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Evidence of the relationship between attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and emotional abuse in a sample of preschool children

Sanem Nemmezi Karaca, Ayla Uzun Cicek, Cansu Mercan Isik, Mehmet Kanak & G<mark>ulbahtiyar Demirel</mark>

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Evidence of the relationship between attention deficit/ hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and emotional abuse in a sample of preschool children

Sanem Nemmezi Karaca^a, Ayla Uzun Cicek^b, Cansu Mercan Isik ^b, Mehmet Kanak^d, and Gulbahtiyar Demirel^e

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ABSTRACT

This study has aimed to evaluate the relationship between preschool attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and emotional abuse. Fifty-six children with ADHD aged 5 and 6 years and their mothers, and sixty-five children without a diagnosis of ADHD and their mothers have been included in this study. ADHD symptomatology and emotional abuse potential of mothers have been assessed by the Conners' Parent Rating Scale-Revised-Short Form (CPRS-RS) and the Scale for Emotional Abuse Potential of Parents with Children Aged 3 to 6 (SEAPP-C3-6) respectively. Mothers of children with ADHD had significantly higher causal sub-dimension scores of SEAPP-C3-6 than that of the mothers of the controls. The higher emotional abuse potential scores of mothers have been significantly associated with higher Conners scores, male gender, disruptive behavior disorders comorbidity, low income and parental education level and parental psychopathology. This study has revealed that preschool ADHD is an important risk factor for emotional abuse. Clinicians shall be aware of the emotional abuse potential among children with ADHD.

Introduction

Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a childhood-onset neuropsychiatric disorder and can be described as a combination of persistent problems, such as difficulty sustaining attention, and/or hyperactive-impulsive behavior (American Psychiatric Association (APA), 2013). It becomes apparent in the preschool and early school years. Its worldwide prevalence is now reported between 1% and 18% (Bradshaw & Kamal, 2017; Sayal, Prasad, Daley, Ford, & Coghill, 2018). The great variability in the reported prevalence may be attributable to the heterogeneity in study settings and methodological

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differences, including data sources (e.g., parent-, teacher-, or child-based), the criteria used to identify ADHD, sampling differences (e.g., different age ranges, stratified cluster sampling, school sampling, clinical sampling), different scales used, and sociodemographic and cultural differences. As for the average prevalence of ADHD in preschool children, several epidemiological studies including children aged 3 to 6 found out that the prevalence value ranges from 1.9% to 3.8% (Canals, Morales-Hidalgo, Jané, & Domènech, 2018; Danielson et al., 2018).

Although there are various definitions of abuse, in its most general definition, it is child abuse where any act or inaction slows down and/or prevents the child's optimal development. The emotional abuse prevents and suppresses the psychological development of the child with attitudes such as rejection, humiliation, intimidation, emotional non-response, and by using the child for their own interests (Kumari, 2020; World Health Organization (WHO), 2017). The rates of childhood emotional abuse vary widely around the world. According to the results of a more recent study, childhood emotional abuse have been observed at a rate of 33.81%-35.03% and it is the most prevalent type of adverse childhood experience (Merrick, Ford, Ports, & Guinn, 2018). Recent data demonstrate that the rates of the worldwide prevalence of emotional abuse and neglect are 36% and 16%, respectively (WHO, 2017).

Many risk factors related to parent, child, and sociocultural characteristics have been described as child emotional abuse or as significant predictors of emotional abuse to facilitate the writing process. Hyperactivity, disruptive and internalizing disorders, sleep disturbances, appetite and eating problems, enuresis, and school failure among child-related characteristics are associated with vulnerability to emotional abuse. Children with disabilities (physical and/ or intellectual disability), younger children, and children having difficult temperaments are also at higher risk (Derakhshanpour, Shahini, Hajebi, Vakili, & Heydari Yazdi, 2017; Mulder, Kuiper, van der Put, Stams, & Assink, 2018; Walsh, McCartney, Smith, & Armour, 2019). Studies in the field of children's mental health increasingly emphasize the relationship between ADHD diagnosis and the risk of abuse. There is evidence that children with ADHD are at a strikingly higher risk of abuse in comparison with that of normal children (Evinç et al., 2014; Gul & Gurkan, 2018; Hadianfard, 2014; Ouyang, Fang, Mercy, Perou, & Grosse, 2008; Sari Gokten, Saday Duman, Soylu, & Uzun, 2016).

Children with ADHD exhibit substantial impairments in many functional domains including externalizing difficulties, internalizing problems, peer relationship and social relationship problems, academic performance problems (APA, 2013; Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006). These symptoms are also risk factors for being a victim of abusive disciplinary attitudes which are defined as the behaviors and tactics (e.g., hitting, beating, pinching, swearing, or insulting) that are applied to discipline the child by causing psychological and physical

harm to the child and that are applied more harshly and frequently (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006). Moreover, the risk of exposure to abuse increases further if the child with ADHD has combinations of temperament problems and/or comorbidity of disruptive behavior disorders (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Hadianfard, 2014). Indeed, numerous studies reported that those diagnosed with ADHD are at substantial risk for abuse. A study revealed that children diagnosed with ADHD are subject to significantly more abuse than that of non-ADHD children, and the frequency of emotional neglect and abuse is higher in children with ADHD than that of other maltreatments (Hadianfard, 2014). Researchers found out that approximately 60% of these children were neglected and 35% of those were emotionally abused (Hadianfard, 2014). A more recent study has found out that 96.2% of children with ADHD were exposed to physical abuse and 87.5% of the same were exposed to emotional abuse (Sari Gokten et al., 2016). Although there has been an increasing interest in this field, previous studies on the relationship between ADHD and abuse were generally conducted in school-age children and adolescent-young adult individuals, such studies did not focus primarily on emotional abuse and did not include preschool children. To the best of our knowledge, no study until now has focused specifically on the relationship between ADHD and emotional abuse in preschool years. Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine whether there is a relationship between pre-school ADHD and emotional abuse.

