

T.C.
BAHCESEHIR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

**ADAPTING GENDER VIOLENCE PERCEPTION (VGP) SCALE TO THE
TURKISH CULTURE**

MASTER'S THESIS
İREM BAYRAKTAROĞLU

ISTANBUL 2024

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ABSTRACT

ADAPTING GENDER VIOLENCE PERCEPTION (VGP) SCALE TO THE TURKISH CULTURE

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M.A., Clinical Psychology

Supervisor: Dr. Çiğdem Koşe

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This thesis explores the cultural adaptation of the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) Scale to the Turkish context, focusing on perceptions of intimate partner violence among young adults. Limited research exists in Turkey, especially on psychological violence, often seen as less severe than physical violence. A total of 308 participants from Turkey and North Cyprus were surveyed online using the VGP Scale and the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA). The VGP Scale demonstrated strong reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .91), with items 3, 4, and 11 excluded. Seven items originally under the second factor in the Spanish version were reclassified under the first factor in the Turkish context, highlighting cultural perceptions of controlling behaviors. Data analysis, including the Kruskal-Wallis test, showed that longer relationship durations, especially among females, correlate with greater awareness of psychological violence. Females generally exhibited higher awareness of gender violence than males, while heavier social media users showed lower perceptions of violence. Cohabiting and married individuals displayed greater sensitivity, possibly due to prolonged relationship exposure. A significant correlation was found between VGP scores and MMEA subscales, suggesting that higher awareness of gender violence reduces the likelihood of perpetrating or tolerating psychological violence. These findings emphasize the role of relationship dynamics in shaping perceptions of psychological violence.

Keywords: Dating Violence, Psychological Violence, Intimate Partner Violence



ÖZ

ALGILANAN CİNSİYET ŞİDDET ÖLÇEĞİNİN TÜRK KÜLTÜRÜNE UYARLANMASI

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Bu tez, Cinsiyet Şiddeti Algısı (VGP) Ölçeği'nin Türk kültürüne uyarlanmasını ve genç yetişkinler arasında yakın partner şiddeti algısına odaklanmaktadır. Türkiye'de, özellikle psikolojik şiddet konusunda sınırlı araştırma bulunmaktadır ve bu şiddet türü, fiziksel şiddete kıyasla genellikle daha az ciddi olarak algılanmaktadır. Türkiye ve Kuzey Kıbrıs'tan toplam 308 katılımcı, VGP Ölçeği ve Duygusal İstismar Çok Boyutlu Ölçüm Aracı (MMEA) kullanılarak çevrimiçi olarak incelenmiştir. VGP Ölçeği, Cronbach's Alpha = .91 ile yüksek güvenirlik göstermiştir ve 3, 4 ve 11 numaralı maddeler ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. İspanyolca versiyonunda ikinci faktörde yer alan yedi madde, Türk bağlamında ilk faktöre yeniden sınıflandırılmıştır; bu durum, Türk kültürünün kontrol edici davranışları daha düşmanca algıladığını yansıtmaktadır. Kruskal-Wallis testi dahil olmak üzere veri analizi, özellikle kadın katılımcılar arasında, ilişki süresi arttıkça psikolojik şiddet algısının arttığını ortaya koymuştur. Kadınlar genel olarak erkeklere kıyasla cinsiyet temelli şiddete karşı daha yüksek farkındalık sergilemiştir. Daha yoğun sosyal medya kullanımı, şiddet algısının daha düşük seviyeleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Birlikte yaşayan ve evli bireyler ise muhtemelen ilişki dinamiklerine uzun süre maruz kalmaları nedeniyle cinsiyet temelli şiddete karşı daha fazla duyarlılık göstermiştir. VGP puanları ile MMEA alt ölçekleri arasında anlamlı bir korelasyon bulunmuştur. Cinsiyet temelli şiddete karşı daha yüksek farkındalık gösteren bireylerin, bu tür şiddeti başkalarına uygulama olasılığı daha düşüktür. Ayrıca, VGP ölçeğinde daha yüksek puan alan bireyler, başkalarının

kendilerine psikolojik şiddet uygulama girişimlerine karşı daha dirençlidir. Bu bulgular, psikolojik şiddet algısının şekillenmesinde ilişki süresinin önemini vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Flört Şiddeti, Psikolojik Şiddet, Partner Şiddeti



I dedicate this thesis to my parents and brother, thank you for always being my foundation and my inspiration.



