Adolescents’ Evaluations of Psychological and Emotional Abuse in Romantic Relationships
and the Role of Friendship and Parental Monitoring

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Abstract

Teen Dating Violence (TDV) is a prevalent problem that adolescents face (Hébert et al., 2017), with negative consequences occurring for those who experience it (e.g., Bell & Bailey, 2020). Adolescents do not always perceive certain dating behaviours as abuse, such as in instances of emotional or psychological abuse (Borges et al., 2020). Additionally, peers and friends play a role in adolescents’ TDV experiences (Giordano et al., 2015), while parental monitoring has been linked to TDV perpetration (Espelage et al., 2020). No research has examined adolescents’ evaluations of emotional and psychological abuse and the role friendship and parental monitoring play on these evaluations. This study examined adolescents’ evaluations of emotional and psychological abuse, taking into consideration the friend involved and the prevalence of parental monitoring enacted by their parent. Adolescents (N = 97, 13-17) completed vignettes, evaluating the TDV scenario and the perpetrators’ behaviour: through a 2 (TDV: emotional or psychological abuse) x 2 (friend gender: male or female) x 2 (friend role: perpetrator or victim) design, and parents were asked to complete the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire. The main findings revealed that adolescents did not evaluate emotional and psychological abuse differently. However, when taking into consideration their friends’ role and gender, differences were found. Also, adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviours more negatively when they were friends, and when their friend was female and the perpetrator. Parental monitoring was not found to be a significant predictor of adolescents’ evaluations of TDV scenarios. Overall, this research advances our understanding of adolescents’ perceptions of TDV and how they evaluate emotional and psychological abuse and the perpetrator’s behaviours, taking into consideration the perpetrator’s gender and their relationship to the perpetrator and victim.

Keywords: teen dating violence, adolescence, friendship, parental monitoring
Résumé

La violence dans les relations amoureuses des jeunes est un problème courant auquel les jeunes sont confrontés (Hébert et al., 2017), entraînant des conséquences négatives pour les victimes (Bell et Bailey, 2020). De plus, les adolescents ne perçoivent pas toujours certains comportements amoureux comme étant de l’abus, notamment dans les cas de violence émotionnelle ou psychologique (Borges et al., 2020). Les camarades et les amis aussi jouent un rôle important dans les expériences de violence dans les relations amoureuses des jeunes (Giordano et al., 2015) et il a également été constaté que la surveillance parentale est liée à la perpétration de violence dans les relations amoureuses des jeunes (Espelage et al., 2020). Aucune recherche n’a examiné les évaluations de violence émotionnelle et psychologique des jeunes et le rôle que l’amitié et la surveillance parentale jouent sur ces évaluations. Cette étude a permis d'examiner les évaluations de violence émotionnelle et psychologique auxquelles sont confrontés les jeunes, en tenant compte de l'ami impliqué et de la prévalence de la surveillance parentale mise en place par les parents. Les jeunes (N = 97, 13-17) ont rempli des vignettes, évaluant le scénario de violence dans les relations amoureuses et le comportement de l'agresseur, selon un modèle 2 (violence dans les relations amoureuses: violence émotionnelle ou psychologique) x 2 (sexe de l'ami: masculin ou féminin) x 2 (rôle de l'ami: agresseur ou victime). Les parents furent invités à remplir le Questionnaire de surveillance parentale. Les principaux résultats ont révélé que les jeunes n'évaluent pas différemment la violence émotionnelle et psychologique. Toutefois, si l'on prend en considération le rôle et le sexe de leurs amis, on constate des différences. De plus, les adolescents ont évalué de façon plus négative les comportements de l'agresseur lorsqu'ils étaient amis, et lorsque leur amie était une fille ainsi que l'agresseur. La surveillance parentale ne s'est pas avérée être un facteur prédictif significatif de l'évaluation des scénarios de
violence dans les relations amoureuses des jeunes. En somme, cette recherche fait progresser notre compréhension des perceptions de la violence dans les relations amoureuses des jeunes par ceux-ci et de la façon dont ils évaluent la violence émotionnelle et psychologique et les comportements de l’agresseur, en tenant compte du sexe de l'agresseur et de leur relation avec l'agresseur et la victime.

*Mots clés :* violence dans les relations amoureuses des jeunes, adolescence, amitié, surveillance parentale
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Adolescents’ Evaluations of Psychological and Emotional Abuse in Romantic Relationships and the Role of Friendship and Parental Monitoring

Teen Dating Violence (TDV) is experienced by 15-26% of adolescents before they turn 18 years old (Centers of Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2020), and can begin to occur with adolescents as young as 13 years old (Bell & Bailey, 2020). In Quebec, between 25-36% of adolescents experience TDV (Hébert et al., 2017). TDV occurs between two individuals in a close and intimate relationship (CDC, 2020) and is categorized into multiple forms including physical, cyber, sexual, psychological, or emotional abuse (Foshee et al., 2015; Lavoie et al., 2000; Wincentak et al., 2017; Wolfe et al., 2001). In heterosexual adolescent romantic relationships, there is a bidirectionality of TDV, where both the male and female may be the perpetrators and victims of violence in the relationship (Gallopin & Leigh, 2009; Lavoie et al., 2000; Samuels & Bailey, 2020). Therefore, both adolescent males and females have the propensity to engage in these negative and detrimental behaviours.

Adolescence is a time with increased social interactions (McElhaney et al., 2008), including the introduction to romantic partners (Kochendorfer & Kerns, 2020; McElhaney et al., 2008), and the experience of emotional and psychological abuse is detrimental to adolescents’ development (Wincetak et al., 2017). Specifically, negative consequences associated with TDV for adolescents who experience it, may include mental health issues, such as anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation (Banyard & Cross, 2008; Bell & Bailey, 2020; Holt & Espelage, 2005). Moreover, there are academic consequences for adolescents who experience TDV, including low school achievement and grades, as well as greater levels of school dropout (Banyard & Cross, 2008; Bell & Bailey, 2020). Additionally, the negative externalizing behaviours associated with experiencing TDV can persist into adulthood (Foshee et al., 2015). Therefore, TDV is an
ongoing problematic experience for adolescents, which may manifest as further problems when the individual enters adulthood.

While there has been extensive research on the prevalence of TDV (e.g., Bell & Bailey, 2020; Espelage et al., 2020; Exner-Cortens et al., 2013), little research has examined how adolescents may perceive these different acts of TDV and how their perceptions of the perpetrator and victim may be influenced by friendship. Moreover, parental monitoring practices have only been examined in context of perpetration of TDV (DiClemente et al., 2001; Richards et al., 2014). As such, parental monitoring may play an important role in predicting how adolescents will perceive TDV scenarios and individuals. Consequently, this study will address how adolescents perceive instances of emotional and psychological TDV and the perpetrators’ behaviours within these scenarios when they are friends with the perpetrator and when they are not; and assess how parental monitoring may predict adolescents’ perceptions of TDV. Together, results on this topic may help inform academia and mental health professionals regarding adolescent behaviours in their romantic relationships and inform practices for TDV prevention for educators and parents alike.

Literature Review

Psychological and Emotional Abuse

For the purposes of this study, psychological and emotional abuse in adolescent dating relationships is of particular interest. This is because the perpetration of psychological abuse is associated with acceptance of dating violence in a relationship, as well as internalizing symptoms such as depression and anxiety (Temple et al., 2016). Moreover, the mental health of an adolescent is diminished when they experience emotional abuse, with increased controlling
behaviours (Jewkes et al., 2018). As such, it is important to understand psychological and emotional abuse in adolescent dating relationships.

Psychological abuse is defined as acts of control aimed to undermine a partner’s sense of competence, self-esteem, control, or safety within the relationship (Foshee et al., 2015; Kasian & Painter, 1992; Lavoie et al., 2000). While emotional abuse is defined as a partner acting in a jealous and possessive manner over their romantic partner, over and above the victimized partner’s other relationships (i.e., friends or family), specifically, by way of verbal threats, insults, and blaming the partner in the relationship (Foshee et al., 1996; Wolfe et al., 2001). Therefore, emotional abuse aims to harm the partner by possessing the partner through verbal assault, while psychological abuse aims to control the partner by attacking their cognitive functions so that the individual may feel like they cannot function without their abuser.

