themselves in situations that make them
prone to become violent, depressed, and withdrawn, falling prey to further violence and other unhealthy behaviors (Rottem & Howard, 2008). While this may be true in some circumstances, in this study, four of the women (Tiffany, Valerie, Camille, and Tatyana) sought shelter where they believed, they would be safe. Sharah, however, engaged in an irresponsible behavior when she drove away in her parent’s car without a license. Sharah’s behavior stemmed from reacting to witnessing violence and desiring to get away from it. These findings denote or show that girls often try to rely strongly upon themselves for support, which could suggest not trusting, depending or having confidence in others to help them overcome stressful situations. The parental role at this stage is questionable as adolescents are often confused about being an adult and a child at the same time (Bonnie et al., 2013).

One finding centered on the theme that adolescent females had to be strong in themselves because they lacked trust and confidence in parents and felt they could not depend on their parents for guidance and emotional support during a fight, or to help them understand what was going on around them. When their mother was angry, she was not in the frame of mind to show concern and care for them. It appeared father was not either, as he was more concerned with getting mother to stop the fight or he would leave the house to help discontinue the fighting and possibly reduce or calm the rage of mother. This finding suggested that the girls seemed to be living in a paradoxical world where they had concern for both parents. They desired to see both mom and dad safe, and for mom to stop fighting. Tiffany, Camille, Sharah, and Tiffany sought the help of others
outside of the home to find security and comfort. Valerie coped by retreating to her room, and by dismissing the violence, saying it was “none of her business”.

Based on the literature, adolescents often use disengagement from parents as a form of coping to deal with witnessing of IPV as they move into adulthood (Brown, Oudekerk, Szwedo, & Allen, 2013). Disengagement could mean mentally disconnecting from parents or tuning them out, not listening to them. Additionally, adolescents sometimes get involved in, resisting parental control and refusing to communicate with parents. Consistent with the literature, this study found that all participants used their own coping skills to deal with MPIPV. Sharah mentally disconnected from listening to her parents fight by slamming the doors to her room, by not responding to dad’s request to wash the dishes, and refusing to communicate. Tiffany, Camille, and Tatyana coped with the situation by running away from home to a friend’s house, to grandma’s house, and to playing sports outside with friends. Sharah also drove the family car illegally.

Also consistent with previous research was that good friends developed independently and might help adolescents deal with interparent aggression (Brown et al., 2013). In addition, consistent with the literature (Bonnie, et al., 2013) driving the family car illegally was a coping mechanism that many adolescent drew on. It was surprising that in this study, none of the participants went to a shelter as is mentioned in previous studies. More longitudinal studies involving a mix of ethnicities and more participants can be done to find out additional coping skills that adolescent females may use to deal with MPIPV.
Father/Daughter Relationship

The evidence is compelling and is one that is not yet acknowledged in the literature. It is the finding on the matter of forgiveness. In this study, findings show an unconditional bond existing between fathers and daughters. This bond not verbally expressed or written down was a given or understood. All participants explained that while they did not change their perception of dad when they were young, when they got older their relationship became even closer. They respected his decisions as they recalled them.

Tiffany did not know her biological father, but she admired her stepfather because he always cared for the family. Valerie said she did not understand what the dynamics of the family were, when she was growing up. Now that she is older, she understands better, what occurred back then, and she still “loves her father and stepfather to death”. She indicated that they have a great relationship. She takes care of them and they take care of her. Moreover, Valerie was unaware that her father who she thought was her biological father was only her stepfather. Her mother had concealed the information from her. Camille indicated that she admired her dad, because he was much stronger than her mom and could have hurt her, but he did not. He could have left home, but he chose to stay, and that is why her “love stayed” for him. Both Sharah and Tatyana expressed their love for their father, as they grew older. It appeared that the bond developed between fathers and daughters, when they were young was not easily broken and often times grew stronger as time passed.
I did not ask participants whether they would feel emotionally different if a stepfather or a biological father called the police. Since the study did not differentiate between the types of fathers, further study might address this question. Moreover, since all the participants were African Americans from different cultures having diverse behaviors and thoughts (Nielsen, 2011), further studies on in-home violence with other ethnic groups might prove insightful. Clearly, the need for human service professionals and mental health counselors to develop culturally informed interventions might consider incorporating the idea of forgiveness. Forgiveness appeared to reduce stress and improve relationships over time, ultimately effecting healing to the entire family.

Another finding not noted in the literature, but emerged in this study was, during their teenaged years, most of the participants were unaware of the reasons that caused violence in the family. Camille felt that mother was angry because she had found out about her husband’s cheating ways, confirming her behavior. Valerie indicated that she was unaware of the cause of the fighting, but it was not her place to interfere and stayed away. Tiffany, Sharah and Tatyana witnessed the fight, but were not aware of what started the fight. In the adolescent years, all of the women were often confused about their surroundings, as they move between childhood and adulthood. Consistent with the literature, parents have the responsibility to regulate the behavior of adolescents during adolescence while during adulthood individuals regulate themselves. According to Bonnie et al. (2013), this definition applies to all adolescents regardless of culture, ethnicity, or nationality.
Theoretical Framework

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory (SLT), feminist theory, and attachment theory as theoretical frameworks were useful in examining the phenomenon of MPIPV or father abuse. Several key findings emerged from the social learning theory and the attachment theory supporting the results of this study. Both theories provided an understanding of the phenomenon of MPIPV as it related to adolescent girls perception, behavior and attitude.

In this study, three participants confirmed the main tenets of the social learning theory, in which individuals learn through modeling and paying attention to their surroundings. They observed the actions, attitudes, and outcomes of other individual behaviors. They committed the behaviors to memory, and sometime in the future they either acted out or reproduced those behaviors. Such behaviors could be positive or negative (Bandura, 1977; Fitton, 2012).

Tiffany witnessed her mother attack her father with a knife during a fight. When asked the question, what was her reaction to the fight? she responded that sometime later, while she was engaged in a fight with her sibling. In her anger, she grabbed a knife and proceeded to attack her sister with the knife. She grabbed the knife because that was what she saw her mother did, and she was only repeating what she saw. She thought that her mother used the knife to protect herself.

Valerie was controlling of the males in her life, because that was what she learned from her mother. Her mother controlled all the men around her. When she was in middle
school, she dated boys that she “ran”, meaning she dated boys that she could control. Her behaviors were learned from her mom.

Camille also acknowledged abusing her intimate partner, because she had seen her mother abused her father when she discovered he had cheated on her. “As an adult, with my mom’s action, the same thing happened to me, where I found my boyfriend cheating on me, and I repeated the same behavior …I abused someone”. In social learning theory parental modeling of aggressive behaviors often underlie the relations between exposure to IPV and aggressive behavior in children. This study confirmed previous studies and was consistent with the main tenets of the theory.

**Attachment Theory**

The attachment theory was the theoretical framework used to explain adolescent girls’ attachment to their fathers. Humans formed an emotional bond and tended to feel safe and secure when they were close to certain individuals (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2009; Fitton, 2012). In this study, adolescent females confirmed their attachment to their fathers and displayed emotional bonding. These bonds were difficult to break even in the face of a complex familial situation. The attachment theory provided support that the study adolescents attached to their parents regardless of how they perceived them. This might suggest influences across generations as to how mothers and fathers bond to their children. Fitton (2012) found mothers and fathers relating to their children the way they saw their own parents relate to them. Thus, a connection exists between perception and attachment.
Another major finding in this study was that parental relationship or bonding with children while young, whether biological or step children, were not easily dissolved or easily broken even in face of existing violence. These girls, being attached to their fathers, were not afraid of him and loved him in spite of the fact that he did not want to report their mothers’ violent attitude towards him to the authorities. They viewed the situation as if their father was protecting the entire family. They may have had knowledge of the police system and know how it works, and so they felt somewhat confused, but justified that father did not report mom to the police.

At first, they were scared for their safety, but later on the emotional and parental bond that is not easily broken, surfaced. The attachment theory supported this finding. In the past, attachment theory was applicable mainly between the infant and parent relationship, but the theory has moved beyond just infancy attachment, and includes attachment throughout the life span (Riggs, 2010). The attachment of children and intimate relationships are the most significant attachment relationships in adult life (Fitton, 2012).