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LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS

α	Cronbach's Alpha
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
DEN	Denigration (MMEA subscale)
df	Degrees of Freedom
D/I	Dominance/Intimidation (MMEA subscale)
HW	Hostile Withdrawal (MMEA subscale)
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
M	Mean
MMEA	Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse
N	Sample Size
p	Probability Value
r	Correlation Coefficient
RE	Restrictive Engulfment (MMEA subscale)
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SUM_MMEA_PERP	Total Score on the Perpetration Subscale of the MMEA
SUM_MMEA_VIC	Total Score on the Victimization Subscale of the MMEA
SUM_VGP	Total Score on the Gender Violence Perception Scale

VGP

WHO

χ^2

Gender Violence Perception Scale

World Health Organization

Chi-Square



Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Despite the limited research on dating violence and psychological violence in Turkey, there has been a notable increase in studies on these topics in recent years. This growing body of research aims to address the critical gaps in understanding the prevalence, dynamics, and impact of dating violence within the Turkish context. Researchers are increasingly focusing on various forms of abuse, including psychological violence, to develop a comprehensive understanding of the factors contributing to such behaviours. This increased scholarly attention reflects a recognition of the urgent need to address dating violence and its psychological aspects to inform effective prevention and intervention strategies. An international study across 21 countries found significant variations in dating violence rates, with even the lowest rates remaining alarmingly high (Chan et al., 2008). In Turkey, research on dating violence prevalence is sparse. Nonetheless, the available studies indicate that both perpetrating and experiencing dating violence are relatively widespread in the country (Toplu-Demirtaş & Fincham, 2020; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013; Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2022).

Psychological violence can seem to get lost among the threat and importance of physical violence among the society. Studies show that until 1980s, there was almost no research done to look at the effects on psychological violence on single people. Makepeace (1981) noted that there are fewer studies on violence in dating relationships than there are on family violence, despite the possibility of correlations between one's roles in premarital and marital relationships, emphasising the need for further research. Violence appears to be a common, although overlooked, feature of premarital heterosexual interaction.

The troubling frequency of dating violence and the noticeable gender differences in its occurrence indicate that our understanding of this issue is still incomplete. Research also reveals that the context and seriousness of a relationship significantly influence the likelihood of dating violence. Furthermore, individuals who cohabit are more prone to engage in abusive behaviours compared to those who are dating but not living together (Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985; Magdol, Moffitt, Caspi, & Silva, 1998; Stets & Straus, 1989).

The research shows that it did not consider whether psychological violence could be experienced by non-married couples. The World Health Organisation (WHO) describes psychological violence as abusive behaviour characterised by insults, belittlement, continuous humiliation, intimidation (such as destroying things), threats of injury, and threatening to take away children. According to the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE), psychological violence is defined as any action or behaviour that inflicts psychological damage upon the spouse or ex-partner. This definition can also be interpreted in terms of the harm that is inflicted. Instances of psychological violence include coercion, verbal insults, defamation, and harassment. Violence does not only mean consciously and physically harming the other person, but it can also be done verbally and psychologically (WHO, 2012; Ünal, 2005).

The phenomenon of dating violence is multifaceted and encompasses several interpretations. Lavoie et al. (2000, p. 8) provide a definition of domestic violence as "any conduct that causes harm to the partner's growth or well-being by undermining their physical, psychological, or sexual integrity." Sugarman and Hotaling (1989, p. 5) define physical violence as the deliberate use or threat of restraint or physical force with the purpose of inflicting suffering or injury onto another individual. The Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (2006) provide a more comprehensive definition, which includes "real or potential physical or sexual violence, as well as psychological or emotional abuse, aimed at a present or past romantic partner, whether it be a boyfriend, girlfriend, or companion." These definitions all highlight the harmful and controlling nature of dating violence.