It is important to note that in some instances, adolescents understand that TDV occurs, yet may perceive such violent acts as appropriate and may even expect these behaviours to occur as the outcomes of certain situations in the dating relationship (Próspero, 2006). Simultaneously, in instances of physical abuse, adolescents may agree and understand that this type of abuse is never appropriate, however, they make exceptions to this based on the context of the situation (Gallopín & Leigh, 2009). Research on perceptions of non-physical abuse in dating relationships have been less consistent. For instance, during instances of emotional abuse, the majority of adolescents did not perceive these behaviours as TDV (Borges et al., 2020). Therefore, while adolescents recognize physical abuse, this is not the case for non-physical forms of abuse, such as emotional and psychological abuse. In a study with adolescents from Mexico, a high percentage of respondents who experienced emotional abuse did not perceive that they had been abused by their partner (Cortés et al., 2014). However, when asked indirectly if they experienced
emotional or psychological abuse, (i.e., if they have felt afraid, humiliated, or emotionally punished by their partner), these same individuals reported that they did. This reinforces the notion that adolescents may not perceive abuse, yet they experience victimization without the label of abuse (Cortés et al., 2014). Evidently, adolescents’ perceptions of TDV are inconsistent, depending on the type of abuse they are subjected to. As a result, when adolescents hold accepting attitudes of TDV, they are more likely to perpetrate TDV (Karlsson et al., 2018). Thus, these contextualized social experiences shape their perception of dating violence, which in turn may result in perpetration of TDV.

Overall, there are serious consequences for adolescents who experience TDV. While adolescents understand that violence is not acceptable (Próspero, 2006), they still make exceptions for these behaviours (Gallopin & Leigh, 2009; Karlsson et al., 2018). Additionally, adolescents may not perceive non-physical forms of abuse as abusive dating behaviours in their romantic relationships (Borges et al., 2020; Cortés et al., 2014), which may lead to persistent abuse in the dating relationship. However, research has not examined how adolescents perceive these non-physical forms of abuse in TDV scenarios as an outside observer and how they view the perpetrators and victims involved. This may have implications for their ability to perceive violence in their own relationships, as research has shown that there is a relationship between adolescents’ perceptions and behaviours (Próspero, 2006).

Adolescent Age Differences and Teen Dating Violence

Adolescence is a period of development where biological, cognitive, and social changes occur (Peralta et al., 2017; Yurgelun-Todd, 2007). As such, there is a developmental difference in how older and younger adolescents’ experience and understand TDV. Previous research has found that adolescents aged 15-16 years old and older experience more TDV than younger
adolescents (Chapin, 2013; Halpern et al., 2001). Moreover, when school-based TDV interventions are used, a younger group of youth may be explained TDV in terms of aggression towards others, while older adolescents may be explained TDV in terms of dating attitudes and behaviours (De La Rue et al., 2017).

However, little research has examined how adolescents as young as 13 years old perceive TDV events and perpetration. One study found that 12-15 years old had difficulty distinguishing between behaviours that were bullying and TDV (Hertzog et al., 2016). Although TDV is communicated to older and younger adolescents differently (De La Rue et al., 2017), and they have different experiences of TDV (Chapin, 2013), it remains unknown if developmental differences extend to older and younger adolescents’ perceptions of TDV. As a result, it is important to assess how young and old adolescents’ perceptions of TDV may differ when assessing psychologically and emotionally abusive events.

**Gender Differences and Teen Dating Violence**

Research on TDV has found that there is bidirectionality in perpetration and victimization of violence in heterosexual adolescent relationships (Samuels & Bailey, 2020), with some differences in prevalence. For instance, girls reported experiencing all forms of abuse more than boys (Hébert et al., 2017). Moreover, adolescent girls reported more victimization than boys in instances of physical abuse (Wincentak et al., 2017). Conversely, adolescent girls also perpetrated more physical abuse (Borges et al., 2020; Wincentak et al., 2017). Recent findings on emotional and psychological abuse asserted that adolescent girls perpetrated psychological abuse and emotional abuse, even though these rates of perpetration were only marginally different from each other (Borges et al., 2020; Hébert et al., 2017). Therefore, while abuse is bidirectional in adolescent heterosexual dating relationships (Samuels & Bailey, 2020), recent findings show
how abuse is experienced at high rates by girls in terms of perpetration and victimization (Borges et al., 2020; Hébert et al., 2017). However, it is important to note that research has pointed to how these rates of perpetration and victimization may be biased, as adolescent boys may experience more stigmatization in reporting instances of abuse (Wincentak et al., 2017), and also suggests that there may be gender differences in the perpetration and victimization of TDV (e.g., Hébert et al., 2017). This emphasizes the importance of examining the differences in adolescents’ evaluations of male and female perpetrators’ behaviours during instances of emotional and psychological abuse.

Gender differences also exist in adolescents’ perceptions of different forms of violence. For instance, adolescent girls were more likely than adolescent boys to perceive certain acts as emotionally or psychologically abusive (Borges et al., 2020). Research has shown that abuse can be detected by adolescent males and females at different degrees. However, less research has examined how adolescents perceive male and female perpetrators and victims. One study with adolescent Mexican-American boys found that while the participants acknowledged that girls may perpetrate dating violence, adolescent girls were perpetrators as a result of males’ behaviours (Haglund et al., 2019). The adolescent boys perceived that the initiation of abuse by female perpetrators was a response to the male behaviours, such as cheating (Haglund et al., 2019). In another study, Haglund et al. (2012), found that adolescent girls perceived violence perpetrated by adolescent boys to be caused by a lack of respect for women and that these perpetrators were immature. Moreover, adolescent girls also believed that female victims may play a role in stopping the violence from occurring (Haglund et al., 2012). Another study found that when violence was perpetrated by females, adolescents perceived the seriousness of this violence to be less so than when males enact violence in the dating relationship (Storer et al., 2017). As such,
these results indicate that gender-based perceptions of perpetrator’s behaviours in TDV scenarios do exist.

Ultimately, gender-based differences are not as extensively examined within the context of perceptions of the perpetrator’s behaviours. An examination of such gender differences may bring insight into understanding how adolescents interpret the abusive scenario (Edelen et al., 2009), as well as how adolescent male and female perpetrators are perceived by adolescents.

**Peers and Friendships**

Peers and friends are an important part of adolescent development, as adolescents self-explore and learn ways to communicate with others during this time (Bell & Bailey, 2020). Moreover, adolescence is marked by establishing intimate relationships outside the family context to avoid loneliness (Kochendorfer & Kerns, 2020). As adolescents are consistently receiving information from their peers regarding their thoughts on relationships and various social norms, this information influences their intimate partnerships (Bailey & Beal, 2020). As such, friendships have a direct effect on dating relationships (Giordano et al., 2015; Kochendorfer & Kerns, 2020; Shorey et al., 2018). For instance, research has found that less perpetration of TDV occurred when peer friendships themselves were less violent (Giordano et al., 2015), and when there was social support from peers (Espelage et al., 2020). Moreover, the likelihood of an adolescent becoming a perpetrator of TDV was higher if the adolescent had a friend who was also a perpetrator of TDV (Foshee et al., 2013). Similarly, an adolescent’s probability of becoming a victim of TDV increased when they were friends with individuals who were in a violent relationship (Arriaga & Foshee, 2016), and if they were friends with adolescents that engaged in deviant behaviours, such as risky substance use, risky sexual
practices, etc. (Vézina et al., 2011). Therefore, friendships and peer experiences are an important factor in the perpetration and victimization of TDV.

Instances of perpetrator evaluations have been researched in the context of adolescent bullying scenarios. In general, perpetrators are perceived negatively in these scenarios by adolescents (Kollerová et al., 2014; Shohoudi Mojdehi et al., 2019). Additionally, peer status plays a role in the evaluations of bullies and victims. For instance, one study found that adolescents negatively evaluated victims, however, peers’ evaluations of bullies were less negative if the bully held positive status values (Pouwels et al., 2017). Therefore, peers’ evaluations of perpetrators may be dependent on social factors, such as popularity or closeness to the individual. As such, it is important to understand how adolescents evaluate the perpetrator’s behaviours when they are close to one individual in an emotionally or psychologically abusive dating scenario.