Methods

Participants

Fifty-six children with ADHD aged 60-73 months and their mothers, by matching these in terms of age and gender with sixty-five non-ADHD children with no history of mental health problems and their mothers have participated in the study. The ADHD sample has recruited through a series of consecutive admissions to the Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Outpatient Clinic. The control group has been sampled among children without any mental health problems who were applied to the pediatrics clinic of the hospital for the healthy child follow up. ADHD and other psychiatric disorders have been diagnosed according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5) criteria (APA, 2013). Since the development of the attachment process may be directly affected, in order to both reduce the effect of confounding factors and ensure equal conditions among the participants, only children up to 3 years of age whose primary caregiver was their own mother and their mothers have been included in the study. Also, children with a diagnosis of intellectual and developmental disabilities, autism spectrum disorder, primary sensorimotor and/or neurological disorder, which are conditions known as child-related risk factors for child maltreatment (Mulder

et al., 2018), have been excluded from the study. Mothers, who conceived twins via assisted reproduction, older than 45 years and younger than 18 years, and with severe psychiatric disorders (schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, mental retardation, etc.), and mothers, who adopted children, have been excluded from the study since they could possibly affect abuse rates (Mulder et al., 2018). Written informed consent has been obtained from mothers prior to their inclusion in the study. The study has been approved by the local ethical committee board (Date: 23.09.2020, No: 2020–09/02).

Clinical assessment and data collection tools

Sociodemographic data form

Sociodemographic information and clinical data have been obtained with a questionnaire specifically created by the researchers. This questionnaire included questions about age, gender, place of residence, family characteristics, and child's medical and developmental history. In addition to this, the mother's and father's own histories of emotional abuse, and physical abuse have been also noted. These parameters have been evaluated by the researchers during interviews with children and both parents.

Conners' parent rating scale-revised-short form (CPRS-RS)

The CPRS-RS is a standard instrument for the assessment of ADHD and consists of 27 questions on which the parents report the frequency of symptoms. The form is a four-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (not true at all) to 3 (very much true), and consists of four subscales including Oppositional Subscale, Hyperactivity Subscale, Inattention Subscale, and ADHD Index (Kumar & Steer, 2003). Higher scores indicate worse problematic behaviors in each specific CPRS-RS category. Kaner et al. reported that the CPRS-RS was reliable and valid for the Turkish community (Kaner, Buyukozturk, & Iseri, 2013).

The scale for emotional abuse potential of parents with children aged 3 to 6 (SEAPP-C3-6)

This scale, which aims to examine the emotional abuse potential of parents, was developed by Pekdogan and Kanak (Pekdoğan & Kanak, 2019). This scale consists of 50 items and two sub-dimensions. The first sub-dimension (causal) includes of 29 items, while the second sub-dimension (preventive) includes of 21 items. The internal consistency coefficient obtained for the entire scale is .97, and the scale is valid and reliable appraising the emotional abuse potential of parents. This scale has been applied only to mothers in this study.

Statistical analysis

For statistical analysis, IBM SPSS 23.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) software has been performed. Kolmogorov–Smirnov test has been used for testing the normality distribution. It means that standard deviations, and frequencies have been calculated for sample characteristics, and differences have been tested by using the chi-squared test and the Mann–Whitney U test. Spearman's correlation coefficient has been used for correlation analyses of the variables. Cohen's d and eta squared (η 2) method have been used to calculate the effect sizes and associated 95% Confidence Intervals (CIs). A p-value of <.05 has been considered to be statistically significant.

Results

Socio-demographic and familial characteristics of participants

The participants' characteristics are presented in Table 1. Among the children in the ADHD group, 43 (76.8%) were boys, 13 (23.2%) were girls and the mean age was 65.95 \pm 2.59 months, while 47 (72.3%) of the children in the control group were boys, 18 (27.7%) were girls and the mean age was 65.75 \pm 2.91 months. There has been no significant difference between the two groups in terms of age and gender. The two groups have not also differed significantly on any sociodemographic variable.

Care and developmental characteristics of participants

48.2% (n = 27) of those in the ADHD group and 43.1% (n = 28) of those in the control group were attended preschool education. There has been no significant difference between the ADHD group and the control group, in terms of being an unwanted child status, attendance of preschool education, and child's appetite status. On the other hand, the percentage of children with sleep disturbances in the ADHD group has been significantly higher than that of the control group (41.1% vs. 20%, p = .011). The care and developmental characteristics of participants are indicated in Table 2.