Studies repeatedly show that dating college students have elevated levels of psychological aggression, with rates as high as 90%, irrespective of gender (Hines & Saudino, 2003; Jenkins & Aubé, 2002; Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2007; Straus et al., 1996; Toplu & Hatipoglu-Sümer, 2011). Specifically, a study conducted by Hines and Saudino in 2003 among 302 female and 179 male dating college students revealed that

most of females and most of males had exhibited psychological violence in the year leading up to the evaluation. Victimization rates were also significant, with 81% of males and 80% of females reporting incidents of psychological aggression (Hines & Saudino, 2003). Jenkins and Aubé (2002) found high levels of psychological aggression among college students in dating relationships, with 90.6% of men and 88.2% of women admitting to perpetrating such behaviours. They also reported high victimization rates, with 85.9% of men and 81.2% of women experiencing psychological aggression. Similarly, research in Turkey has shown significant rates of psychological aggression among college students. For example, in a study involving 834 participants, 85.2% of women and 76.6% of men acknowledged engaging in psychological aggression within the past year (Toplu & Hatipoglu-Sümer, 2011).

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is linked to numerous adverse physical and mental health outcomes, including hypertension and diabetes (Dolezal et al., 2009), HIV/AIDS (Li et al., 2014), and cardiovascular diseases (Constantino et al., 2019). Additionally, IPV survivors frequently experience mental health issues such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, and suicidal ideation (Devries et al., 2011), which can be devastating. Research by Cho et al. (2023) indicates that women who have been victims of intimate partner violence (IPV) are more susceptible to adopting unhealthy habits such as obesity, drug usage, and eating disorders.

Moreover, survivors of intimate partner violence frequently experience adverse mental health consequences. According to McManus et al. (2022), 50% of individuals who had made suicide attempts in the previous year had encountered intimate partner violence (IPV), and 31–84% of IPV survivors revealed symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Dutton et al., 2006). The COVID-19 pandemic led to a more than 1.8-fold rise in the occurrence of intimate partner violence (IPV), with a significant surge in sexual and physical violence (Uzoho et al., 2023). The primary sources of assistance for survivors of intimate partner violence (IPV) are informal networks, such as family or friends, rather than formal groups like the police or medical professionals (Addington, 2022). According to Langton et al. (2011), less than 10% of survivors of intimate partner violence (IPV) who also experienced severe violence said that they sought professional support services. This low rate of seeking formal assistance may be due to fears of embarrassment and stigma, concerns about being accused, distrust in the justice system, or a lack of resources to pursue help for IPV (Wright et al., 2022).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The aim of the current study is to investigate the basic psychometrics of the Perceived Gender Violence Perception Scale (Álvarez, 2014) in a Turkish sample.

This study offers a comprehensive examination of dating violence (DV) prevalence rates and scores among both men and women, encompassing both perpetration and victimization. This provides a holistic understanding of the DV phenomenon. Additionally, this research specifically delves into attitudes towards psychological violence against women, shedding light on this important aspect of DV.

1.3 Hypotheses/Research Questions

This study aims to test the following hypotheses, which are provided below.

(H1) Is the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale reliable?

(H2) Does the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale have validity?

(H3) The impact of relationship duration on the perception of gender violence will be more pronounced among female participants.

(H4) Longer relationship durations will lead to significantly higher perceptions of psychological violence. Individuals who have been in relationships for extended periods are expected to report greater awareness and sensitivity to psychological abuse.

(H5) Participants in relationships lasting over two years will consistently report higher scores on the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale.

1.4 Significance of the Study

While some research exists on psychological violence in Turkey, validated scales for measuring its prevalence are scarce. This gap in assessment tools hinders

our understanding of the issue and calls for further investigation. This study aims to address this gap by adapting the Gender Violence Perception Scale (VGP) for use in a Turkish sample. By creating a culturally relevant measure, this research will contribute valuable insights into the prevalence and nature of dating violence in Turkey.