Together, friendship and peer closeness are related to aggression during adolescence (e.g., Bellmore et al., 2012; Foshee et al., 2015). However, research has only examined adolescents’ evaluations of abusive scenarios when they were friends with the perpetrator within the context of bullying (Kollerová et al., 2014; Pouwels et al., 2017). No research has examined adolescents’ evaluations of friends who are perpetrators in TDV scenarios. Research on friendship has also illustrated its influence on adolescents’ attitudes toward TDV (Giordano et al., 2015) and, as seen with bullying research, perpetrators of aggression are evaluated less negatively when they are liked by peers (Pouwels et al., 2017). As such, these assessments in the context of TDV are important for understanding the potential passivity an adolescent may have toward a friend’s aggression in the dating relationship, which may speak to their own passivity in instances of TDV where they are the perpetrator or victim.
Parental Monitoring

Parental monitoring has been found to be related to adolescents’ perpetration of TDV (Espelage et al., 2020; Howard et al., 2003). This is defined as a parent’s awareness of their adolescents’ whereabouts and activities, which may include the parent enacting specific actions and behaviours (Lionetti et al., 2019; Merrin et al., 2019). Therefore, parents and adolescents are active agents in the exchange of information, whereby the adolescent autonomously decides what information they provide their parents about their own whereabouts (Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Lionetti et al., 2019).

Positive associations have been found with increased parental monitoring. Specifically, when parents engaged in parental monitoring, the quality of the parent-child relationship was shown to improve (Branstetter & Furman, 2013; Kerns et al., 2001). Moreover, parental monitoring has been found to decrease several negative outcomes in adolescence (Merrin et al., 2019), for example, decreased negative health risks, such as alcohol use and delinquency (Barnes et al., 2006; Branstetter & Furman, 2013; Rodríguez-Meirinhos et al., 2020). Therefore, there are multiple benefits for parents to engage in parental monitoring.

Additionally, parental monitoring can buffer against adolescents’ potential to engage in aversive behaviours. Research on TDV and parental monitoring has found that increased parental monitoring decreased adolescent’s perpetration of TDV (Espelage et al., 2020; Howard et al., 2003). As such, parental monitoring has important consequences for the perpetration of TDV experiences. However, little research has examined how parental monitoring plays a role in perceived dating violence. One study found that parent related factors, such as parental monitoring and attachment style, were related to adolescents’ perception of whether they were likely to engage in dating violence (Chapple, 2003). Yet, no research has addressed how parental
monitoring may influence adolescents’ perceptions of abuse and the perpetrators in TDV scenarios. Research on parental monitoring in general has found that when parents communicated with their adolescents how they will engage in parental monitoring, the quality of the parent-child relationship increased and adolescents were more likely to accept parental monitoring (LaFleur et al., 2016). This asserts that parental monitoring has a positive role in adolescents’ lives as it relates to their experiences with TDV, as it may help explain adolescents’ evaluations of TDV scenarios and of the perpetrator and victim in these scenarios. As such, open communication between a parent and their adolescent may be enhanced by parental monitoring, bringing awareness to the negative behaviours in a dating relationship, and assist adolescents to better perceive TDV during different scenarios.

Current Study

The main goal of this research study was to examine how adolescents evaluate scenarios of emotional and psychological abuse in adolescent dating relationships, as well as the influence friendship and parental monitoring may have in these evaluations. Previous research has shown that adolescents have difficulty distinguishing emotional abuse from physical abuse (Borges et al., 2020), and research with participants 18 years old and older found that these individuals held accepting attitudes of psychological abuse in dating relationships compared to physical abuse (Masci & Sanderson, 2017). However, no research has examined any differences in evaluations between emotional and psychological abuse during adolescence. Moreover, developmentally, 15- to 17-year-old (i.e., older) adolescents and 13–14-year-old (i.e., younger) adolescents are different (Meeus, 2018) and TDV is communicated more directly to older adolescents than younger adolescents (De La Rue et al., 2017). Gender differences also exist in TDV perpetration, specifically, females perpetrate TDV at greater rates than males (Borges et al., 2020; Wincentak
et al., 2017), and it is easier to rationalize a female adolescent’s reasoning (i.e., partner cheating) for perpetrating in the first place (Haglund et al., 2019). Friendship is also important in the perpetration of TDV, as peers’ and friends’ attitudes of TDV influences adolescents’ own attitudes towards TDV (Giordano et al., 2015). Lastly, parental monitoring has been found to be related to decreased perpetration of TDV (Espelage et al., 2020; Howard et al., 2003), and communication has been shown to be important for healthy parent-child relationships (Helfrich et al., 2020). With increased communication, facilitated by parental monitoring (LaFleur et al., 2016), adolescents may have a better understanding of TDV and are may evaluate instances of TDV as more negative and hurtful behaviour.

As such, there were five objectives of this study. The first objective was to examine how adolescents evaluated instances of emotional and psychological abuse. It was hypothesized that adolescents would negatively evaluate both forms of abuse, however, there would be a difference in how negatively they perceive emotional and psychological abuse, specifically, psychological abuse would be perceived more negatively than emotional abuse (H1), given how adolescents have had difficulty distinguishing emotional abuse from other forms of abuse (Borges et al., 2020). The second objective was to examine how older and younger adolescents evaluated TDV scenarios. It was hypothesized that older adolescents would evaluate TDV scenarios more negatively than younger adolescents (H2). The third objective was to examine how adolescents evaluated male and female perpetrator behaviours. Therefore, it was hypothesized that female perpetrators’ behaviour would be evaluated less negatively than male perpetrators’ behaviour (H3). The fourth objective was to examine how friendship will play a role in the participants evaluations of the perpetrator’s behaviours. As such, it was hypothesized that adolescents would
evaluate their friends less negatively when they are the perpetrator than when their friend is the victim in the TDV scenario (H4).

Lastly, the fifth objective of this study was to examine how parental monitoring predicted evaluations of TDV scenarios. For that reason, it was hypothesized that more parental monitoring reported by parents would predict negative evaluations of TDV scenarios by adolescents (H5).

In order to address the objectives of the present study, adolescents were given vignettes that depicted scenarios in which an individual was perpetrating emotional or psychological abuse to their partner. These vignettes took into consideration whether the perpetrator or victim was friends with the participant and the gender of the friend in question. Then, the adolescents were asked to evaluate the situation, as well as the perpetrators’ behaviours. In order to examine the role of parental monitoring on adolescents’ evaluations of these abusive scenarios, parents were administered the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire.

**Method**

**Participants**

Prior to conducting this research, a power analysis was conducted in order to establish the minimum sample size needed for this study. The results of this power analysis determined that a total of 88 adolescents were needed for sufficient power. In total, 97 participants were recruited. The participants were between 13 and 17 years old (57.4% female, $M_{age} = 14.66$ years old, $SD = 1.428$ years). This was the age range selected because TDV is categorized as an experience that can occur to an individual as young as 13 years old (Bell & Bailey, 2020) and before they turn 18 years old (CDC, 2020). Moreover, participants were divided into “younger” and “older” adolescence, as research has found that TDV is explained to adolescents according
to their development (De La Rue et al., 2017). Particularly, previous research on TDV has divided similar samples in the following format: 13–14-year-olds as “younger adolescence” and 15-, 16-, and 17-year-olds as “older adolescence” (De La Rue et al., 2017). As such, the current study used the same operationalization of “younger” and “older” adolescents. See Table 1 for participant descriptive statistics.

Table 1

*Participant Descriptive Statistics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mage (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Younger adolescent</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.57 (.507)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Older adolescent</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16.14 (.834)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Younger adolescent</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13.42 (.502)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Older adolescent</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.88 (.781)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>97</td>
<td>14.66 (1.428)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants largely came from households where English was the primary language spoken at home (89.4% of participants), with French spoken second (74.1% of participants). Additionally, a majority of participants reported belonging to Caucasian ethnicity (59.6% of participants). The majority of the families reported an estimated household income $75,000 or above (72.7% of participants).

Measures

*Vignettes*

Participants read a total of 8 vignettes. The within-subject design of this study was a 2 (type of abuse: emotional or psychological) x 2 (role of friend: perpetrator or victim) x 2 (gender of friend: male or female).
The story introduced the participant to two individuals who were in a romantic relationship, with which the participant was friends with one of the individuals in the relationship. Next, the story depicted an act of emotional or psychological abuse that one partner enacted toward the other (see Appendix A for vignettes). After reading each story, the participant was asked to answer questions about the situation and the perpetrator in the situation. For example, the participants were asked to morally evaluate the situation, specifically, “What do you think about what was said to [victim]?” (moral evaluation question). Additionally, in order to evaluate the perpetrator’s behaviours, the participants were asked to morally evaluate the perpetrator’s behaviour, specifically, “What do you think of [perpetrator’s] behaviour?” (moral evaluation of perpetrator’s behaviour question). Following these questions, participants selected a point on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very bad, 2 = bad, 3 = not good or bad, 4 = good, 5 = very good).