History of abuse and neglect of the participants' parents, and the scores of the SEAPP-C3-6 and the scores of the CPRS-RS

No significant differences have been observed in terms of the history of the mothers' emotional neglect-abuse and physical abuse between the two groups (both p values> .05). However, the fathers of children in the ADHD group had a significantly higher percentage of both emotional neglect-abuse and physical abuse history than that of the fathers of the children in the control group (p = .010, p = .033, respectively). As for the mean scores of mothers' SEAPP-C3-6, the causal

$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $		ADHD group	Control Group		
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Above the minimum wage $31 (55.4)$ $40 (61.5)$ Family type (n,%) $36 (64.3)$ $41 (63.1)$.991Nuclear $36 (64.3)$ $41 (63.1)$.991Single-parent (divorced, separated, or death) $5 (8.9)$ $6 (9.2)$ Extended $15 (26.8)$ $18 (27.7)$ Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD) 29.21 ± 4.36 28.94 ± 4.32 .667 $0.06 (-0.29, 0.42)$ Maternal education level (n,%).539Primary education and lower $8 (14.3)$ $6 (9.2)$ High school level $32 (57.1)$ $43 (66.2)$ University level $16 (28.6)$ $16 (24.6)$ The health status of the mother (n,%).943Healthy $45 (80.4)$ $51 (78.4)$ Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) $6 (10.7)$ $7 (10.8)$ Predominantly medical illness(es) $5 (8.9)$ $7 (10.8)$ Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663	Minimum wage/less than minimum wage	25 (44.6)	25 (38.5)	.491	
Family type (n,%) 36 (64.3) 41 (63.1) .991 Nuclear 36 (64.3) 41 (63.1) .991 Single-parent (divorced, separated, or death) 5 (8.9) 6 (9.2) Extended 15 (26.8) 18 (27.7) Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD) 29.21 \pm 4.36 28.94 \pm 4.32 .667 0.06 (-0.29, 0.42) Maternal education level (n,%) .539 .539 Primary education and lower 8 (14.3) 6 (9.2) High school level 32 (57.1) 43 (66.2) University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 \pm 4.95 31.72 \pm 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	Above the minimum wage	31 (55.4)	40 (61.5)		
Nuclear 36 (64.3) 41 (63.1) .991 Single-parent (divorced, separated, or death) 5 (8.9) 6 (9.2) Extended 15 (26.8) 18 (27.7) Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD) 29.21 \pm 4.36 28.94 \pm 4.32 .667 0.06 (-0.29, 0.42) Maternal education level (n,%)	Family type (n,%)				
Single-parent (divorced, separated, or death)5 (8.9)6 (9.2)Extended15 (26.8)18 (27.7)Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD)29.21 \pm 4.3628.94 \pm 4.32.6670.06 (-0.29, 0.42)Maternal education level (n,%).539Primary education and lower8 (14.3)6 (9.2)High school level32 (57.1)43 (66.2)University level16 (28.6)16 (24.6)The health status of the mother (n,%).943Healthy45 (80.4)51 (78.4)Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s)6 (10.7)7 (10.8)Predominantly medical illness(es)5 (8.9)7 (10.8)Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD)31.54 \pm 4.9531.72 \pm 4.71.663	Nuclear	36 (64.3)	41 (63.1)	.991	
Extended 15 (26.8) 18 (27.7) Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD) 29.21 \pm 4.36 28.94 \pm 4.32 .667 0.06 (-0.29, 0.42) Maternal education level (n,%) .539 .539 Primary education and lower 8 (14.3) 6 (9.2) High school level 32 (57.1) 43 (66.2) University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 \pm 4.95 31.72 \pm 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	Single-parent (divorced, separated, or death)	5 (8.9)	6 (9.2)		
Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD) 29.21 \pm 4.36 28.94 \pm 4.32 .667 0.06 (-0.29, 0.42) Maternal education level (n,%) .539 Primary education and lower 8 (14.3) 6 (9.2) High school level 32 (57.1) 43 (66.2) University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 \pm 4.95 31.72 \pm 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	Extended	15 (26.8)	18 (27.7)		
Maternal education level (n,%) .539 Primary education and lower 8 (14.3) 6 (9.2) High school level 32 (57.1) 43 (66.2) University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years ± SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4 .0.3)	Age of the mother (mean-years \pm SD)	29.21 ± 4.36	28.94 ± 4.32	.667	0.06 (-0.29, 0.42)
Primary education and lower 8 (14.3) 6 (9.2) High school level 32 (57.1) 43 (66.2) University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years ± SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	Maternal education level (n,%)			.539	
High school level 32 (57.1) 43 (66.2) University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 \pm 4.95 31.72 \pm 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4, 0.3)	Primary education and lower	8 (14.3)	6 (9.2)		
University level 16 (28.6) 16 (24.6) The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years ± SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	High school level	32 (57.1)	43 (66.2)		
The health status of the mother (n,%) .943 Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 \pm 4.95 31.72 \pm 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	University level	16 (28.6)	16 (24.6)		
Healthy 45 (80.4) 51 (78.4) Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) 6 (10.7) 7 (10.8) Predominantly medical illness(es) 5 (8.9) 7 (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4 . 0.3)	The health status of the mother (n,%)		()	.943	
Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s) $6 (10.7)$ $7 (10.8)$ Predominantly medical illness(es) $5 (8.9)$ $7 (10.8)$ Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663 $-0.04 (-0.4, 0.3)$	Healthy	45 (80.4)	51 (78.4)		
Predominantly medical illness(es) $5(8.9)$ / (10.8) Age of the father (mean-years ± SD) 31.54 ± 4.95 31.72 ± 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4. 0.3)	Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s)	6 (10.7)	7 (10.8)		
Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD) 31.54 \pm 4.95 31.72 \pm 4.71 .663 -0.04 (-0.4, 0.3)	Predominantly medical illness(es)	5 (8.9)	7 (10.8)		
	Age of the father (mean-years \pm SD)	31.54 ± 4.95	$31./2 \pm 4./1$.663	-0.04 (-0.4, 0.3)
Paternal education level (n,%) .943	Paternal education level (n,%)	A (7 A)	- ()	.943	
Primary education and lower $4()$ $5()$	Primary education and lower	4 (7.1)	5 (7.7)		
High School level 37 (bb.1) 41 (b3.1)		37 (66.1)	41 (63.1)		
University level 15 (26.8) 19 (29.2) The begin provided by (p, Q)	University level	15 (26.8)	19 (29.2)	400	
The health status of the father $(n, \%)$.409	The nearth status of the father (n,%)	42 (76 0)	$\Gamma(0, 0)$.409	
$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Healthy} & 45 (76.8) & 50 (86.2) \\ \text{Production prime the product of the order (a)} & 0 (76.1) & 0 (60.2) \\ \end{array}$	Healthy	43 (70.8)	50 (80.2)		
$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}$	Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s)	9 (10.1)	0 (9.2)		
Predominantly medical intess(es) 4 (7.1) 5 (4.0)	Number of siblings (n%)	4 (7.1)	5 (4.0)	747	
		12 (21 4)	12 (20.0)	./4/	
$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 12 (21.47) \\ 1 \\ 25 (25.5) \\ 29 (25.5) \\ 20$	1	12 (21.4)	13 (20.0) 20 (50 5)		
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2	9 (16 1)	14 (21 5)		
2 = 9(10.1) = 14(21.5)	Order of sibling (n%)	9 (10.1)	14 (21.3)	214	
1 31 (55 4) 40 (61 5)		31 (55 4)	40 (61 5)	.214	
2 $21(375)$ $16(74.6)$	2	21 (37 5)	16 (24.6)		
3 + (3 and above) $4(71) = 9(13.8)$	3+(3 and above)	21 (37.3) 2 (7 1)	9 (13.8)		
Domestic conflict (n. %)	Domestic conflict (n. %)		2 (13.0)	.729	
Yes 18 (32 1) 19 (29 2)	Yes	18 (32.1)	19 (29.2)		
No 38 (67.9) 46 (70.8)	No	38 (67.9)	46 (70.8)		