**Feminist Theory**

The feminist theory consisting of many perspectives gives voice to women where previously they had no voice. The theory is an established theory that seeks to empower women to protect themselves against a male dominated society, and supports women’s need for control, power, and equality with men in terms of economic, social, and political power. This study employed the use of the feminist theory to help understand female use of violence against husband or partner in the home. Findings from the study revealed that
women commit violence in the home and in the presence of their daughters. All participants witnessed violence to which the fathers did not reciprocate by abusing the mother. However, the study’s findings showed that only one mother sought power and control over her spouse(s) through manipulation and threats. She said, “If you don’t give me money, you will not see your children”. According to her daughter, Valerie, she forced him to give her money, or she would kick him out of the house. Another mother banned the father from the home when she could not get money from him to support the family. The majority of the mothers initiating violence identified as being angry and/or either retaliating from something the husband had done previously, such as caught in infidelity. Thus, a generalization of all the aspects of the feminist theory was unconfirmed in this study. Further study on a larger sample size may arrive at a different conclusion about female dominance in the home.

**Limitations of the Study**

While this research provided important information about the lived experience of young adolescent females who witnessed maternal perpetrated interparent violence, there are a number of limitations requiring consideration. The first limitation to this study was the small sample size. The reason for the small sample size was to ensure that the scope of this project remained within the period required for a dissertation study while providing enough data for analysis. This study employed a purposeful sampling of five late adolescents/young adult women. This number of participants was sufficient for an interpretative phenomenology study (Smith & Larkin, 2009; Davidsen, 2013).
The second limitation was that only female adolescents were the focus of this study. The views of adolescent males were not included. Future studies should consider exploring the lived experience of adolescent males who witnessed MPIPV or father abuse, to understand their perception of, and attitudes towards father abuse, and whether implications exist for their socialization and development.

The third limitation was that although an in-depth understanding of the experience of MPIPV was gained, the study could not be generalized. However, being a qualitative study, the intent was to raise awareness and bring understanding to the lived experiences of adolescent girls who witnessed father abuse.

The fourth limitation was that some of the data might be subjective in nature because the researcher was the key instrument, collecting, coding, and analyzing the data (Saldana, 2009). In addition, there could be interference in the interpretation of the data, as the researcher was not able to assure bracketing (Chan, Fung, & Chien, 2013).

The fifth limitation of this study was that all participants were African Americans late adolescent/young adult females. All efforts were made to include participants from all ethnic groups; however the sample included only five individuals from the same ethnic group and the same geographic region. Future studies should include other ethnic representatives with more participants, and be replicated in other regions.

The sixth limitation was that the researcher could not confirm with surety that all participants accurately described their experience with MPIPV. Some might have had memory issues, hindering effective articulation of the problem. No measures were put in place to verify the participants' stories or any historical data, as gathering this type of
information would be beyond the scope of the study. The researcher assumed that participants told the truth as they told their stories. As much as possible, research processes were employed to increase the credibility of findings.

**Recommendations**

In referring to the current literature in Chapter 2, there were more quantitative studies about adolescents (males and females) and parental dynamics, than there were qualitative studies. As adolescents develop and grow into maturity, marked changes in their physical, cognitive and social development take place (Blakemore & Mills, 2014; Sousa et al., 2011). More qualitative research on adolescents lived experiences was needed to give adolescents a collective voice in future extant and empirical literature on MPIPV. This current study was a phenomenological study specifically designed to address female adolescents who witnessed maternal perpetrated IPV. Every effort was made to maintain the rigor and trustworthiness of the study.

In terms of dysfunctional behaviors among adolescent females who experienced MPIPV, findings from this study uncovered a serious need for social interventions aimed at reducing MPIPV in homes. These interventions are necessary especially among groups that appear to be underserved, by the professional mental health community. To assist females who experience father abuse, social workers and other human service practitioners must try to reach out to marginalized and underserved groups that do not seek or receive help from mainstream human service organizations. These helping professionals must advocate for education and training to these disadvantage groups in their own community, where they live. For instance, Chatters, Taylor, Bullard, and
Jackson (2009) states that African Americans tend to rely on family and friends for social support. Future research should investigate the cultural reasons why African Americans appear to distrust mainstream mental health and human service organizations (Shoff & Yang, 2012).

The results of this study confirmed the findings of previous research (Draucker, Martsolf, & Stephenson, 2012; Vatnar & Bjorkly, 2011) which, addressed the consequences of reliving MPIPV. Similar to the above studies, participants in this study experienced lack of sleep and other problems. Because of the lack of sleep, participants became disruptive, disrespectful, and behaved destructively. Parents can help after an episode of violence to seek out adolescent girls to help them understand and address their own feelings, so that they do not blame themselves for the violent occurrence. Parents should communicate with adolescents and let them know what happened and that the incident or event was not their fault. Parents should ensure that the home is safe for adolescents to live in. Parents can accomplish this by reducing interparent violence in front of their children. They can seek out professional counselors to help them work out their differences through communication.

It is also important for professional mental health counselors and human service professionals to be aware of the effects of parental violence on adolescents. Professionals can advocate for educational training programs in the homes as well as in the community to ameliorate lifestyles. Through education and training, individuals facing violence in the home can receive safety information and advice on where they can go to get help.
Although the aim of this study was to provide a deep and meaningful insight into living with father abuse, the results might be relevant to only individuals from a similar locale or population (Smith et al., 2009). Future research should investigate the experiences of adolescence in other states and locales for a variety of different experiences of father abuse. Further studies from a longitudinal perspective would possibly provide more insight on the implications of MPIPV for this group as well as other groups of adolescents, to establish how they cope after they run away from home. A study investigating the long term lived experience of female adolescents from different cultural backgrounds and upbringings, who were raised to view violence as an adult issue, and who remain uninvolved in the occurrence of such violence, might provide more insight into implications that witnessing such violence may have on their lives and mental health as they transition into adulthood.

In this study, examining adolescents witnessing of MPIPV or father abuse provided further awareness of how adolescents understand the phenomenon and also provided a deeper insight into adolescent’s perception and attitude towards father in the short term. A longitudinal study engaging a larger number of participants would probably provide a truer picture of the real consequences of father abuse on adolescent girls. If possible, hearing from younger adolescent girls (12-17) as they are going through the phenomenon, might provide even deeper insight into father abuse and its meaning to them. Finally, a longitudinal study to gain further insight in the mother/adolescent daughter relationship would help to develop new interventions to reduce violence in the home.
Social Change Implications

Social change suggests transforming the status quo at all levels of life, from the individual to the society. Changing life’s occurrences at the micro, meso, and macro levels are crucial for transformation. At the micro level, the individual’s or family’s most pressing needs are ameliorated or satisfied. The community and societal needs are then ameliorated at the mezzo and macro levels, respectively. Raising awareness at each level about a phenomenon helps to bring resolution to issues surrounding the phenomenon, and improve lives. When positive changes in lifestyle occur, individuals, families, and communities usually benefit from the change allowing transformation to take place over time (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010).

Preventing or reducing violence in the home before it begins will bring about social change overtime for adolescent girls, their families and their communities. To accomplish this goal, helping professionals such as psychologists and social workers can develop interventions or improve upon existing interventions through education and training at the individual, the relational and the community levels. At the individual level, the curricular should be culturally relevant to teenaged girls. It is important also to keep the girls participating in the curriculum in small groups so they can express themselves in discussions with their peers with similar experiences. In this way, they will know they are not alone. These kinds of educational activities will help them to cope and possibly remove negative perspectives about life and their parents. Helping professionals can also develop evaluation tools to determine change taking place overtime at this individual
level. They should ensure that the educational interventions and tools designed are most effective for the cultural group with which they work.

At the relationship level, helping professionals need to place emphasis or concentrate on building support for the teen girls directly influencing what they learned at the individual level. The goal of the relational level is to ensure that siblings, parents, friends, neighbors, teachers, pastors, and other adults begin interacting with adolescent teen girls who witnessed MPIPV in order to provide appropriate support, respect, communication, accountability and responsibility in their relationships. To reach these members of our society, helping professionals could have teen girls create presentations on the subject of MPIPV and invite the people in their lives, such as the ones mentioned above to attend. Their message could positively influence the relationships they share with these people and that these people share with each other. Including families and friends in learning activities that help to educate others about the implications of MPIPV can ultimately help adolescent girls in their relationships, as well as help them develop a feeling or a sense of well-being. Engaging and educating members of the community about MPIPV can bring about social change overtime, supporting the development of healthy, relationships for all young people.