**Parental Monitoring Questionnaire**

Parents were asked to complete the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire as developed by Kerr and Stattin (2000) that contained 11 questions. Seven of these questions related to how much they knew about their adolescent in various contexts (e.g., “where your child goes right after school”), using a 4-point Likert scale from “know everything” to “don’t know at all.” While six other questions asked the parent to comment on how often they enacted certain monitoring behaviours or how often their child informs them of their whereabouts (e.g., “Do you tell your child what time he/she has to be home on school nights?” or “When you aren’t home does your child know how to get in touch with you?”). The questions here ask parents to respond to the questions with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “always.” In order to assess objective five of this study, total scores were summed and included in the analysis. Where the
possible maximum score of 40 would indicate a parent that engaged in highest degree of parental monitoring behaviours. Overall, the measure was found to have relatively high reliability ($\alpha = .790$).

**Procedure**

In order to conduct this study, research ethics was obtained by the Research Ethics Board at McGill University, REB #161-0919. Once ethics approval was received, parents of potential adolescent participants were contacted via a participant recruitment database from Montreal, Quebec. After communicating the purpose of the study to the parent, an email was sent containing the consent form to sign and return before establishing a date and time where their adolescent and themselves were available to receive the study survey links, as these survey links would be active for 24 hours once sent. Following this, a Qualtrics survey link was sent to the parent via email, in order to complete the demographics form and Parental Monitoring Questionnaire. This email also included the adolescent survey, which introduced the purpose of the study to the adolescent and asked them to provide their participatory consent. This was achieved by asking the participant to click on the “I consent” button on the survey. Once this was obtained, they were able to access the survey, where they read the vignettes and answered the subsequent questions. At the end of the adolescent’s survey, a short message was presented to the participant that further debriefed the individual on the nature and purpose of the study. Additionally, mental health and TDV resources were emailed to the parent for their adolescent, along with a small compensation (i.e., a $15 Amazon e-gift card) for the family’s participation in the study.

**Results**

**Data Analysis Plan**
To address the primary goal of the study, two four-way repeated measures ANOVA were conducted in order to assess whether participants evaluated instances of emotional and psychological abuse differently and whether these differences were also obtained in the evaluations of the perpetrator’s behaviour, based on whether they were friends with the perpetrator or not and whether the perpetrator was male or female. Next, a linear regression was conducted in order to assess whether parents’ scores on the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire predicted participants’ evaluations of abusive events.

**Data Screening and Cleaning**

*Repeated Measures ANOVA*

Preliminary analyses were run in order to test the statistical assumptions prior to conducting the main analyses. For the assumption of sphericity for each of the repeated measures ANOVA, the assumption was assumed, as there were no more than two levels for each factor included in the analyses. As the assumption of sphericity was not violated, equal variances were assumed and there were no corrections needed for the analyses.

In order to assess the assumption of normality, the Shapiro-Wilk’s test of normality was used. Results from this test revealed that none of the variables in the present analysis violated the assumption of normal distribution (Appendix B). Therefore, this assumption was met.

**Main Analyses**

*Repeated Measures ANOVA: Moral Evaluation of Abusive Scenarios*

A four-way mixed ANOVA was conducted to determine how adolescents evaluated instances of emotional and psychological abuse, taking into consideration the role their friend played in the situation, as well as the gender of that friend. Specifically, the analysis was conducted using the responses from the moral evaluation question: “What do you think about
what was said to [victim]?” Type of abuse (emotional/psychological), gender of friend (male/female), and friend role (perpetrator/victim) were entered as the within-subjects factors and age group (older/younger adolescence) was entered as the between-subjects factors. Bonferroni corrections were applied at the .05 level in all post hoc analyses.

**Main Effects**

There was a significant main effect for gender of friend, \( F(1, 81) = 140.019, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .634 \). When the friend was female \( (M = 1.614, SE = .038) \) in the scenario, they rated the scenario more negatively than when the friend was male \( (M = 2.183, SE = .049) \).

Next, there was a significant main effect for friend role, \( F(1, 81) = 5.895, p = .017, \eta_p^2 = .068 \). Adolescents rated the scenario more negatively when the friend was the perpetrator in the scenario \( (M = 1.844, SE = .041) \) than when their friend was the victim \( (M = 1.953, SE = .045) \).

Overall, when examining the differences between psychological and emotional abuse, the main effect for type of abuse revealed to be non-significant \( (p = .534) \). Therefore, adolescents did not evaluate emotional abuse \( (M = 1.882, SE = .046) \) and psychological abuse \( (M = 1.915, SE = .046) \) scenarios differently.

**Two-Way Interactions**

There was a significant interaction between type of abuse and gender of friend \( F(1, 81) = 45.554, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .360 \). There was a significant simple main effect for emotionally abusive scenarios for type of abuse across gender of friend \( F(1, 81) = 163.417, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .669 \). When reading emotionally abusive scenarios, adolescents evaluated the scenario more negatively when they were friends with the female in the scenario \( (M = 1.415, SE = .052) \) than when their friend was male \( (M = 2.349, SE = .064) \). There was a
significant simple main effect for psychologically abusive scenarios for type of abuse across
gender of friend $F(1, 81) = 8.117, p = .006, \eta^2_p = .091$. When reading psychologically abusive
scenarios, adolescents rated the scenario more negatively when their friend was female ($M = 1.813, SE = .052$) than when their friend was male ($M = 2.017, SE = .063$). Moreover, there
was a significant simple main effect for male friend across type of abuse, $F(1, 81) = 17.164, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .175$. When adolescents’ friend was male, they rated psychologically
abusive scenarios more negatively ($M = 2.017, SE = .063$) than emotionally abusive scenarios
($M = 2.349, SE = .064$). There was also a simple main affect for female friends across type of
abuse, $F(1, 81) = 31.426, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .280$. Specifically, when adolescents’ friend was
female, they rated emotionally abusive scenarios more negatively ($M = 1.415, SE = .052$) than
psychologically abusive scenarios ($M = 1.813, SE = .052$).

Moreover, there was a significant interaction between type of abuse and friend role,
$F(1, 81) = 5.536, p = .021, \eta^2_p = .064$. There was a significant simple main effect for
emotional abuse across friend role, $F(1, 81) = 10.310, p = .002, \eta^2_p = .113$. Adolescents
negatively evaluated emotional abuse scenarios more when their friend was the perpetrator ($M = 1.765, SE = .054$) than when their friend was the victim ($M = 1.999, SE = .062$). However,
there was no significant simple main effect for psychologically abusive scenarios across friend
role ($p = .814$). Additionally, there was a simple main effect for when the friend was the
perpetrator across type of abuse, $F(1, 81) = 5.155, p = .026, \eta^2_p = .060$. Specifically, when the
adolescent’s friend was the perpetrator, they evaluated emotionally abusive scenarios ($M = 1.765, SE = .054$) more negatively than psychologically abusive scenarios ($M = 1.923, SE = .054$). However, this was not found for when the adolescent’s friend was the victim ($p = .256$).
Lastly, there was a significant interaction between gender of friend and friend role, $F(1, 81) = 43.193, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .348$. There was a significant simple main effect for male friend across friend role, $F(1, 81) = 39.733, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .329$. Adolescents negatively evaluated abusive scenarios when their friend was male and the perpetrator ($M = 1.945, SE = .063$) than when their friend was the victim ($M = 2.422, SE = .061$). Also, there was a significant simple main effect for female friend across friend role, $F(1, 81) = 14.612, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .153$. Specifically, adolescents evaluated the abusive scenarios more negatively when their friend was female and was the victim ($M = 1.485, SE = .052$) than when their friend was the perpetrator ($M = 1.743, SE = .051$). Additionally, there was a significant simple main effect for when the friend was the perpetrator across gender of friend, $F(1, 81) = 6.598, p = 0.012, \eta^2_p = .075$. When adolescents were friends with the perpetrator and the friend was female, they rated the abusive scenario more negatively ($M = 1.743, SE = .051$) than when their friend was the perpetrator and male ($M = 1.945, SE = .0635$). There was also a significant simple main effect for when the friend was the victim across gender of friend, $F(1, 81) = 185.677, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .696$. When adolescents were friends with the victim, they rated the abusive scenario more negatively when their friend was the female ($M = 1.485, SE = .052$) than when their friend was the male ($M = 2.422, SE = .061$).