Table	 Socio-demograph 	nic and familial	characteristics of	participants.

*Data were given as mean \pm standard deviation or number (%). The chi-square test for categorical variables and the Mann–Whitney U test for continuous variables were employed to test group differences. **Bold font** indicates statistical significance: p < .05.

[†]The level of income was established by the minimum wage value on the date of the study.

Abbreviations: ADHD: Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder; SD: Standard Deviation.

sub-dimension scores of SEAPP-C3-6 of the mothers of the children in the ADHD group have been significantly higher (42,89 \pm 6.56 vs. 39.14 \pm 4.16, effect size: 0.7 [95% CI:0.3, 1.1], p = .003), whereas the preventer sub-dimension scores of SEAPP-C3-6 have been significantly lower than that of the mothers of the control children (77.68 \pm 9.57 vs. 83.83 \pm 9.23, effect size: -0.6 [95% CI:-1.0, -0.3], p < .001). As predicted, the mean scores of all four subscales on the CPRS-RS of

	ADHD group $(n = 56)$	Control Group ($n = 65$)	p-value*
Being an unwanted child (n,%)			.602
Yes	14 (25.0)	19 (29.2)	
No	42 (75.0)	46 (70.8)	
Attendance of preschool education (n,%)			.571
Yes	27 (48.2)	28 (43.1)	
No	29 (51.8)	37 (56.9)	
The child's appetite (n,%)**			.461
Normal	29 (51.8)	38 (58.5)	
Poor or increased appetite	27 (48.2)	27 (41.5)	
Sleep pattern (n,%)**			.011
Regular	33 (58.9)	52 (80.0)	
Irregular	23 (41.1)	13 (20.0)	

Table 2. Care and developmental characteristics of participant	Table 2.	. Care and	developmental	characteristics	of	participant
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*Data were expressed as number (%). The chi-square test was used to test group differences. **Bold font** indicates statistical significance: p < .05.

**A standard psychometric test was not used in the measurement of sleep patterns and the child's appetite, it was based on the parents' reports.

Abbreviations: ADHD: Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder.

the children in the ADHD group have been significantly higher compared to that of the control group (all p-values<.001). Results along with the effect sizes and associated 95% CIs are summarized in Table 3.

When the CPRS-RS scores have been examined as to whether there was a difference between the genders, all other subscales except the inattention subscale, and ADHD Index have been significantly higher in boys (all p-values<.001) (data not indicated).