At the community level, in order to reduce the number of adolescent teen girls needing intervention services. Interventions such as education and training should start at an early age for these girls. Involving the community in working towards bringing awareness to the implications of MPIPV is essential in bringing about lasting social change. Advocating at the community level involves understanding the community norms about relationships
and violence. Community settings such as neighborhood centers, schools, and workplaces, can sponsor educational programs geared specifically towards teen girls. Skills learned at the individuals and relational level should be emphasized. Educational material should be designed not only for victims but also for perpetrators. Perpetrators must learn to control their actions and recognize that violence is a crime (WHO, 2011).

At the community level, everyone should be knowledgeable or aware of the implications of MPIPV. Organized events that bring together, parents, teachers, students, community psychologists, political leaders, and teens, can bring awareness to MPIPV on how to reduce and/or eradicate the phenomena from homes and schools. In so doing, provide an atmosphere of respect and safety for everyone involved. Community leaders must be willing to change strategies that have not worked and implement new strategies. The goal at the community level is to involve diverse partners from institutions and organizations, and to include people from varied age groups as much as possible in the work of bringing awareness about MPIPV. The same activities may not work for every community but awareness of the implications of MPIPV could be accomplished. As representatives and promoters of social change, helping professionals and practitioners may be able to devise new ways to develop interventions that are culturally sensitive and relevant to help young individuals who witness interparent violence, make meaningful and transformative adjustments in their lives.

Because MPIPV is a global multi-faceted complicated problem and a public health issue (CDC, 2012), universal education can help resolve perception issues towards fathers of adolescent girls across the country and the world. Adolescent girls will learn
that they are not alone in their situation. Helping professionals and scholar practitioners from around the world, can work together through global conferences, to help develop educational training materials aimed at providing instructions on coping skills, reducing stress, as well as reducing the tendency for self-blaming.

Findings from this research contributed to a greater and deeper understanding of MPIPV or father abuse. It also contributed to the slowly increasing empirical body of literature that informs human service and other helping professions about the detriments of maternal interparent violence on teen girls’ mental health. It will assist helping professionals and practitioners integrate into their practices, factors that are relevant to the well-being and improved mental health of female adolescents resulting in social change over time.

**Final Reflection**

This study extends a social understanding of female adolescents meaning of witnessing MPIPV. Understanding the way in which female adolescents think about, organize, and understand their place in the family, helps human service professionals, social workers and family counselors to be more attentive to the dual roles that witnessing violence often place upon them. Evaluating, developing, and implementing current and new educational intervention training programs for female adolescents’ need, should take into account their capabilities as well as their helplessness as they navigate through this sensitive period in their lives. For instance, some female adolescents may be more mature with more developed coping skills in their life experiences, but feel distressed and ashamed about the violence going on at home. Female adolescents need to
know and understand that the violence between their parents at home is not their fault and they are not alone.

A female adolescent's ethnicity has a powerful influence on her growth and development, affecting her sense of belonging in a society that frequently includes and excludes individuals based on skin color. For an understanding of these experiences, it is essential for helping professionals to evaluate the interaction and/or relationship of family dynamics with activities occurring in the public domain. This evaluation should include political, social, racial and economic issues. Female adolescent girls of all ethnicities often face challenges in these areas daily. Because of the experiences and challenges and the stigma regarding violence in African American homes in the United States, perhaps future research can pay special attention to how African American adolescent girls, in general, deal with the socialization process in the home, community, and in American society.

**Conclusion**

This interpretative phenomenological study examined the lives of five adolescent women who experienced interparent violence with mother as the abuser. The young women shared their personal experiences and perspectives for research purposes, revealing that while the phenomenon made them fearful and scared they still maintained a strong familial connection between both of their parents. While they abhorred violence, they stayed attached to their parents and just wanted the violence to stop. Findings from this study revealed that adolescent girls developed coping skills to deal with the violence at home making meaning of their experiences. They emerged from their experiences
fearful and scared with a great desire to see the violence at home end. They wished that parents would not fight in front of their children but find ways to communicate with each other, rather than resorting to violence.

While the frequency and pervasiveness of interparental violence over the world and throughout this country may or may not decrease or subside, professional helpers need to be on the alert to identify and help adolescent girls witnessing the abuse, deal with the confusion and anxiety that disrupts their socialization in school and in society. As agents of social change, human service practitioners and other professional counselors need to seek ways to develop culturally relevant educational interventions to help bring transformation and meaningful changes in the lives of adolescent girls and their parents. Perhaps, the findings emanating from this study will add to the body of knowledge allowing human service professionals to facilitate the process of change and growth through education for individuals. Change and growth will make a positive difference in the lives of adolescent girls and their families, their communities, and society as a whole.
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Appendix A: Recruitment Flyer

RESEARCH STUDY

SEEKING YOUNG ADULT FEMALES - AGE 18-20

Are you a young adult female, 18 years of age and above who witnessed interparent violence (IPV) between your parents, where mother started the fight?

If you answered yes to the questions above, I would like to invite you to participate in an academic research study. This study may shed light on adolescent girl(s) perception of maternally committed IPV or father abuse. Findings may determine whether communities can offer education or training to bring about social change for the benefit of girls in these situations.

If you are interested in participating in this research, Please call. xxxxx at xxxxxx to obtain more information about this valuable, no cost to you, confidential study.
Appendix B: Recruitment Protocol

1. Name (Participant): ____________________________ Age: __ Race:  
   White/African American/Hispanic/Oriental/Other

2. Have you witnessed or seen violence or a fight between your parents, where 
mother starts the fight? Yes:____ No:____

3. Are you willing to participate in a telephone or a face-to-face interview for about 
30-45 minutes to talk about your experience? Yes:____ No:____

4. Are you willing to participate in a follow-up review of questionnaire, or 
   interview, if necessary, to confirm or validate portions of the interview transcripts 
and/or notes? Yes:__ No:__

5. I will need to audiotape the interview. Is that OK with you? Yes:__ No:__

6. What is the best time and place for you to be interviewed or fill-in the 
   questionnaire? __________

7. Are you willing to sign an assent (agreement to participate) form? Your parent or 
guardian will also need to sign an informed consent form, agreeing to your 
   participation in the study. Yes:__ No:__

8. How soon are you available to meet with me either by phone or face to face to be 
   interviewed or fill in the questionnaire? ______________

Thank you for your time.

Researcher: ____________________________

Researcher's Signature: ____________________________ Date
Appendix C: Interview Guide

Thank you for taking the time to do this interview. It is very much appreciated. My name is xxxxxxxxxxxx, and I am a doctoral student at Walden University. The purpose of this interview is to get an understanding of how girls, 18 and above give meaning to interparent violence when you witness the phenomenon (event) carried out by your mother against your father.

I want to do this study to understand how young girls like yourselves feel and deal with violence at home. By understanding how you feel given in your own words, your teachers, counselors and social workers can know how to develop educational training material for you to help you live a stress free life. I want you to know that this information will be kept confidential. Your name will not be included in the report. I will use only an ID number or a fictitious name for my purposes.

This interview will be about 45 minutes to an hour depending on your answers. If we do not get through all the questions, then we can schedule another time if all right with you. I will be taking notes, but I will also be taping our interview to make sure I do not miss any of your answers, as well as to make sure I capture your answers accurately, because I will not be able to write things down as fast as you speak.

For purposes of the interview, I will ask you about 17 questions. Some of your answers will be short, some may be longer, and you may refuse to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. You may stop the interview if you feel uncomfortable with the questions. In addition, I may ask you to explain any comment that you may make that I may not understand.

Since we are taping, please be sure to speak up so we do not miss your comments. I will keep all your answers confidential. This means that your answers will be shared only with Walden University as this is for a dissertation project. I assure you that nothing in the report will be able to identify you as the interviewee. You do not have to talk about anything you do not want to talk about, and you may decide to stop the interview at any time.

After we are done with the interview, and I have typed up the information, I may request another meeting with you that will last about 20 – 30 minutes. This meeting will be to verify and confirm whether I captured your words and meanings as you would like them to be captured. I will give you a small gift certificate of $25.00 as a “Thank You” for participating in this study.

Are there any questions about what I have just explained? Are you willing to participate in an interview?

Thank you, so much, for your time.
Appendix D: Interview Protocol and Probe Questions

Time of interview:

Date and place of interview:

Interviewer:

Interviewee/position of interviewee:

Instructions for the interviewee: Brief description of the study:

The phenomenon of IPV is a public health issue. This study aims to examine and explore the meanings female adolescents who witness IPV give to the phenomenon and how they perceive their father who experience the abuse.