**Three-Way Interaction**

There was a significant three-way interaction between type of abuse, gender of friend, and friend role, $F(1, 81) = 5.411, p = 0.023, \eta^2_p = .063$. As such, simple two-way interactions were conducted to identify the significant differences.

**Psychological Abuse.** Psychologically abusive vignettes included scenarios where the adolescent was friends with either the perpetrator of the abuse or the victim of the abuse and
their friend was either male or female. As such, there was a significant interaction between gender of friend and friend role within the psychologically abusive vignettes, \( F(1, 88) = 11.482, p = .001 \eta^2_p = .115 \) (Figure 1). Simple main effects revealed that across friend’s gender, there was a significant difference in adolescents’ evaluations of psychological abuse when their friend was the victim, \( F(1, 90) = 20.649, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .187 \). Adolescents rated instances of psychological abuse more negatively when their friend was female and the victim \((M = 1.681, SE = .070)\), compared to when their friend was male \((M = 2.165, SE = .087)\). There was no simple main effect for friend gender when they were the perpetrator \((p = .911)\).

The simple main effect of gender of friend was statistically significant within the psychological abuse vignettes, \( F(1, 88) = 11.313, p = .001, \eta^2_p = .114 \), whereby female friends \((M = 1.820, SE = .051)\) were more negatively evaluated in the psychological abuse scenarios than adolescents’ male friends \((M = 2.056, SE = .062)\). However, friend role was not statistically significant within the psychological abuse vignettes \((p = .860)\).

Figure 1

Simple Two-way Interaction Between Gender of Friend and Friend Role for Psychological Abuse Scenarios

![Figure 1](image-url)
Emotional Abuse. Emotionally abusive vignettes included scenarios where the adolescent was either friends with the perpetrator of the abuse or the victim of the abuse and their friend was either male or female. As such, there was a significant interaction between gender of friend and friend role, $F(1,89) = 49.741, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .359$ (Figure 2). Simple main effects revealed across gender that there were significant differences in adolescents’ evaluations of emotional abuse when their friend was the perpetrator, $F(1,94) = 24.679, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .208$. Adolescents evaluated instances of emotional abuse more negatively when their friend was the perpetrator and female ($M = 2.022, SE = .080$), than when their friend was the perpetrator and male ($M = 2.685, SE = .090$). There was also a statistically significant main effect for adolescents’ evaluations of emotional abuse when their friend was the victim, $F(1,91) = 34.542, p < .001, \eta^2 = .275$. As such, adolescents evaluated instances of emotional abuse more negatively when their friend was the victim and female ($M = 2.022, SE = .080$), than when their friend was the victim and male ($M = 2.685, SE = .090$).

The simple main effect of gender of friend was statistically significant within the emotional abuse vignettes, $F(1,89) = 166.898, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .622$. Female friends ($M = 1.400, SE = .049$) were more negatively evaluated in the emotional abuse vignettes than adolescents’ male friends ($M = 1.356, SE = .065$). Additionally, there was a statistically significant difference of friend role within the emotional abuse vignettes, $F(1,89) = 10.533, p = 002, \eta^2_p = .106$. Adolescents evaluated the scenario more negatively when the friend was the victim ($M = 1.989, SE = .059$) than when the friend was the perpetrator ($M = 1.767, SE = .053$).
Summary of Results for Moral Evaluation of Abusive Scenarios

In order to assess hypothesis 1, results revealed that adolescents did not evaluate scenarios of emotional or psychological abuse differently. However, when considering gender of friend and friend role, adolescents did evaluate psychological and emotional abuse scenarios differently. Overall, the results did not support the hypothesis. In all of the conducted analyses, older adolescents did not evaluate the scenarios more negatively than younger adolescents, as such participants’ age did not explain differences in adolescents’ evaluations of abusive scenarios. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Repeated Measures ANOVA: Moral Evaluation Perpetrator Behaviour

A four-way mixed ANOVA was conducted to determine whether adolescents evaluated perpetrators’ behaviour differently, using responses from the question: “What do you think of [perpetrator’s] behaviour?” (moral evaluation of perpetrator behaviour question). This question also manipulated the role their friend played in the situation and the gender of their friend. Type

Figure 2

Simple Two-way Interaction between Gender of Friend and Friend role for Emotional Abuse Scenarios

![Graph showing mean evaluation scores for male and female friends in perpetrator and victim roles.](image-url)
of abuse (emotional/psychological), gender of friend (male/female), and friend role (perpetrator/victim) were entered as the within-subjects factors and age group (older/younger adolescence) was entered as the between-subjects factors. Bonferroni corrections at the .05 level were used in all post hoc analyses.

**Main Effects**

There was a significant main effect for gender of friend $F(1, 81) = 140.252, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .634$. When the friend was female ($M = 1.56714, SE = .043$) in the scenario, the perpetrator’s behaviour was rated more negatively than when the friend was male ($M = 2.149, SE = .051$).

Next, there was a significant main effect for friend role $F(1, 81) = 10.544, p = .002, \eta^2 = .115$. When the friend was the perpetrator in the scenario ($M = 1.774, SE = .043$), adolescents rated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively than when their friend was the victim ($M = 1.953, SE = .050$).

Finally, when examining the perpetrator’s behaviour in psychological and emotional abuse, the main effect for type of abuse revealed to be non-significant ($p = .174$). Therefore, when evaluating emotional ($M = 1.896, SE = .047$) and psychological abuse ($M = 1.821, SE = .049$), adolescents did not evaluate the perpetrator’s behaviour to be more negative in one type of abuse over the other.

**Two-Way Interactions**

There was a significant interaction between type of abuse and gender of friend $F(1, 81) = 48.649, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .375$. There was a significant simple main effect for emotional abuse across gender of friend, $F(1,81) = 165.276, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .671$. When the perpetrator enacted emotionally abusive behaviour, adolescents rated the perpetrator’s behaviour
more negatively when their friend was female \((M = 1.407, SE = .052)\) than when their friend was male \((M = 2.383, SE = .068)\). There was a significant simple main effect for psychological abuse across gender of friend, \(F(91,81) = 6.538, p = .012, \eta^2_p = .075\). When the perpetrator enacted psychologically abusive behaviour, adolescents rated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was female \((M = 1.407, SE = .052)\) than when their friend was male \((M = 2.383, SE = .068)\). There was a significant simple main effect for psychological abuse across gender of friend, \(F(91,81) = 6.538, p = .012, \eta^2_p = .075\). When the perpetrator enacted psychologically abusive behaviour, adolescents rated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was female \((M = 1.407, SE = .052)\) than when their friend was male \((M = 1.915, SE = .067)\). Additionally, there was a significant simple main effect for male friend across type of abuse, \(F(1,81) = 27.179, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .251\). Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was male in psychologically abusive scenarios \((M = 2.383, SE = 0.68)\) than in emotionally abusive scenarios \((M = 1.915, SE = .067)\). There was also a significant simple main effect for female friend across type of abuse, \(F(1,81) = 24.485, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .232\). Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was female in emotionally abusive scenarios \((M = 1.407, SE = .052)\) than in psychologically abusive scenarios \((M = 1.726, SE = .055)\).

Moreover, there was a significant interaction between gender of friend and friend role, \(F(1,81) = 48.649, p < 0.05, \eta^2_p = .375\). There was a significant simple main effect for male friend across friend role, \(F(1,81) = 28.966, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .263\). Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was male and the perpetrator \((M = 1.912, SE = .065)\) than when their friend was male and the victim \((M = 2.386, SE = .070)\). Also, there was a significant simple main effect for female friend across friend role, \(F(1,81) = 5.284, p = .024, = .061\). Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was female and the victim \((M = 1.490, SE = .056)\) than when their friend was female and the perpetrator \((M = 1.643, SE = .052)\). Additionally, there was a significant simple main effect for when the friend was the perpetrator across gender of
friend, $F(1,81) = 11.533, p = 0.001, \eta^2_p = .125$. When adolescents were friends with the perpetrator and the friend was female, they rated their behaviour more negatively ($M = 1.643, SE = .052$) than when their friend was the perpetrator and male ($M = 1.912, SE = .065$). There was also a significant simple main effect for when the friend was the victim across gender of friend, $F(1,81) = 137.171, p < 0.001, \eta^2_p = .629$. When adolescents were friends with the victim, they rated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was the female ($M = 1.490, SE = .056$) than when their friend was the male ($M = 1.490, SE = .052$).