The relationship between socio-demographic, familial characteristics of participants and emotional abuse potentials of parents

Except for the place of residence, all sociodemographic and familial variables have been significantly associated with the emotional abuse potential of mothers. Comorbid disruptive behavior disorders (conduct disorder/oppositional defiant disorder) in addition to ADHD diagnosis had a significant effect on scores of the SEAPP-C3-6. Accordingly, when the two disorders co-exist, SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension scores have been significantly higher, while SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension scores have been significantly lower (both p < .001). The mothers of the children with low family income, the mothers of children with a parent history of emotional neglect-abuse and physical abuse, and mothers experienced violence in the family had significantly higher SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension mean scores and significantly lower SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores compared to the rest (all p-values <.05). As the education levels of both parents decreased, the SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension mean scores increased significantly, and the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores decreased significantly (all p-values <.001). Regarding the relationship

	ADHD group (n = 56)	Control Group (n = 65)	p-value*	Effect size (95%CI)
History of mother's emotional neglect (n,%)**			.959	
Yes	23 (41.1)	27 (41.5)		
No	33 (58.9)	38 (58.5)		
History of mother's physical abuse (n,%)**			.447	
Yes	20 (35.7)	19 (29.2)		
No	36 (64.3)	46 (70.8)		
History of father's emotional neglect (n,%)**			.010	
Yes	32 (57.1)	22 (33.8)		
No	24 (42.9)	43 (66.2)		
History of father's physical abuse (n,%)**			.033	
Yes	26 (46.4)	18 (27.7)		
No	30 (53.6)	47 (72.3)		
SEAPP-C3-6-Causal subdimension scores (mean	42,89 ± 6.56	39.14 ± 4.16	.003	0.7 (0.3, 1.1)
± SD)				
SEAPP-C3-6- Preventer subdimension scores	77.68 ± 9.57	83.83 ± 9.23	<.001	-0.6 (-1.0,
(mean \pm SD)				0.3)
CPRS-RS-Cognitive problems/inattention scores	9.36 ± 1.93	7.77 ± 2.24	<.001	0.8 (0.4, 1.1)
(mean \pm SD)				
CPRS-RS-Hyperactivity scores (mean \pm SD)	10.50 ± 3.07	8.48 ± 2.56	<.001	0.7 (0.4, 1.1)
CPRS-RS-Oppositional scores (mean \pm SD)	8.23 ± 2.64	6.09 ± 2.25	<.001	0.9 (0.5, 1.3)
CPRS-RS-ADHD index scores	19.86 ± 4.07	16.26 ± 3.96	<.001	0.9 (0.5, 1.3)

Table 3. History of abuse and neglect of the participants' parents, and the scores of SEAPP-C3-6 and the scores of CPRS-RS.

*Data were given as mean \pm standard deviation or number (%). The chi-square test for categorical variables and the Mann–Whitney U test for continuous variables were used to test group differences. **Bold font** indicates statistical significance: p < .05.

**A standard psychometric test was not used in the measurement of abuse and neglect, it was based on the parents' reports.

Abbreviations: ADHD: Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder; CPRS-RS: Conners' Parent Rating Scale-Revised Short Form; SEAPP-C3-6: Scale for Emotional Abuse Potential of Parents with Children Aged 3 to 6; SD: Standard Deviation.

between parental health status and SEAPP-C3-6 scores, mothers of children whose parents have a psychiatric disorder had significantly higher EAPP-C3 -6-causal sub-dimension mean scores and significantly lower SEAPP-C3 -6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores compared to that of the mothers of children whose parents have both health and medical illnesses (all p-values <.05). Data along with the effect sizes and associated 95% CIs are summarized in Table 4.

The relationship characteristics of participants and emotional abuse potential of parents

The mean scores of the SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension of the mothers of both boys and the unwanted children have been significantly higher than that of the mothers of both girls and the wanted children, while the mean scores of the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension have been significantly lower (all p values <.001). The mothers of children with sleep and appetite problems had significantly higher SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension mean scores and

Table 4. The relationship between su	ocio-demographic, familial characteri	stics of p	articipants and	parents' emotional abuse potentials.		
	SEAPP-C3-6- Causal subdimension scores (mean \pm SD)	p-value*	Effect size (95% CI)	SEAPP-C3-6- Preventer subdimension scores (mean ± SD)	p-value*	Effect size (95%Cl)
Presence of disruptive behavior disorders comorbidity	49.81 ± 2.88	<.001	1.9 (1.3, 2.7)	69.25 ± 3.21	<.001	-1.5 (-2.1, 0.8)
Yes No	40.13 ± 5.48			81.05 ± 9.19		
Place of residence		.199	-0.3 (-0.7, 0.1)		.388	0.2 (-0.2, 0.6)
Urban	40.44 ± 5.56			81.54 ± 10.12		
kurai Familv income level [†]	41.92 ± 5.90	<.001	1.4 (1.0, 1.8)	19.01 ± 9.10	<.001	-1.5 (-1.9, 1.1)
Minimum wage/less than minimum	44.80 ± 5.35			73.94 ± 6.52		
wage	38.11 ± 4.11			85.94 ± 8.72		
Above the minimum wage						
Maternal education level		<.001	0.3 (0.1, 0.4)		<.001	0.3 (0.2, 0.4)
Primary education and lower	46.07 ± 5.55			70.79 ± 5.97		
High school level	41.65 ± 5.45			79.63 ± 9.10		
University level	36.78 ± 3.32			88.63 ± 7.14		
The health status of the mother		.001	0.1 (0.01, 0.2)		.003	0.1 (0.01, 0.2)
Healthy	40.29 ± 5.44			81.97 ± 9.68		
Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s)	46.15 ± 4.16			71.77 ± 4.32		
Predominantly medical illness(es)	39.83 ± 6.54			83.08 ± 10.68		
Paternal education level		<.001	0.2 (0.07, 0.3)		<.001	0.3 (0.1, 0.4)
Primary education and lower	45.44 ± 5.19			71.33 ± 5.22		
High school level	42.01 ± 5.66			78.86 ± 9.40		
University level	37.09 ± 3.66			88.41 ± 6.82		
The health status of the father		<.001	0.2 (0.09, 0.3)		<.001	0.2 (0.07, 0.3)
Healthy	39.99 ± 5.07			82.52 ± 9.33		
Predominantly psychiatric disorder(s)	47.87 ± 4.86			69.80 ± 4.36		
Predominantly medical illness(es)	38.43 ± 5.76			83.29 ± 10.78		
Domestic conflict		<.001	2.3 (1.8, 2.8)		<.001	-1.9 (-2.4, 1.5)
Yes	47.16 ± 4.19			71.05 ± 3.68		
No	38.11 ± 3.74			85.36 ± 8.42		
History of mother's emotional neglect		<.001	1.1 (0.7, 1.5)		<.001	-0.9 (-1.2, 0.5)
Yes	44.10 ± 6.27			76.34 ± 9.50		
No	38.61 ± 3.94			84.25 ± 8.76		
						(Continued)