General Information:

Violence is described as physical assaults, threats causing fear, and emotional stress. A physical expression of IPV could be a sexual assault, simple slap or push to a fight or beating resulting in injury. Examples are hitting, scratching, kicking, punching, and or stabbing, words that demean and hurt emotionally. Interparent violence (IPV) is any of these actions between parents perpetrated by the other parent.

Questions

1. Please describe a time when you witnessed some type of violence between your parents when your mother started the argument or fight. Please describe what she did?

2. How did witnessing the violence make you feel?

3. Please tell me what it is like for you watching your mother hurt your father? Describe for me how you dealt with witnessing the fight? What activities, if any, did you engage in? What actions, if any, did you take?

4. Please describe what your dad did when he was attacked by your mom. What was your reaction? Please describe what you did, if anything?

5. If mom used demeaning words, when she attacks your dad, what are some of those words? How did you feel when you heard your mom demeaning your dad? What was your reaction, how did you behave, what did you do?
6. When you noticed that your mother attacked your father, did your father call the police? What kind of behavior did he show? How did he react?

7. What did you say to your dad and what did you say to your mom?

8. Describe for me your feelings about yourself when you witness fighting between your parents? How does witnessing the fight affect you?

9. What types of events or situations, if any, have occurred in your life as a result of your actions and or behaviors?

10. If your father did not call the police when he was attacked, how did that make you feel? How did you react? What were your thoughts, if any, about your father?

11. If your father did not report the abuse, please explain how you felt and what you were thinking?

12. In what way, if any, did your father’s behavior change how you viewed him? Or how you viewed your future intimate relationships?

13. What is your relationship like with your father and your mother? What kind of support would you say you get individually from your father and from your mother?

14. What would you like to see happen between your parents?

15. How has your life been affected by your behaviors and attitudes with peers and adults?

16. Can you recall any incidents that occurred outside of the home with your friends or your teachers because you were upset about your parents fighting?

17. What would you like for your parents to know about their IPV behaviors and the impact it has on you?

Is there anything else you would like to say?

Thank you for your time

Interviewer’s reflexive notes
Appendix E - Coding Strategy

Level Two Codes

| 1. Aggression                      | 26. Parental conflict         |
| 2. Anger/emotional distress       | 27. Personal safety threatened |
| 3. Awareness/unawareness          | 28. Perception                |
| 4. Behaviors/actions              | 29. Protection                |
| 5. Caring/uncaring                | 30. Reactions                 |
| 7. Confusion                      | 32. Relationships             |
| 8. Control                        | 33. Parental support          |
| 9. Decision Making                | 34. Reporting the violence     |
| 10. Demeaning Words               | 35. Respect disrespect        |
| 11. Depression                    | 36. Running away from home    |
| 12. Emotional numbing             | 37. Social problems           |
| 13. Escaping violence             | 38. Tension                   |
| 15. Feeling anxious/anxiety       | 40. Threats                   |
| 16. Feelings of anger/emotional period |                   |
| 17. Suffering from insomnia       | 41. Violence                  |
| 18. Happy                         | 42. Withdrawal from activities |
| 19. Intergenerational Issues      | 43. Sensemaking               |
| 20. Intervening                   | 44. Perception                |
| 21. Lack of trust                 | 45. Forgiveness               |
| 22. Love and respect              | 46. Feeling bad for others    |
| 23. Low levels of empathy         | 47. Indifferent               |
| 25. Non-involvement               | 49. Pretending                |
|                                  | 50. Compassion                |
Level Three Codes (12 Themes from 50 Level Two Codes)

**Witnessing MPIPV**
- Threats
- Violence
- Aggression
- Intervening to stop fight
- Personal Safety threatened

**Reacting to MPIPV**
- Feelings of Anger/Emotional Distress
- Behavior
- Demeaning words/embarrassment
- Depression
- Emotional numbing (don’t care)
- Fear – Feeling scared
- Feeling anxious/anxiety
- Happy-Feelings of wellbeing
- Reactions cry, hurt, sadness,
- Tension/Feeling Tense

**Evaluating Female Control**
- Control
- Decision-making

**Being Unaware and Uninvolved**
- Awareness/ignorance
- Non-involvement

**Coping and Dealing with MPIPV**
- Escaping violence
- Running away from home

**Understanding Parental dynamics**
- Caring/uncaring
- Parental conflict
- Relationships
- Parental support
Showing Respect/Admiration
  Love and Respect
  Low levels of empathy for dad
  Respect disrespect

Feeling Unsafe, and Uncertain
  Reducing stress
  Protection
  Reporting the violence

Lack of Trust/Confidence Issues
  Lack of trust
  Low levels of self-esteem
  Trust

Managing Interpersonal Communication
  Communication
  Confusion
  Withdrawal from activities

Identifying Social Problems
  Suffering from insomnia
  Social Conflicts
  Academic Issues
  Indifference

Sensemaking: Making sense of MPIPV Experiences
  Perception of Dad
  Forgiveness / Compassion
  Estrangement from family
  Dad Pretending
  Feeling bad for others
Appendix F: Themes and Participants Responses

Participants’ Comments in Support of Research Questions

All names are pseudonyms

Research Question

What was the lived experience of adolescent girls who witnessed their mothers abusing their fathers?

Theme 1: Witnessing MPIPV

Tiffany: – um, It was when I was little and we were in living in…a home. .. And then...I was upstairs and then I heard this noise… like coming from the kitchen… and I then I like ran to the stairs to see what was going on. And my mom and my stepdad were in the kitchen and she was yelling at him… and she was just saying a whole bunch of stuff and she was screaming different words and stuff…. And then he was just sitting there, he was arguing back, but then again he was like not like getting into it… and then I went back up…they were still yelling … and … and then I heard, I heard like a glass break, and then I came back… and… then I saw my mom with a knife. …and then … she was like walking towards him... and, then he left the house ---for the rest of the day...

Valerie: Well, there was one time when my mother … and kind …a... like... my step father … because my mother did not stay with my dad for long … and…pretty much what she would do was she would make him give her money, and that’s the only way she would allow him to see me and my sister. Because like, he pretty much took care of me too. Therefore, she would like tell him like
“Oh if you do not give me this money, I will make sure that you do not ever see your child again”. And like she would kick him out, and stuff like that … and he would do whatever, anything she told him to do because he wanted to see us.

**Camille:** Am… well… I was … when I was younger. At first, it started out just as a verbal argument between both of them. And I want to say the cause of it was because she had found out that my father was cheating. Like I said… it started out verbal and then I guess it got to a point where I think… he may have admitted it and once he did that… she just went berserk (bizarre). She went up to him and she started punching him, kicking him, scratching him. He tried to get away from her… He ran . It got to one point to where she actually grabbed a hammer and threw it at him.

**Sharah:** aam ... I would have to say … thinking back…. I don’t know what the problem was…he just walked through the door as I was coming down the stairs I noticed that my Aunt … she had …and my aunt had a glass and she threw it at him. I know he had just got home from work. Being a child, you don’t know … but as I grew, you realize that my aunt was an alcoholic. Being a child, I was not sure what was going on.

**Tatyana:** The fight with my dad… I was about… I had to be about 12 and we walk in the kitchen, me, and my sister, and she was throwing plates and dog food and all sorts of stuff at him, but it started from something really little and it escalated from there. The following sub-questions help to illuminate the answer to the main question.
Research Sub-Question 1

According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, what factors, activities, actions and or reaction shaped their experience?

Theme 2: Reacting to MPIPV

Tiffany: It made me feel scared at one that point and ...’cause I did not know what she was going to do afterward”, and cause ... I was there … I didn’t know what she was going to tell me. So I was a little scared, then again… was just like …. I am not going to get myself into that.

Valerie I … mean…As a child, it was kind of like, I felt bad for him and I also like kinda looked at my mom like ‘dang’ she’s kinda mean. Like, I can’t play with her like that”, she the evil type, make me look at her a different way and at the same time, and then it made me pity him. At the time I was younger I did not know the whole situation … he told her that he was going to take me away from her and send me to his mother in xxxxxxxxxx (name of place withheld for privacy)…. My mom pretty much told him off too: No, you are not taking my child nowhere. As a teenager, like it made me look at my dad a different way... because I did not know the whole story again … see, but now....I know the whole story of the situation … but back then…

Camille: I was scared, I guess … yes ... I guess I was just scared and… and … sad at the time. ... I was scared.
Sharah: It made me feel scared … I mean witnessing something like that… you know that person just came in from work and if that what’s happening to them, then you might be next, so as a child you feel very scared and just want to leave from wherever you at… so you just want to leave from where you’re at.