**Three-Way Interaction**

There was a significant three-way interaction between type of abuse, gender of friend, and friend role, $F(1,81) = 4.70, p = .033, \eta^2_p = .055$. As such, simple two-way interactions were conducted to identify the significant differences.

**Psychological Abuse.** Psychologically abusive vignettes included scenarios where the adolescent was friends with either the perpetrator or victim of the abuse, and their friend was either male or female. As such, there was a significant interaction between gender of friend and friend role within psychologically abusive scenarios, $F(1,87) = 11.6719, p = .011, \eta^2_p = .072$ (Figure 3). Simple main effects revealed that gender of friend was only a significant difference in adolescents’ evaluations of the perpetrator’s behaviour in psychological abuse when their friend was the victim, $F(1,90) = 13.640, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .132$. Specifically, adolescents rated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively in instances of psychological abuse when their friend was female and the victim ($M = 1.681, SE = .075$), compared to when their friend was male and the victim ($M = 2.110, SE = .096$). However, there was no simple main effect when the adolescent’s friend was the perpetrator ($p = .822$).
Simple main effect was also found for gender of friend, \( F(1, 87) = 9.185, p = 0.003, \eta_p^2 = 0.095 \). Specifically, adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was female (\( M = 1.378, SE = 0.049 \)), than when their friend was male (\( M = 2.406, SE = 0.067 \)). Simple main effect was found for friend role, \( F(1, 87) = 4.122, p = 0.045, \eta_p^2 = 0.045 \). Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was the perpetrator (\( M = 1.767, SE = 0.053 \)) than when their friend was the victim (\( M = 1.909, SE = 0.063 \)).

Figure 3

*Simple Two-way Interaction Between Gender of Friend and Friend Role for Psychological Abuse Scenarios*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Friend</th>
<th>Friend Perpetrator</th>
<th>Friend Victim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Friend</td>
<td>Mean Evaluation</td>
<td>1=very bad, 5=very good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Friend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Emotional Abuse.** Emotionally abusive vignettes included scenarios where the adolescent was either friends with the perpetrator or victim and their friend was either male or female. As such, there was a significant interaction between gender of friend and friend role, \( F(1, 89) = 32.625, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = .268 \) (Figure 4). Simple main effects revealed that there were significant differences in adolescents’ evaluations of the perpetrator’s behaviour in emotional abuse scenarios when their friend was the perpetrator, \( F(1, 94) = 24.679, p < \).
.001, $\eta_p^2 = .199$. Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour during instances of emotional abuse more negatively when their friend was the perpetrator and female ($M = 1.568, SE = .070$), than when their friend was the perpetrator and male ($M = 2.095, SE = .082$). There was also a statistically significant main effect for adolescents’ evaluations of the perpetrator’s behaviour in emotional abuse when their friend was the victim, $F(1, 92) = 26.769, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .225$. As such, adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour during instances of emotional abuse more negatively when their friend was the victim and female ($M = 2.710, SE = .092$), than when their friend was the victim and male ($M = 2.710, SE = .092$).

Simple main effect was found for gender of friend, $F(1, 89) = 183.220, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = .673$. Specifically, when the adolescent’s friend was female ($M = 1.378, SE = .049$), they rated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively than if their friend was male ($M = 2.406, SE = .067$). Simple main effect was also found for friend role, $F(1, 89) = 7.075, p = .009, \eta_p^2 = .074$. Adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was the perpetrator ($M = 1.806, SE = .054$) than when their friend was the victim ($M = 1.978, SE = .057$).

**Figure 4**

*Simple Two-way Interaction Between Gender of Friend and Friend Role for Emotional Abuse Scenarios*
Summary of Results – Evaluation of Perpetrator’s Behaviour

In order to assess hypothesis 3, the interaction between friend role and gender of friend was assessed. The results revealed that female friends, when in the role of the perpetrator, were more negatively evaluated by adolescents than male friends in the same role. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was refuted. Next, to assess hypothesis 4, the main effect of friend role revealed that adolescents evaluated their friends’ behaviours more negatively when they were the perpetrator. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was refuted. Lastly, adolescent age did not reveal any differences in adolescents’ evaluations of the perpetrator’s behaviours.

Linear Regression: Parental Monitoring and Evaluation of Abusive Scenarios

In order to examine whether parental monitoring scores predicted adolescents’ evaluations of emotional and psychological abuse, a linear regression was performed. Total scores were obtained from the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire, as well as a total score from adolescents’ evaluations of the abusive scenarios. Specifically, adolescent total scores were obtained by summing their responses to the moral evaluation question: “What do you think about what was said?”
Prior to analyzing the linear regression, the assumptions of linear regressions were assessed. First, the assumption of normal distribution of residuals was verified. By examining the P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals (Appendix C), the scores aligned closely to the line of best fit, which, therefore, confirmed that the assumption of normality was met. Moreover, the tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were assessed to verify the assumption of multicollinearity. The VIF was within the appropriate range (VIF < 4), and the rate of tolerance was above the cut-off range (tolerance > .200). Therefore, the assumption of multicollinearity was avoided. To assess the assumption of homoscedasticity, a scatterplot of the data (Appendix D) was used, which showcased data clusters around the predictive Y line in a cylindrical manner, therefore, indicating that the assumption of homoscedasticity was met. Lastly, the assumption of no residual outliers was assessed using Mahalanobis Distance. This was calculated by selecting the degrees of freedom based on the predictor variables within the regression (i.e., 1 degree of freedom) and the Chi-Square Distribution table, all scores (except one) were below the Mahalanobis value of 10.828. Therefore, the assumption of no residual outliers was met, after removing the outlier.

Table 2 provides descriptive details on the total scores for parents’ responses on the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire. As the data is negatively skewed, many parents’ total scores were above 35 out of a possible 44, which was also near the mean for this sample $\bar{x} = 34.96$.

**Table 2**

*Descriptive Statistics for Parents’ Total Scores on Parental Monitoring Questionnaire*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>SE Skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parental Monitoring Total Scores</td>
<td>34.96</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>-1.160</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the linear regression revealed that parents’ scores on the Parental Monitoring Questionnaire did not predict adolescents’ evaluations of abusive scenarios, \( F(1, 97) = 3.652, p = .059 \). However, the pattern revealed that when parental monitoring scores increased, adolescents evaluated the scenarios less negatively, \( t = 1.911, \beta = .310, p = 0.059 \). Therefore hypothesis 5, which stated that parental monitoring scores would predict more negative evaluations, was refuted.

**Discussion**

This study aimed to examine how adolescents evaluated instances of emotional and psychological abuse and the roles gender and friendship status to the perpetrator played in these evaluations. In addition, parental monitoring was considered in order to assess their potential role in predicting adolescents’ evaluations of TDV scenarios. Overall, differences in evaluations were found and contributed to our knowledge of how adolescents evaluated the abusive scenario and the perpetrator’s behaviours.

**Moral Evaluation of Abusive Scenarios**

The first objective of this study was to examine how adolescents evaluated instances of emotional and psychological abuse. Previous research has examined emotional and psychological abuse separately, comparing each only to physical abuse (e.g., Borges et al., 2020; Masci & Sanderson, 2017). Therefore, the current research aimed to understand whether adolescents evaluated one form of non-physical abuse as more severe than the other. Results revealed that when evaluating instances of emotional and psychological abuse, adolescents consistently rated these scenarios as negative, however, these negative evaluations were not significantly different from each other, refuting the original hypothesis. While research has long stated that emotional and psychological abuse are distinct (O’Hagan, 1995), previous research
has also shown that adolescents have difficulty perceiving non-physical forms of abuse (Borges et al., 2020). However, when evaluating the situation on its own, without any other factors to consider (i.e., role of friend and gender of friend in the scenario), adolescents did not distinguish one type of abuse as more negative than the other. This may be related to adolescents’ unawareness of the differences between these forms of abuse. This has been found in previous research, such as when victims of emotional abuse did not label themselves as victims but acknowledged that their partners did enact behaviours that aligned with emotional abuse (Cortés et al., 2014). Moreover, the lack of differences in evaluations may imply that adolescents do not see emotional and psychological abuse as distinct, and thus, view both forms of abuse as generally negative. Consequently, these results bring insight into understanding adolescents’ evaluations of these scenarios, which can be used to examine future research on reporting these forms of abuse.