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	SEAPP-C3-6- Causal subdimension scores		Effect size (95%	SEAPP-C3-6- Preventer subdimension scores		
	(mean ± SD)	p-value*	Ū	(mean ± SD)	p-value*	Effect size (95%CI)
History of mother's physical abuse		<.001	1.2 (0.8, 1.6)		<.001	-0.9 (-1.3, 0.5)
Yes	44.85 ± 6.15			75.46 ± 9.22		
No	38.99 ± 4.38			83.61 ± 9.06		
History of father's emotional neglect		<.001	1.6 (1.2, 1.9)		<.001	-1.5 (-1.9, 1.1)
Yes	44.80 ± 5.68			74.31 ± 8.27		
No	37.72 ± 3.24			86.36 ± 7.46		
History of father's physical abuse		<.001	2.3 (1.8, 2.8)		<.001	-1.9 (-2.4, 1.5)
Yes	46.50 ± 4.80			72.02 ± 6.19		
No	37.66 ± 3.08			86.12 ± 7.61		
*Data were given as mean ± standard de	viation. The Mann–Whitney U test for contin	uous variak	les was used to	est group differences. Bold font indicates stat	tistical sigr	ifficance: $p < .05$.

Abbreviations: SD: Standard Deviation; SEAPP-C3-6: Scale for Emotional Abuse Potential of Parents with Children Aged 3 to 6.

significantly lower SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores compared to that of the rest (all p values < .05). Results along with the effect sizes and associated 95% CIs are indicated in Table 5.

Correlations between the SEAPP-C3-6 scores and the CPRS-RS scores, ages of the child and his/her parents

The scores of all subscales of CPRS-RS have been significantly affirmatively correlated with SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension mean scores and significantly adversely correlated with SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (all p-values <0.001). There has been no correlation between the children's age, the fathers' age, and the order of siblings, and the mean scores of both sub-dimensions of the SEAPP-C3-6 (all p-values> .05). However, mothers' age has been significantly adversely correlated with SEAPP-C3-6-causal sub-dimension mean scores (p = .021) and significantly affirmatively correlated with SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (p = .027). The number of siblings has been significantly affirmatively correlated with the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (p = .027). The number of siblings has been significantly affirmatively correlated with the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (p = .027). The number of siblings has been significantly affirmatively correlated with the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (p = .027). The number of siblings has been significantly affirmatively correlated with the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (p = .027). The number of siblings has been significantly affirmatively correlated with the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (p = .027). The number of siblings has been significantly affirmatively correlated with the SEAPP-C3-6-preventer sub-dimension mean scores (both p < .001). For details on the results, please see Table 6.

	SEAPP-C3-6- Causal subdimesion		Effect cize (05%	SEAPP-C3-6- Preventer		
	SD)	p-value*	CI)	scores (mean ± SD)	p-value*	Effect size (95%CI)
Gender		<.001	0.8 (0.4, 1.2)		<.001	-0.7 (-1.2, 0.2)
Male	41.98 ± 5.91			79.19 ± 9.77		
Female	37.68 ± 3.47			86.19 ± 8.16		
An infant		<.001	-0.9 (-1.4, 0.5)		<.001	0.8 (0.4, 1.2)
from	39.52 ± 4.95			83.07 ± 9.41		
a planned pregnancy Yes No	44.48 ± 6.06			75.42 ± 8.88		
The child's		.004	-0.6 (-0.9, 0.2)		.005	0.6 (0.2, 0.9)
appetite** Normal Poor or increased	39.39 ± 4.62 42.72 ± 6.37			83.37 ± 9.05 78.02 ± 10.06		
appetite Sleep pattern** Regular Irregular	39.32 ± 4.72 44.56 ± 6.16	<.001	-1. (-1.4, 0.6)	83.59 ± 9.35 74.83 ± 8.20	<.001	0.9 (0.5, 1.3)

 Table 5. The relationship between characteristics of participants and parents' emotional abuse potentials.