Tatyana: Me and my sister we were very upset.

All five participants experienced anger from witnessing MPIPV.

Tatyana: It was … um,… like it was a repeat ‘cause … um… last year when I was in arguments with my sister and then at one point we actually end up fighting and then, I was like, I was really mad and angry… and then I was yelling at her and calling her names, and then she was doing the same and then at one point, I was telling her how I was going to kill her, and then I did what my mom did, I grabbed a knife, and then it was like a repeat. And then so, and my mom had like… calming both of us down … and I had to go sit outside for a couple hours, so I could calm myself down….

Valerie: I kinda …when I was young I had a couple anger management issues, I really, I was kind of angry, but I used my anger for good stuff I never really like put it on to people like that. I am the type of person, that when I was in high school I would hang out with the weak persons so that somebody who bullies people wouldn’t say anything to them because I did not want them to go after that person just because they are weak. . Like, come after me, cause… like… I am stronger than her. I was kind of like a protector. Even now, my fiancée would say, you have the weirdest friends, but I hung with them just because I didn’t want
anybody messing with them. I use my anger for good…I hung with people who couldn’t help themselves. I was like a protector (chuckle)

**Camille:** I definitely… when I… I do get angry and sad. …because I felt like …aam … in the beginning … when I…at some point, I felt it was normal…but in the beginning, I felt angry, I was sad. As I got older, I would get angry and sad … and I did not want to be there at times. … When I hear it…I would go farthest away if I could… I would go to a friend’s house if it was in the daytime, so I couldn’t be around it or see it, or hear it.

**Sharah:** …and… as you are getting older, you don’t want your mom to get hurt and you don’t want your dad to get hurt, so being a teenager, you become more vocal (emphasis), then you find yourself getting angry and getting mad … and you are now becoming violent toward your mom and your dad because they are violent with each other. When in reality, you just want them to stop… so now you are becoming the aggressor.

**Tatyana:** I acted out in school real bad…. and it was to a point where … like … they sent someone out to the house … I used to… like …let what goes on in the home affect me in school … because I was so angry … so I just take it out on everybody.

Negative behaviors, actions and conduct were significant issues in reacting to MPIPV. All the participants reported witnessing offensive or unrefined behavior and hearing demeaning words from mother when she attacked their father.
**Tiffany:** She was cursing at him and yelling... horrible curse words ... and... then she was just ... I can’t remember all of them, but it was a whole bunch of stuff, she was yelling. It was kind of funny, because she was saying them, but I was not allowed to say them and then I never heard her yelling and cursing like that before, it was kind of interesting....

**Valerie:** I mean ... a no good bastard... Pretty much all the curse words; all the spectrum of the curse words that you know. She would tell them ... like... they are good for nothing. She doesn’t know why they are part of the earth. And it was just like crazy, especially when she was drunk, when she would drink, she would be ... aam --- she went super low. ... I feel like...now that you are asking me these questions, I feel like that’s why I ... I am marrying the person, I am now marrying,... That’s all ... I’ve seen my mother had ... really submissive people.

**Camille:** She kept calling him liar, ass--le, no good dog. ... bitches. I didn’t really do or say anything because I heard those words growing up a lot, so her speaking those words, were not anything abnormal for me.

**Sharah:** She used words like worthless, you are nothing, why did I marry you? ... All sorts of bad words. I became very confused. I ran to my room. I wrote poetry, so everything I did at some point was some form of poetry.

**Tatyana:** A lot, a lot of the bitch words and the f words... nigger ... like a lot ... It made us feel bad ... like ... and after they get done fighting, we’ll ask her... like, why, ... afterwards ... why she cussed so much. ... but she never answers us;
and once she calm down, then … she’ll sit down and talk to us. …aam … I would talk to her, but I was the type of child that I’d probably go outside and play sports or something to take the heat off of it. … but I never say too much to her … like… because I know, it’s going to happen again and again.

Research Sub-Question 2

According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers how did these experiences affect their feelings about themselves?

Theme 3 – Evaluating Female Control

Tiffany …but it was kind of like … it was kind of like… putting him down, throwing him down, pretty much kicking him down while he was down, because he had no control, ’cause he pretty much was in a wrong kind of situation. But at the same time, she was using it like an upper hand.

Valerie: The fact that he really didn’t take up for himself made me looked at him as a weakling. He looked real weak to me but as I got older, he told me why he did what he did. So that made sense later on, but at that time he looked real weak to me.

Valerie: I mean… he kinda… just like let somebody run him over pretty much... I didn’t think it was acceptable… just because no matter what you see on TV and in real life like what… you don’t see women like running over men and like pretty much demeaning them. Like…what I saw when I was younger was like men as master men or whatever, so it wasn’t normal. It was like something different. And …like, I didn’t think that it…I didn’t feel it was supposed to be done that way, but
as I said, now that I am older, I realize that’s its why I acted the way I acted when I was in high school like I am never scared of any males. Like, I am not scared of boys. I always …like… they would try to bully people, but I wouldn’t stand down because I was not scared of them, because my mom showed me not to be scared of them.

Valerie…chuckles…Well… When I first started dating, it was kind a like, I dated boys that I ran. Like… they were… I own you… you listen to me and that kind of thing… But now, my fiancée he is more like … masculine, so he is like… so he is not going to let me just talk him down like that... But I am actually with him, but …so he is different from my father also, because I am dating him. My mom was not dating my father, but she had a relationship with him because of me. But she still kind of ran them.

Theme 4: Being Unaware and Uninvolved

Tiffany: I was not going to get involved because I didn’t understand. I didn’t… I didn’t know what was going on, but I was just watching… I think at one point I was saying stuff…, but then again, I was just sitting there… and I was about to cry. But then, um… like…I didn’t know what would happen, like… if she would get mad at me for being there, and start yelling at me for watching for not like being in my room or anything. It made me feel scared that… at one…point and …cause I did not know what she was going to do afterward, and cause… so I was there … I didn’t know what she was going to tell me. So I was a little scared, then again,…I was just like… I am not going to get myself into that.
Valerie. At the time, I was younger, I did not know the whole situation and even with the fact that he was married, it still was disrespectful to him to pretty much throw him down like that, because he took care of us, he paid all the bills in our house which I did not know that either, so I was just going with what I saw. …and it was kind of different for me as a child than it is now, because I understand the situation better but it still to this day it is still like demeaning. …As a teenager like it made me look at my dad a different way… because I did not know the whole story again … see, but now... I now know the whole story of the situation…

Valerie went on to say:

Pretty much I stayed out of the situation, because my mom…I was raised to stay out of grown folks business, that’s how I was raised … because it was not my business. And I feel like, I am not going to be a part of it. It’s not my business. I am not saying anything … because it was not my place.

Camille responded: I was scared and sad at the time. I was just crying. Once I saw the hammer, I did not know whether she was going to hurt him or not… It was not a good feeling … I definitely was scared.

Sharah: Aam ... I would have to say … thinking back…. I don’t know what the problem was…he just walked through the door as I was coming down the stairs. I noticed that my Aunt … she had… and my aunt had a glass and she threw it at him. I know… he had just got home from work, being a child you know … but as
I grew, you realize that my aunt was an alcoholic. Being a child, I was not sure what was going on

**Tatyana:** Ah …aam…So when we hear it happening, ….you know … we just would go in the room or something because they did it so much …we heard it so much! We would try to stop it sometimes …but it did not work. (Sigh and pause)

**Theme 5: Coping and Dealing with MPIPV**

**Tiffany:** I didn’t know what she was going to tell me. I was just like …. I am not going to get myself into that.

**Valerie:** Pretty much I stayed out of the situation, because my mom…I was raised to stay out of grown folks business, that’s how I was raised. … because it was not my business. And I feel like, I am not going to be a part of it. It’s not my business.

I am not saying anything … because it was not my place.

**Camille:** I definitely… when I… am … in the beginning … when I…at some point, I felt it was normal…. As I got older, I would get angry and sad … and I did not want to be there at times. … When I hear it…I would go farthest away if I could… I would go to a friend’s house if it was in the daytime, so I couldn’t be around it or see it, or hear it.