While the main objective in examining adolescents’ evaluations of the scenario was to assess any differences in their evaluations of psychological and emotional abuse, it is important to note that although adolescents did not evaluate the scenarios differently in general, they did evaluate these scenarios differently when taking into consideration the role of the friend in the scenario. For instance, adolescents evaluated emotional abuse more negatively when their friend was the perpetrator in the scenarios than when their friend was the victim. This was not found in psychologically abusive scenarios, or when the friend in the scenario was the victim. Therefore, when taking into consideration friend role, differences in evaluations of abusive scenarios were observed, specifically, in emotionally abusive scenarios. The current research provides insight to adolescents’ ability to look beyond their friendships in some instances of abuse, such as during instances of emotional abuse perpetration. While it was hypothesized that adolescents would
evaluate psychologically abusive scenarios more negatively than emotionally abusive scenarios, results of this study show that upon taking consideration of friend role, specifically, when the friend was the perpetrator, adolescents rated the abusive scenario more negatively when instances of emotional abuse were depicted compared to psychological abuse. This result contradicts previous research that adolescents have difficulty in perceiving instances of non-physical abusive dating behaviours, specifically instances of emotional abuse (Cortés et al., 2014).

Not only was friendship found to play a role in adolescents’ evaluations of emotional and psychological abuse, but gender was also found to play a role in adolescents’ evaluations of these scenarios. Specifically, when adolescents were friends with the female in the scenario, they evaluated emotionally abusive scenarios more negatively than psychologically abusive scenarios. However, when the adolescent was friends with the male in the scenarios, they rated psychologically abusive scenarios more negatively than emotionally abusive scenarios. This may speak to the stereotypical power dynamics between adolescents’ males and females in adolescent dating relationships (Hall et al., 2017). For instance, adolescents may consider psychological abuse to be a more negative experience for males than females, and emotional abuse to be a more negative experience for females than males due to the gendered power dynamics at play in such scenarios. Future research should explore these gendered power dynamics in TDV evaluations.

Overall, the current findings suggest that adolescents can differentiate between emotionally and psychologically abusive scenarios when taking into consideration factors such as their friend’s role and gender in the situation. This aligns with previous research that has shown that adolescents consider the context of the situation when providing evaluations (Gallopin & Leigh, 2009). These results are important, given that the context influences
adolescents’ evaluations of an emotionally or psychologically abusive situation. Future research should examine the likelihood to report these forms of abuse when the perpetrator is a male or female friend to the witness.

**Age Differences**

The second objective of this study suspected that adolescents’ age would explain differences in evaluations of emotionally and psychologically abusive scenarios, specifically, that older adolescents would evaluate TDV scenarios more negatively than younger adolescents. This was primarily thought to be the case as TDV is explained to younger adolescents differently than older adolescents (De La Rue et al., 2017). However, age did not reveal any differences in evaluations, therefore refuting the hypothesis. Previous research has shown that older adolescents experienced more TDV than younger adolescents (Chapin, 2013; Hokoda et al., 2012), and younger adolescents have had difficulty distinguishing between bullying and TDV scenarios (Hertzog et al., 2016). However, perhaps all participants, regardless of age, categorized these scenarios as negative without taking into consideration the type of perpetration depicted in the scenarios. Further investigation is needed in order to assess why older and younger adolescents do not differ in their evaluations of emotionally and psychologically abusive TDV.

**Moral Evaluation of Perpetrator Behaviour**

The third objective of this study was to examine how adolescents evaluated the perpetrators’ behaviours within emotionally and psychologically abusive scenarios, taking into consideration the gender of the friend in the scenario. Previous research has shown that gender differences existed in adolescents’ perceptions of TDV (e.g., Borges et al., 2020; Haglund et al. 2012). The findings of the current study revealed that adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviour more negatively when their friend was also female compared to when their friend was
male. This result refuted what was originally hypothesized, that adolescents would evaluate females less negatively when they are in the perpetrator role. This finding may be related to how adolescent girls engage in other forms of indirect non-physical aggression, such as relational aggression (Vaillancourt & Krems, 2018). As such, perhaps the participants in the current study viewed emotional and psychological abuse similarly to relational aggression, and therefore, evaluated the female perpetrator more negatively compared to a male perpetrator. These results bring insight into gender differences in adolescents’ evaluations of the perpetrator when the individual is their friend. Specifically, while previous research has found that adolescents rationalized females’ TDV behaviours as a response to the male’s previous behaviours (Haglund et al., 2019) and have not perceived female violence as serious in adolescent dating relationships as male perpetrated violence (Storer et al., 2017), the current study indicates that this is not the case. These results may speak to how adolescents evaluate female adolescents in other forms of non-physical indirect aggression, such as bullying. For instance, when engaging in bullying, girls’ involvement is often stressed over any boys’ involvement in the interaction (Mishna et al., 2020). Therefore, gender-based perceptions of the perpetrator are important factors to consider, as adolescents evaluate TDV scenarios differently when the perpetrator is male or female. Therefore, the stereotypic notion that females’ behaviours in perpetrator roles are less serious is countered by the result of the current study.

The fourth objective was to examine how adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviours within emotionally and psychologically abusive scenarios, taking into consideration the role of the friend in the scenario. Previous research has found that peer relationships influence adolescents’ own intimate relationships (Bailey & Beal, 2020). The results revealed that adolescents evaluated the perpetrator’s behaviours more negatively when they were friends
with the perpetrator than when they were friends with the victim, which refuted the hypothesis that adolescents would evaluate their friends less negatively when they are in the perpetrator role. This finding suggests that adolescents may judge their friends negatively if they perpetrate abuse and that they may not receive condonement from their friends.

When evaluating the perpetrator’s behaviours, adolescents take into consideration their relationship to the individual. This follows research that has shown that peers played a role in the perceptions of TDV (e.g., Giordano et al., 2015). Contrary to research that has shown that friendship influenced adolescents’ attitudes about TDV (Shorey et al., 2018), these results highlight how adolescents will evaluate their friend’s behaviour negatively, which may be related to how adolescents do not accept their friend’s perpetration. However, as previous research has not examined how adolescents evaluate the perpetrator when the individual is friends with them, these results shed light on how adolescents may view their friends’ actions when they act in an abusive way in their romantic relationships.

While research has found that friendship influences the likelihood of the adolescent to engage in TDV in their own relationships (Foshee et al., 2013), the results of this study show that adolescents view their friend’s behaviour more negatively when they are friends with the perpetrator, which may lead to a decreased likelihood for them to engage in these behaviours. Given that the current findings suggest that adolescents view their friends’ behaviour more negatively when they are the perpetrator, adolescents’ ability to recognize their abuse in their own relationships (Borges et al., 2020) may be higher than has been previously thought. Future research is needed to examine the extent to which adolescents recognize their own behaviours in their romantic relationships and how this relates to the behaviours they evaluate in their friends’ romantic relationships.
Parental Monitoring

The final objective of this study was to examine whether increased parental monitoring scores would predict adolescents’ negative evaluations of emotionally and psychologically abusive scenarios. The results revealed that parental monitoring scores did not predict adolescents’ negative evaluations of abusive scenarios, therefore, refuting the hypothesis. Perhaps increased monitoring does not have an effect on the adolescents’ perceptions of TDV scenarios because of the manner in which the parent is conducting their monitoring. Research has found that when there is increased parental monitoring that is not properly communicated to the adolescent, there are adverse effects on the adolescents’ behaviours (LaFleur et al., 2016). Therefore, if the adolescent and parent have not verbally communicated with each other about the parents’ monitoring behaviours and about TDV experiences, adolescents’ evaluations of TDV scenarios may be unaffected because of this. Moreover, parents’ scores on the parental questionnaire may have been skewed due to helicopter parenting, which was not considered for the present study. Helicopter parenting is characterized as protective parents providing support and intervening on their children’s affairs, making their decisions for them (Reed et al., 2016). Also, research has shown that parental monitoring predicts helicopter parenting (Hong et al., 2015). As such, parents may have inflated their own perceptions of their parental monitoring, as they may be conflating their protective behaviours with general monitoring practices. Therefore, further research on other parenting mechanisms, such as helicopter parenting, may be important to consider when assessing parental monitoring.