*Data were given as mean ± standard deviation. The Mann–Whitney U test for continuous variables was used to test group differences. **Bold font** indicates statistical significance: *p* <.05.

**A standard psychometric test was not used in the measurement of sleep patterns and the child's appetite, it was based on the parents' reports.

Abbreviations: SD: Standard Deviation; SEAPP-C3-6: Scale for Emotional Abuse Potential of Parents with Children Aged 3 to 6.

	SEAPP-C3-6- Causal subdimesion		SEAPP-C3-6- Preventer subdimension	
Scale Scores	p*	Rho*	p*	Rho*
CPRS-RS-cognitive problems/inattention	<.001	0.53	<.001	-0.54
CPRS-RS-hyperactivity	<.001	0.74	<.001	-0.69
CPRS-RS-oppositional scores	<.001	0.79	<.001	-0.75
CPRS-RS-ADHD index	<.001	0.78	<.001	-0.75
Child's age	.277	0.10	.153	-0.13
Mother's age	.021	-0.21	.027	0.20
Father's age	.281	-0.01	.399	0.08
Number of siblings	<.001	0.36	<.001	-0.37
Order of sibling	.074	0.16	.063	-0.17

Table 6. Correlations between the SEAPP-C3-6 scores and the CPRS-RS scores, ages of the child and his/her parents.

*Spearman's correlation analysis. **Bold font** indicates statistical significance: p < .05.

Abbreviations: ADHD: Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder; CPRS-RS: Conners' Parent Rating Scale-Revised Short Form; SEAPP-C3-6: Scale for Emotional Abuse Potential of Parents with Children Aged 3 to 6.

Discussion

In this study, we have compared the emotional abuse potential of mothers of preschool children with and without ADHD and we have provided data on children with ADHD who are at increased risk of emotional abuse by their mothers. The higher emotional abuse potential scores of mothers have been associated with higher Conners scores reflecting the worse ADHD symptomatology. More importantly, our findings have indicated that the risk of emotional abuse increases when it was comorbid with disruptive behavior disorders. Furthermore, children with low family income and low parental education level, a history of psychiatric disorder and history of abuse in their parents, and children experiencing and/or witnessing domestic violence had a high risk of emotional abuse by their mothers. From the perspective of the child's characteristics, boys, unwanted children and children with sleep and appetite problems have been at greater risk of emotional abuse by their mothers.

Studies examining the relationship between ADHD and abuse in schoolaged children and adolescents revealed that those in the ADHD population are exposed to more abuse including emotional abuse than those in controls and this suggests that there is a strong association between maltreatment and ADHD (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Dinkler et al., 2017; Evinç et al., 2014; Hadianfard, 2014; Ouyang et al., 2008; Sari Gokten et al., 2016; Stern et al., 2018). However, studies focusing on the relationship between ADHD and emotional abuse were both limited and did not include preschool children. To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first study that specifically focuses on the relationship between ADHD and emotional abuse in preschool years. Our findings are in line with previous studies revealing that diagnosis of ADHD in school-age children and adolescents may cause higher vulnerability to emotional abuse.

The symptoms and challenges of ADHD are listed as early potential risk factors for child maltreatment and the abusive attitudes of parents (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Dinkler et al., 2017; Evinç et al., 2014, 2018; Gul & Gurkan, 2018). There are several reasons for the association between ADHD and abuse and neglect. Firstly, parents may struggle to cope with the child showing ADHD symptoms such as hyperactivity, aggressiveness, impulsiveness (Gul & Gurkan, 2018; Hadianfard, 2014; Sari Gokten et al., 2016). Therefore, ADHD symptoms can increase parenting stress, reduce parental satisfaction with caregiving, cause ineffective parenting, which can eventually compel parents to exhibit more abusive discipline attitudes and use strict discipline (Evinc et al., 2018; Leitch et al., 2019; Uddin et al., 2020). Concordantly, a substantial literature revealed that punitive approaches and abusive disciplinary attitudes are much more observed in families with children with ADHD than that of families with children without ADHD (Alizadeh, Applequist, & Coolidge, 2007; Evinc et al., 2018). Our results have indicated that severe ADHD symptoms increase the emotional abuse potential scores of mothers. This suggests that more severe ADHD symptoms may be associated with increased conflict in mother-child relationships and the mother having more difficulties in taking care of the child and this can increase the risk of abusive discipline of the mother. Secondly, abusive and neglectful behaviors of parents toward their children may be associated with an increased prevalence of ADHD in their children (Alizadeh et al., 2007; Evinç et al., 2014). Since it has been observed that the maltreatment experienced in early childhood can increase vulnerability to developing ADHD symptoms or can exacerbate the existing ADHD symptoms, even though parental abusive discipline and parenting styles are not the main causal factors for ADHD (Dinkler et al., 2017). Thirdly, given that ADHD is primarily a genetically-based disorder and its high heritability rates (Grimm, Kittel-Schneider, & Reif, 2018), parents of children with ADHD are also likely to exhibit impulse control and attention problems (Johnston, Mash, Miller, & Ninowski, 2012), and this possibly increases the likelihood of abusive behavior. Previous studies also indicated that parental ADHD impacts parenting skills. It was revealed that parents with ADHD experience more stress, exhibit higher impulsivity, have more frequent outbursts of anger and argue more with family members, have difficulty in being patient, have lower emotion regulation skills, all of which pose a risk for abuse (Johnston et al., 2012; Murray & Johnston, 2006). Finally, this relationship between abuse and ADHD may also arise out of both conditions' possibility of sharing common etiological/risk factors such as similar socioeconomic conditions, parental characteristics, and genetic factors (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Ouyang et al., 2008).