**Sharah:** I slammed my room door to get away from it. ...Being a teenager, it got to the point where if one of them left their keys on the table I would just take the car and I would just leave. I did not have a license, but I would just take the car because I could get away faster, the only thing you can think about is how can I
get away, …how fast can I get away …how far can you get away ….because you
don’t want to deal with it. ---

Tatyana: Yea, I had …done that … like three times ... GH: Did what?

Tatyana: I’ve run away like three times to my grandma’s house.

Research Sub-Question 3

According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, how
did these experiences affect their relationship with both parents?

Theme 6: Understanding Parental Dynamics

Witnessing fight between parents

Tiffany: When I witnessed it, it made me feel like as if it would happen to me at
one point… because I have anger issues too and I feel like one day I would be in
the same situation, and, I don’t want it to happen so …um… it made me feel bad,
because I think, no… nobody should go through that, and have arguments and
fights.... um.. to the point where someone will get hurt …and um.. I don’t want…
I don’t want it to happen to me… I don’t want to end up hurting someone else’s
feelings or…um…have my feelings be hurt in the future

Valerie: I just had to get ...pretty much... I tried to remove myself from the
situation (pause) … but it is only because I feel so bad for the person who was on
the end of the stick …which most of the time in my family was the male in the
situation. Which most of the time was my …so… all my mom’s boyfriends and
husbands, they were the target I felt bad for…that I feel sorry for. But I was loyal
to my mother because she took care of me, so I had to remove myself from the situation

**Camille:** Well... back then, because it happened so much as a teenager, because it happened so much, I was starting to believe that that was normal... because I witnessed it so much as a child. ... So growing up ... me myself, when someone hurt me, made me mad, I would sometimes lash out and curse ...and, ...you know, fight for myself; ... because I thought that that was normal, because I witnessed it so much as a child. ...so growing up ... but now as an adult... aam...I know now that that’s not normal....In a relationship that I was in, I found out that my ex was cheating on me, I did the same exact ... same thing that I saw my mom do. **GH:** How does witnessing the fight affect you? It makes me sad...yes,... it makes me sad.

**Sharah:** It hurts you as a teenager and you don’t want to be around it, so you are never there (home) ... you always want to go to your friends. ...If you are home, you are constantly on the phone... or you just shut up in your room.

**Tatyana:** I’ll be real sad and upset because I don’t want to see them fighting or see my dad hurt.

Caring/Uncaring

**Tiffany:** I don’t know, I still... viewed ... him as my father figure – We were still close... and like ... cause... after that, they still had arguments, but they were not as big...and my mom and I did not speak... I didn’t change my feelings for my
father… then, but it was mostly my mom, ‘cause… I became more scared of her. My father’s behavior did not change my perception of him.

**Valerie:** I mean… he kinda… just like let somebody run him over pretty much... I didn’t think it was acceptable, just because no matter what you see on TV and in real life like what you don’t see women like running over men and like pretty much demeaning them. And …like, I didn’t think that it…I didn’t feel it was supposed to be done that way,

**Camille:** I wasn’t thinking anything … because I knew he wouldn’t want her to go to jail …and aam … and if he had called the police, she would have gone to jail and he wouldn’t have wanted her to go to jail. And I wouldn’t have wanted her to go to jail either. At that time, I felt like he did the right thing, because he could’ve …Most of … from what I knew, because he could have fought back … but he didn’t.. that showed me that a man isn’t supposed to hit a woman, … because, it’s kinda like … and you look at your dad … and dad is supposed to do things, and kinda teach the girls the kind of boyfriends or man or husbands that she is supposed to have … so by him not doing that … it makes me feel that he did the right thing and that is what every man should do. Aam … I now know, as an adult that he should have called the police, because it happened more than once, by him not calling the police. His behavior did not change how I view him – No, it didn’t … because I knew that he was a really strong man. He could have abused her back. I just felt that it was instilled in him that you are not supposed to
put his hands on a woman. Regardless of what... so...aam... I think that’s what made my love for him stayed.

**Sharah:** My feelings were very mixed ... because I did not want my dad ... to be hurt, or hurt my mom... I knew it could get escalated, so my feelings were very mixed. My emotions and feelings were mixed because I did not want my dad to be hurt, but I did not want my mom to be hurt.

**Tatyana:** yah...aam ... At one point it didn’t bother me ... but then one time I did see him react. So it’s like ... he act a certain way around us, but when we are not around him, we know this is what he do... so... she is not just acting out...she is not the only one. He only not doing it around us... but... behind closed doors it is something different. Though, I still viewed him as a strong dad.

Participants experienced conflicting emotions when dad did not call the police or report the fight after mom’s attack. Here is what they had to say:

**Tiffany:** It made me happy, because I did not want my mom to be arrested. So... but then again, I don’t think he should have, but then again he should have ...called the police... but then again he shouldn’t have. Cause, ... I know something bad would happen to my mom... she would get arrested and we would be taken away... and all that, but then again but he should have thought of a way to protect himself, and make sure that ... so that if anything was to happen he knew that the police could take care of it.

**Valerie:** The fact that he really didn’t take up for himself made me looked at him as a weakling. He looked real weak to me but as I got older, he told me why he
did what he did. So that made sense later on, but at that time he looked real weak to me.

**Camille:** I didn’t feel anyway when dad did not call the police, GH: How did you react? ...I didn’t do anything I was hiding. GH: What were your thoughts, if any, about your father? ...did not really have any thoughts ... because I knew he wouldn’t... he wouldn’t want her to go to jail and at the same time, she was the mother of his kids, so I didn’t really have any thoughts about that. ... I was a daddy’s girl.

**Sharah:** When my father called the police: I was scared, upset and angry at the same time. My… thoughts were… being a teenager again… I said ...how could you call the police on my mom? This is somebody that you said you love and you marry …you want to put my mom in jail… how can you do this …how can you call the police on her? Why are you trying to take my mom away from me … She never put you in jail. My mom never put you in jail … so… she never called the police on you. At the time when he did it, I was angry at him… I was angry. I have friends that experienced it, but I never experienced it. All kids want both parents so it was kind of a double edge sword for me.

**Tatyana:** I felt scared … you know… He didn’t want her to go to jail …you know, so we were kinda surprised… but after he called the police you know … she’d seen … like he was serious… you know…. GH: How did you react? We were surprised … my sister and me… like he was tired of it… he was to the point where he was tired. He wasn’t trying to hit her back. I guess he just wanted to
make her stop. GH: What were your thoughts, if any, about your father? Tatyana:

Nothing really, we were just surprised that he did call the police

Participants talked about their relationship with their parents and the support they gave them:

**Tiffany:** We are not as close as we use to be when I was younger… now… cause

like, I ‘ve grown up and I really don’t talk to him as much, because he doesn’t

live with us, cause he is my step-dad, because he does not come over as often. He

is still here… he does not come over as often. I never met my biological dad.... I

never met him. so my step dad was like my father. He would always protect us

and made sure we were OK and check up on us and everything. My relationship

with my mom – Now it’s getting better, … because… but a couple…last year …

it was really bad, we wouldn’t talk or anything … I was… always be… mad at

her for no reason and she was mad at me for no reason, and we just didn’t click,

… but now we are starting to get closer, and talk more... now it’s getting better,

now that I am getting older. GH: How is the relationship with your sis? Tiffani:

My relationship with my sister is great, we talk and we are basically best friends

now. GH: Second part to the question: GH: What kind of support do you get from

mom and dad?

**Tiffany:** With him, …it um…like he usually just supported me with like school

stuff, cause like he would push me to do activities and make me do things, and

like stay after school for tutoring…or whatever... he would pick me up and drop

me off where ever. He supported me with those kinds of things, but when it came
to me...my views ... he was not as supportive how I thought about things. With my mom, she basically supported me with everything. She would always be there to talk to me about certain situations, talk to me about...um...how I should present myself, and all that. Mom supported me in my socialization. GH: She supports you in your socialization? Do you feel that...did she change your feeling towards her when you saw the fight between them? Tiffany: For a little bit it did, then it went back to normal.