Limitations and Future Directions

While this research offers many insights into the contextual information adolescents use to evaluate TDV scenarios and the perpetrators involved, it also presents several limitations. This
study only considered scenarios in which a heterosexual couple was the focus of the TDV abuse. However, research has shown that dating violence is present in the LGBTQ+ community (Russell, 2015), which includes the adolescent population within this community (McKay et al., 2019). However, this research is limited and should be explored further in the context of adolescent perceptions of TDV and the perpetrator. Also, sample differences may make it difficult to generalize these results, as culture may play a role in adolescents’ evaluations of abuse. For instance, previous research using samples from Mexico and Mexican-American adolescents were presented in the current study (Haglund et al., 2012; Haglund et al., 2019), however, the current study did not assess the role culture may have played in adolescents’ evaluations of the TDV behaviours.

Furthermore, when assessing parental monitoring, future research may wish to include an adolescent measure that reports how they feel regarding the level of parental monitoring their parents may subject them to. Parent and participant reports of parental monitoring have shown to be effective ways to improve parent-child relationships (Branstetter & Furman, 2013). Specifically, in the case of this study, perhaps the inclusion of an adolescent report of their parents’ monitoring would have increased the predictive power of the parental monitoring on adolescents’ evaluations of TDV scenarios. Therefore, future research may wish to include an adolescent report of their parents’ monitoring behaviours.

Lastly, this study was conducted during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, there are several limitations to take into consideration due to this. First, as this study was conducted through the use of an online survey platform, there was no way to ensure that the adolescent was alone when completing the study. This may have impacted the participant’s answers, as they may not have wanted to answer truthfully if another individual, such as the
participant’s parent, were in the room. Second, the scenarios depicted involved a face-to-face instance of emotional or psychological abuse. However, with the occurrence of the COVID-19 pandemic, cyber abuse has increased, which includes non-physical abusive behaviours, like emotional and psychological abuse (Hellevik, 2019). Therefore, it would be of interest to investigate how adolescents evaluate this form of TDV and the perpetrator, as these online instances of TDV are on the rise.

**Implications**

Previous research has found that adolescents recognize physical forms of abuse (Próspero, 2006), while research on adolescents’ perceptions of non-physical forms of abuse have been inconsistent (e.g., Borges et al., 2020; Hébert et al., 2017). The current study has uncovered which specific instances of non-physical TDV impacted adolescents’ negative evaluations and how situational factors influenced their evaluations. Specifically, differences in evaluations of emotional and psychological abuse were found only when the gender of their friend and the role of their friend in the abusive event were taken into consideration. For instance, emotionally abusive scenarios were rated more negatively when their friend was the perpetrator. Moreover, adolescents also evaluated psychologically abusive scenarios more negatively when their friend was male and evaluated emotionally abusive scenarios more negatively when their friend was female. As such, these findings are important to the study of dating violence as adolescents consider each individual involved in the scenarios before they evaluate whether the situation itself is more negative than another. While previous research has examined adolescents’ perceptions of abuse in general (Próspero, 2006), the current findings bring insight into the importance of the nuances of TDV events that lead an adolescent to make a decision about the moral evaluation of the situation, rather than the situation on its own.
Understanding the nuances in how adolescents morally evaluate TDV may be important information for the intervention of their behaviour.

This study also provides evidence that an adolescent may evaluate these instances of abuse differently when they are friends with the perpetrator and evaluate the scenario more negatively when their friend is female in instances of abuse. This may shed light on the importance of friendships and the gender dynamics at play when evaluating these scenarios. Therefore, this research provides a deeper understanding of adolescents’ perceptions of these instances of emotional and psychological abuse and may be used to inform prevention programs in schools. Namely, such programs may focus on addressing the importance of friendship during adolescence, in addition to the ways adolescents perceive emotionally and psychologically abusive scenarios, which may also influence their perceptions of their friends. Moreover, these programs may specifically address gender dynamics, especially when adolescents’ female friends’ behaviours are evaluated more negatively than male friends when they are the perpetrator of TDV. It would be beneficial to create programs that focus on the gender norms at play in TDV scenarios and the roles males and females play in these situations. Therefore, it is important to address instances of emotional or psychological abuse and the context of the individual’s friendships and gender of their friends. In doing so, adolescents may be able to improve their own dating relationships, as well as evaluate their own friendships with individuals that are perpetrators. Moreover, these workshops may address the gender biases in evaluations of perpetrators, as evidence has shown that there is stigma associated with males who are victims of abuse (Wincentak et al., 2017).

**Conclusion**
This study sought to examine how adolescents evaluated emotional and psychological abuse when presented in a dating relationship and the role friendship, gender, and parental monitoring played in these evaluations. Overall, the results of this study bring insight into adolescents’ own perceptions of TDV and how they evaluate instances of emotional and psychological abuse and the perpetrator’s behaviours, taking into consideration the perpetrator’s gender and their relationship to the perpetrator and victim. This insight may assist future research to consider TDV in the context of cyber abuse, as well as how adolescents perceive their friends and their behaviours. Ultimately, this research may also influence how TDV is explained to adolescents and may work to encourage adolescent to communicate with their partners or friends who may be engaging in these behaviours.
References


Appendix A

Vignettes

Emotional Abuse Vignettes

1. **Perpetrator friend (male) – Victim (female)**
Michael and Kelly are in an intimate relationship. You and Michael are friends. You know that Michael has a lot of issues regarding his relationship with Kelly. One day, Michael says to Kelly “Kelly, you’re so lazy. It’s actually sad how lazy you are.” Michael doesn’t say anything to Kelly after this was said.

2. **Perpetrator (male) – Victim Friend (female)**
Noah and Lucy are in an intimate relationship. You and Lucy are friends. You know that Lucy has a lot of issues regarding her relationship with Noah. One day Noah says to Lucy “Wow Lucy, you look very chubby, today. You should think about losing weight.” Noah doesn’t say anything to Lucy after this was said.

3. **Victim Friend (male) – Perpetrator (female)**
Leo and Nicole are in an intimate relationship. You and Leo are friends. You know that Leo has a lot of issues regarding his relationship with Nicole. One day Nicole says to Leo “Leo, you’re the reason why we are always arguing. You never listen when I talk.” Nicole doesn’t say anything to Leo after this was said.

4. **Victim (male) – Perpetrator Friend (female)**
Kyle and Meghan are in an intimate relationship. You and Meghan are friends. You know that Meghan has a lot of issues regarding her relationship with Kyle. One day, Meghan says to Kyle “Kyle, you’re not attractive. I would think about fixing how you dress yourself.” Meghan doesn’t say anything to Kyle after this was said.

Psychological Abuse Vignettes

5. **Perpetrator friend (Male) – Victim (Female)**
Sam and Zoey are in an intimate relationship. You and Sam are friends. You know that Sam has a lot of issues regarding his relationship with Zoey. One day, Sam says to Zoey “Zoey, I don’t like your best friend. You should stop being friends with her.” Sam doesn’t say anything to Zoey after this was said.

6. **Perpetrator (Male) – Victim Friend (Female)**
Tyler and Vanessa are in an intimate relationship. You and Vanessa are friends. You know that Vanessa has a lot of issues regarding her relationship with Tyler. One day, Tyler says to Vanessa “Vanessa, you can’t do anything right. You should just stop trying and let me do it for you.” Tyler doesn’t say anything to Vanessa after this was said.

7. **Victim Friend (Male) – Perpetrator (Female)**
stop being sad. You get sad over the silliest reasons.” Hannah doesn’t say anything to Luke after this was said.

8. **Victim (Male) – Perpetrator Friend (Female)**
Zach and Tina are in an intimate relationship. You and Tina are friends. You know that Tina has a lot of issues regarding her relationship with Zach. One day, Tina says to Zach “Zach, I don’t like hanging out with your other friends, especially the male ones. You can’t go play soccer with them later.” Tina doesn’t say anything to Zach after this was said.
## Appendix B

Tests of Normality

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<sup>a</sup> Lilliefors Significance Correction
Appendix C

P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals

Normal P–P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Parental Monitoring Questionnaire total Scores
Appendix D

Scatterplot of Scores

Scatterplot

Parental Monitoring Scores and Moral Evaluation Scores

Regression Standardized Residual

Regression Standardized Predicted Value