Regarding risk factors for the child, in this study, we have found out that being a boy, being an unwanted child, and having sleep and appetite problems are closely related to the higher emotional abuse potential of mothers. The most plausible explanation for the higher emotional abuse potential of mothers of boys than that of mothers of girls can be that all ADHD symptoms except attention deficit are more severe in boys. The second explanation can be that the symptom type of ADHD, regardless of symptom severity, may have had an effect on this outcome. Parents of hyperactive-impulsive children may have more difficulties in parenting, since other symptoms of ADHD other than attention deficit can cause more discipline problems and behavioral difficulties (Gul & Gurkan, 2018; Ouyang et al., 2008). This could cause to a higher frequency of parental abusive manner. Similar findings were reported by previous studies (Alizadeh et al., 2007; Evinç et al., 2014, 2018; Gul & Gurkan, 2018). The high emotional abuse potential of mothers of unwanted children may be the result of not being emotionally ready of the mother to take the motherhood responsibilities. Having sleep and appetite problems of the child may be related to his/her difficult temperament. Difficult temperament can affect the response and reactions of parents toward children and can cause parental stress and distress, which may establish a ground for failures in caregiving (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Leitch et al., 2019; Mofokeng & van der Wath, 2017; Stern et al., 2018).

A noteworthy finding of our study is that the mothers of children with ADHD comorbid with disruptive behavior disorders have higher emotional abuse potential than that of those mothers of children with ADHD not comorbid with disruptive behavior disorders. This finding confirms the previous study results indicating that high rates of externalizing behavior in the abused ADHD subgroup, and confirms that the existence of a comorbid conduct disorder further strengthens the relationship between ADHD and abuse/neglect (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Evinc et al., 2014; Leitch et al., 2019; Stern et al., 2018; Uddin et al., 2020). Various explanations can be made for this result. For instance, ADHD-diagnosed children with disruptive behavior disorders may experience more conflict with their parents and other family members due to additional symptoms such as refusing to comply with limitations and rules, having hostile-intrusive behaviors, and attacking the fundamental rights of others (Briscoe-Smith & Hinshaw, 2006; Evinç et al., 2014; Leitch et al., 2019; Mofokeng & van der Wath, 2017). This can contribute to the complexity of parent-child relationships and can cause ineffective communication and a more complex family environment.

In addition to child-related risk factors, parental and sociodemographic risk factors for child maltreatment have also been identified. Fundamentally, these risk factors which are important predictors for child maltreatment can be listed as the parental history of abuse in their own childhood, having all kinds of psychiatric disorders, having physical health problems, being exposed to domestic violence, being an early parent at a young age, having low income, and having low parental education level (Derakhshanpour et al., 2017; Mulder et al., 2018; Walsh et al., 2019). Consistent with these reports, the results of our study also have revealed that having low family income, having low parental education, having psychiatric disorders and the history of physical and emotional abuse in parents, being a mother at an early age, having an increased number of siblings, being exposed to domestic violence increase the emotional abuse potential against children.

The fundamental strengths of this study are that it has addressed preschool children with ADHD, and it has examined a wide range of predictive factors of emotionally abusive attitudes through a special focus on emotional abuse. However, our study was subject to several limitations. Firstly, only mothers have completed the scale for emotional abuse potential of parents and we have not assessed the father's emotional abuse potential. Secondly, the parents' histories of childhood emotional and physical abuse have been retrospectively self-reported by surveyed parents, without using any scales. Therefore, this information may have been subjected to retrospectively recall bias and/or underestimation of rates of their maltreatment history. Finally, we have used a cross-sectional design and our sample size was relatively small. These weaknesses have restricted the generalizability of our findings and prevented the determination of definitive causality. More prospective longitudinal research is required to replicate and verify our findings. Future research shall also address the risks of physical and sexual abuse of children with preschool ADHD. It shall be once more noted that future studies with a larger sample including also fathers would be extremely valuable.

Implications for practice

This is the first study to focus specifically on the relationship between ADHD and exposure to emotional abuse in the preschool period. Our findings have indicated a robust association between emotional abuse and preschool ADHD, by highlighting the significant role of comorbid disruptive behavior disorders. Thus, we have recommend that clinicians shall be aware that especially preschool children with ADHD suffering from disruptive behavior disorder comorbidity are at further heightened risk of emotional abuse. In addition to this, in clinical settings during routine assessment and treatment planning, it would be extremely useful to evaluate children with ADHD not only in terms of ADHD symptoms but also in terms of their risks of exposure to emotional abuse.

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Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

Data accessibility

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

Author contributions

The study was planned by S.N.K., A.U.C., and M.K., and psychiatric examinations and assessments were done by A.U.C. and C.M.I. S.N.K, M.K., and G.D. contributed to the analysis and interpretation of the data. S.N.K, C.M.I., and G.D. drafted the article and revised it. A.U. C. and M.K. gave the final approval of the version to be published. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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