Valerie: Well... with my stepfather, he...I have a real good relationship with him. Like, I love him to death. Because he is just like real kind hearted ... and he loves me... and I love him... like we look out for each other or whatever... And then, with my sister’s father, it’s the same relationship. Support from dad - I mean ... he supported me 100%. He made sure I had everything that I needed. Like when I went off to college, he gave me gift cards and stuff and he made sure that I was like strong enough to finish. He wanted me to finish because he knew I would be a good example for my sister. ...cause, I was the first one to graduate from college.

Camille: We have a good relationship ... Like I said ... I was a daddy’s girl. I loved my father to death. aam... I have a good relationship with my dad. I loved him then and I love him now. Like, I said. as I child, I felt that he did the right thing. As an adult, now, I feel that he should have called the police, because the altercation repeated itself, once mom got angry... so she really did not get any help. My relationship with my dad is still great ... it did not changed at all...
same way I loved him then. I still love him now. I did not understand why… sometimes… I didn’t… I would question why, why… why… are you still here? why go through this? But at the same time, … I kind of got it in my head, that he felt he was obligated to be there to help raise us. aam… That’s what I felt then. Now as an adult, I know that, regardless, we could have been taken care of without the violence. He could have still done what he needed to do … without being in the household. … I also have a great relationship with my mother. I did then, and I do now. I have been able to talk with her about the things that happen back then aam, but it did not change the love that I have for her. They both supported me equally. Aam … They have always supported me in anything that I have done. Aam … They both made sure that I had the things I need pertaining to love, finance, clothes, food … I never went without. … There were some rough days, but I never went without.

Sharah: In the beginning, my relationship was kinda... rocky. I rebelled against their authority. Whatever they said don’t do… I did. But now … we have a very good relationship… It took many years, and with me having to go to counseling to find out it was not my fault, It was nothing I could do about it. And then it’s them arguing all the time, and going at it so much, not one but both had problems that I could not fix.

They always cared. I know they cared… am … but they … like, were never around. Once they are around they’d start arguing and stuff, both parents were workaholics. Back then, you know they care, but if you care, because they were
never there, you wouldn’t just only provide a place for me to sleep, you would be there too. You know they care… but they were… but they were workaholics, they did not spend as much time with us because they were always working. They provided a place for us to live …so … but they were not there physically and emotionally, because when they were home they were fighting. They both had problems that I could not help them with

**Tatyana:** …So now…I and my mom are like best friends. Mom is there for everything …that me and my sister need.

Participants then discussed how they viewed their future intimate relationships:

**Tiffany:** I feel like it wouldn’t happen the same way… I am not sure, because…I don’t really know… I don’t know how to answer that. It wouldn’t happen the same way. … am…I use to think that… am… two people together was like perfect and that they don’t fight or anything like that… so that change my mind about the whole situation about being the perfect couple… whatever….. um … so, that kind of changed my mind.

**Valerie**…chuckles…Well… When I first started dating, it was kind a like, I dated boys that I ran. Like they were I own you, you listen to me and that kind of thing… But now, my fiancé he is more like … masculine, so he is like… so he is not going to let me just talk him down like. But I am actually with him, but …so he is different from my father also, because I am dating him.

**Camille:** ….In a relationship that I was in, I found out that my ex was cheating on me, I did the same exact … same thing that I saw my mom do. **GH:** How does
witnessing the fight affect you? Camille: It makes me sad…yes, … it makes me sad.

Sharah: …It did affect my intimate relationships... I could say, I don’t think, I can say, probably like, I don’t think that I am … like affectionate, ….I can’t get close. It’s like…I get close but then I back away. …GH: OK, and you think that is as a result of watching violence: I think it is. I don’t like to argue, not only from in my relationships. I cannot argue with no one because I shut down or I won’t say nothing. And then I will explode. I am like a ticking time bomb with me… I realize the cycle that I was going through, and that I had been through and that I had to seek counseling for myself. I would shut down and don’t say anything. So I believe it was as a result from watching my parents argue all the time.

Tatyana: I can’t really speak on that, because … I had some abusive relationships.. so… it is what it is, it is affecting my future, because I don’t trust any dudes, period.

Theme 7: Showing Respect and Admiration

Tiffany: Um…now…like, now, well…Now that I am older I realize more… that I am more respectful, and I respect adults most of the time. Back then, I would always…I would always like… get in fights and argue with adults …GH: Did witnessing the fight make you want to get in fights or have an impact on your relationship with peers? T:: Kinda and… um...I feel like my mom she was protecting herself , so that if something would happen, I feel like I was protecting
myself, so I would fight people for no reason, get in arguments for no reason and …

Valerie: Well… with my stepfather, he…I have a real good relationship with him. Like, I love him to death. Because he is just like real kind hearted … and he loves me… and I love him… like we look out for each other or whatever….I mean … he supported me 100%. He made sure I had everything that I needed. Like when I went off to college, he gave me gift cards and stuff and he made sure that I was like strong enough to finish. He wanted me to finish because he knew I would be a good example for my sister. …cause, I was the first one to graduate from college.

Camille: We have a good relationship … Like I said … I was a daddy’s girl. I loved my father to death. aam… I have a good relationship with my dad. I loved him then and I love him now. Like, I said. as I child, I felt that he did the right thing. My relationship with my dad is still great … it did not changed at all… the same way I loved him then. I still love him now. …I also have a great relationship with my mother. I did then, and I do now. I have been able to talk with her about the things that happen back then aam, but it did not change the love that I have for her. They both supported me equally. Aam …They have always supported me in anything that I have done. Aam …They both made sure that I had the things I need pertaining to love, finance, clothes, food … I never went without.

Sharah: Well … at that time, it was like… I really did not want to be with my father. He would tell me to wash the dishes and I would look at him and roll my
eyes, like who are you? you are not my dad. Who is this person? At that time, I did not trust him. …I would shut down and don’t say anything so I believe it was as a result from watching my parents argue all the time.

Tatyana: But I still viewed him as a strong dad. … P5: …So now…me and my mom are like best friends. Mom is there for everything …that me and my sister need.

Theme 8: Feeling Unsafe, and Uncertain

Tiffany: It made me happy because I did not want my mom to be arrested. So… but then again, I don’t… he should have,, but then again… he should have called the police… but then again he shouldn’t have. Cause, … I know something bad would happen to my mom… she would get arrested and we would be taken away… and all that, then again but he should have thought of a way to protect himself, and make sure that … so that if anything was to happen he knew that the police could take care of it.

Valerie: The fact that he really didn’t take up for himself made me looked at him as a weakling. He looked real weak to me but as I got older, he told me why he did what he did. So that made sense later on, but at that time he looked real weak to me.

Camille: I didn’t feel anyway, GH: How did you react? CAMILLE: I didn’t do anything. I was hiding GH: What were your thoughts, if any, about your father? I did not really have any thoughts … because I knew he wouldn’t… he wouldn’t
want her to go to jail and at the same time, she was the mother of his kids, so I didn’t really have any thoughts about that. … I was a daddy’s girl.

**Sharah:** when my father called the police: I was scared, upset and angry at the same time. Being a teenager again … I said … how could you call the police on my mom? This is somebody that you said you love and you marry … you want to put my mom in jail… how can you do this … how can you call the police on her? Why are you trying to take my mom away from me … She never put you in jail. My mom never put you in jail. She never called the police on you. At the time when he did it, I was angry at him… I was angry. I have friends that experienced it, but I never experienced it. All kids want both parents so it was kind of a double edge sword for me.

**Tatyana:** I felt scared … you know… He didn’t want her to go to jail …you know. … so we were kinda surprised, … but after he called the police you know … she’d seen … like he was serious… you know…. GH: How did you react?

**Tatyana:** We were surprised … like he was tired of it… he was to the point where he was tired. He wasn’t trying to hit her back. I guess he just wanted to make her stop. GH: What were your thoughts, if any, about your father? Nothing really, we were just surprised that he did call the police

**Theme 9: Lack of Trust and Confidence in Father**

**Tiffany:** No… like… I don’t care anymore. It was like I don’t care .. I don’t think he wanted her to get arrested. Or get in trouble with the police. so he just left so there wouldn’t be a big problem or anything else wouldn’t happen.
Valerie: I mean… he… kinda. … just like let somebody run him over pretty much… I didn’t think it was acceptable, just because no matter what you see on TV and in real life like what you don’t see women like running over men and like pretty much demeaning them. Like...what I saw when I was younger was like men as master men or whatever, so it wasn’t normal. It was like something different. And ...like, I didn’t think that it…I didn’t feel it was supposed to be done that way….

Sharah: Well … at that time, it was like… I really did not want to be with my father. He would tell me to wash the dishes and I would look at him and roll my eyes, like who are you? you are not my dad. Who is this person? At that time I did not trust him. If someone said something I didn’t like, or I would try to change something…., I can say, probably like, I don’t think that I am … like affectionate, ….I can’t get close. It’s…I get close but then I back away. so I believe it was as a result from watching my parents argue all the time.

Tatyana: I mean… you know… seeing everything my parents did, I don’t talk to people at all … I don’t trust anybody, period … and I kind of blame it on my mom and dad, a lot. …Participants then spoke about communicating with their parents

Theme 10: Managing Interpersonal Communication

Tiffany: After that, I did not really talk to him about it. But my mom …I ask, I asked her what happened. And she wouldn’t tell me. … and, then I was like…is
everything OK?. I asked her why are you mad, and she said, you are too young to understand. And I said OK I don’t want to see that happen again.

**Tiffany:** I would like for them to know that witnessing it…probably, … kind of change like my outlook of the future. I would like them to know that there could have been a better way to talk the situation out ... instead of using violence, yelling and arguing and all that. They could have sat down and talk about it, like normal people …cause... I shouldn’t have witnessed it or anything, so….  

**Valerie:** Pretty much I stayed out of the situation, because my mom…I was raised to stay out of grown folks business, that’s how I was raise … because it was not my business. And I feel like, I am not going to be a part of it. It’s not my business. I am not saying anything … because it was not my place.

**Camille:** I knew…I knew when she was upset, and at that rage, I couldn’t say anything to her at that time. I just…Like I said, I was scared and I was crying so when he started running to get away from her, that’s when I ran into the bedroom myself. I did not say anything to dad.

**Sharah:** When they calmed down I told them that that they needed help! …I did not want to be here…. I want to be with my grandparents!  

**Tatyana:** Well ... my dad, he’ll come sit all of us …. like it’s five of us … so my dad, he’ll come sit all of us down and explain why she is so angry… because he did this or because he did that, … and… he shouldn’t a did it… but my mom … there is really no talking to her. When she is at that point, she is at that point.

Research Sub-Question 4
According to girls living in a home where their mothers abused their fathers, how did these experiences affect their relationships outside the home?

**Theme 11 Identifying social problems**

Participants explained:

**Tiffany**: I would like for them to know that witnessing it…probably, kind of change like my outlook of the future, because … am… I use to think that… am… two people together was like perfect and that they you don’t fight or anything like that… so that change my mind about the whole situation about being the perfect couple… whatever….. Um … so, that kind of change my mind…

**Valerie**: …when I started college and I started taking sociology classes, I realize a lot of things that were going on and a lot of reasons why I act the way I act …GH: Do you think violence between parents could affect a future relationship?

**Valerie**: I feel like it could… I’ve gotten this far however, and it hasn’t happened… I am not going to try to make it happen, but it could…

**Camille**: Aam… As an adult, with my mom’s action, the same thing happened to me, where I found my boyfriend cheating on me, and I repeated the same behavior. So … aam …I … because of their actions, it made me sad and angry, and it cause me to abuse someone… because I saw her abuse my father.

**Sharah**: I would have like my parents to have known that their behavior and the things that they were doing that it reflects off on to, you know, us, my brothers and myself, …am…as to the things that we do, or were doing and the things that we allowed into our lives… Instead of fussing and fighting … I think our
parents… like …should have told us some things we can expect in life… Instead of them arguing and we go to them to help with homework, then it’s like, go to your room, we’ll help you later, and you never get the help that you need. So now, it’s like you have to go to an outside source to try to get the help or to get the things you need or to even ask questions that we don’t understand. Their constant violent behavior prevented progress in our lives growing up.

**Tatyana:** I acted out in school real bad…. and it was to a point where … like ...

they sent someone out to the house ... I used to… like …let what goes on in the home affect me in school … because I was so angry … so I just take it out on everybody

**Theme 12: Sense Making**

**Tiffany:** Basically, I just want to say that … I feel like the whole parents fighting thing in the home does have an negative impact on the kids and society, because people view…like always… ...um… when they see African American kids fighting they automatically think violence, and what ...and I feel like … if there is violence in the home, kids will start to believe that it is all about violence…whatever... …and, I feel like they shouldn’t be fighting in front of the kids…cause… then they will think it is good to fight. … and, believe that fighting will get me through it, and that’s not how it should be, because nowadays kids are really bad and violent…you know. To be as close… I wouldn’t say they should get back together or to be as close as they were before. They are just like friends but …pause, (empty). I just want to see them be close and be happy.
Valerie: I am 100% glad that my mom did not throw blows at my father. I would hate to see the end of that situation.

Camille: At that time, I felt like he did the right thing, because he could’ve. Most of … from what I knew, because he could have fought back … but he didn’t… that showed me that a man isn’t supposed to hit a woman, because, it’s kinda… …like … and you look at your dad … and dad is supposed to do things, and kinda teach the girls the kind of boyfriends or man or husbands that she is supposed to have … so by him not doing that … it makes me feel that he did the right thing and that is what every man should do. Aam … I now know, as an adult that he should have called the police, because it happened more than once, by him not calling the police. His behavior did not change how I view him – No it didn’t.

Camille: No… because I knew that he was a really strong man. He could have abused her back. I just felt that it was instilled in him that you are not supposed to put his hands on a woman. Regardless of what. …so…aam… I think that’s what made my love for him stayed.

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called the police, because it happened more than once, by him not calling the police. His behavior did not change how I view him – No it didn’t.

**Sharah:** At the time when he did it, I was angry at him... I was angry. I have friends that experienced it, but I never experienced it. All kids want both parents so it was kind of a double edge sword for me.

**Tatyana:** He didn’t want her to go to jail … you know. … so we were kinda surprised, … but after he called the police you know … she’d seen … like he was serious… you know…. We were surprised … like he was tired of it… he was to the point where he was tired. He wasn’t trying to hit her back. I guess he just wanted to make her stop. GH: What were your thoughts, if any, about your father? P5: Nothing really, we were just surprised that he did call the police.

**Camille:** Just that I know it is … it is … violence is not acceptable. No one should be abused in any type of way. There are ways of solving things and we all as adults … parents … and teenagers need to figure out other ways to solve problems other than violence.

**Sharah:** I can say… that … when you sit and you do watch your parents argue and fight. Am .. Even, It doesn’t have to be your parents. It could be your aunt and uncle, or somebody else in your family, a family friend, you know, when you see that stuff growing up and that’s all you see, as a child growing up it does (emphasis) … rub off on them.. I know I will not argue in front of my kids with anyone, I will not argue with anyone, I’d rather walk away from you than to be
confrontational with you. I will walk away. You can argue… but it takes two to argue cause you cannot argue by yourself.

**Tatyana:** I mean… you know… seeing everything my parents did, I don’t talk to people at all … I don’t trust anybody, period … and I kind of blame it on my mom and dad, a lot.

**Tatyana:** No… I don’t know … cause …I still… viewed … him as my father figure – We were still close… and like … cause… after that they still had arguments, but they were not as big…and my mom and I did not speak… I didn’t change my feelings for my father… then, but it was mostly my mom, ‘cause … I became more scared of her. My father’s behavior did not change my perception of him..

**Valerie:** The fact that he really didn’t take up for himself made me looked at him as a weakling. He looked real weak to me but as I got older he told me why he did what he did. So that made sense later on, but at that time he looked real weak to me.

**Camille:** No… because I knew that he was a really strong man. He could have abused her back. I just felt that it was instilled in him that you are not supposed to put his hands on a woman. Regardless of what…. … so…aam… I think that’s what made my love for him stayed.

**Sharah:** Well … at that time, it was like… I really did not want to be with my father. He would tell me to wash the dishes and I would look at him and roll my eyes, like who are you? you are not my dad. Who is this person? At that time I did
not trust him. I could say, I don’t think, I can say, probably like, I don’t think that
I am … like affectionate, ….I can’t get close. It’s…I get close but then I back
away. …GH: OK, and you think that is as a result of watching violence: I think it
is. I don’t like to argue, not only from in my relationships. I cannot argue with no
one because I shut down or I won’t say nothing! And then I will explode. I am
like a ticking time bomb with me… I would shut down and don’t say anything so
I believe it was as a result from watching my parents argue all the time.

Sharah: I can say… that …when you sit and you do watch your parents argue
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