1.5 Definitions

In the following section, core variables of this study are defined. This process clarifies the specific meaning and measurement approach used for each variable.

1.5.1 Definition of psychological violence. Psychological violence encompasses a range of threatening behaviours that can harm the victim, others, or even the perpetrator themselves. This includes threats of separation, acting indifferent towards the victim's feelings, hindering their independence, isolating them from their social circles, and exerting excessive control over their lives. (Offenhauer & Buchalter, 2011).

1.5.2 Definition of dating violence. According to the Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2019), dating violence is a type of intimate partner violence that occurs between two people in a close relationship. Physical dating violence involves using physical force to cause any form of harm to the target person (Breiding et al., 2015). However, sexual dating violence encompasses actions such as using physical force to coerce an individual into participating in a sexual activity, engaging in sexual activities in an abusive manner, or involving the victim in a sexual activity without their consent or capacity to comprehend the nature of the activity (Breiding et al., 2015). As per the definitions provided by Breiding et al. (2015) and the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2012), psychological or emotional dating violence encompasses acts, threats of acts, or coercive strategies such as humiliation, surveillance, alienation, or intentional actions that can have a detrimental impact on the mental well-being of the victim.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Violence

Violence, as defined by the World Health Organisation (WHO), is the deliberate use of physical force or power, whether threatened or actual, against oneself, another individual, or a group or community, which leads to or has a high probability of causing injury, death, psychological damage, maldevelopment, or disability. The World Health Organisation (WHO) proposes a systematic classification of violence into four categories: physical, sexual, psychological assault, and deprivation (World Health Organisation, 2002, p. 25). Galtung mentions six dimensions of violence: 1. Violence may be physical or psychological, 2. It may have a positive or negative effect, 3. It may or may not involve an object, 4. It may or may not have an individual or structural subject, 5. It may be intentional or unintentional, 6. It may be open or secret (Çakır et al., 2016).

Numerous factors, including alcohol misuse, firearm accessibility, and socioeconomic disparities, are prevalent across various forms of violence. In various global population-based studies: Between 10% and 69% of women disclosed experiencing physical assault by an intimate partner at some point in their lives, and approximately 20% of women and 5-10% of men reported being sexually abused during childhood. Extensive research has demonstrated that the health impacts of violence extend beyond physical harm. Individuals who experience violence are susceptible to a range of psychological and behavioural issues, such as depression, alcohol misuse, anxiety, and suicidal tendencies. Additionally, they may encounter reproductive health challenges, including sexually transmitted infections, unintended pregnancies, and sexual dysfunction (Krug et al., 2002). It can be said the cause for violence has many factors. Violence is undeniably linked with poverty, and the mistreatment of children physically contributes to subsequent aggressive behaviour

(Dodge et al., 1990). Additionally, social cohesion and the instability of neighbourhoods serve as risk factors for violent conduct (Sampson et al., 1997). While race appears to be correlated with violence, it likely acts as a proxy for poverty and low socioeconomic status. Poor academic performance, involvement in gangs, and familial structure are all associated with disadvantaged communities, often minorities, and are correlated with elevated rates of violence (Wright et al., 2006). Substance abuse, particularly of drugs and alcohol, also fuels violent behaviour, although these excesses are typically intertwined with the risk factors. Nevertheless, substantial evidence suggests that childhood behaviour serves as a predictor of future criminal conduct (Farrington et al., 1994).

2.2 Dating Violence

Considerable progress has been made in the study of dating violence since its inception in the early 1980s. Contemporary dating violence now includes a wider range of abusive actions occurring in both non-marital and romantic partnerships. Dating violence, as described by Anderson and Danis (2007, p. 88), refers to the act of one member of an unmarried couple threatening or using physical, sexual, or verbal abuse against the other member within the framework of a dating relationship.

The dating phase is often viewed as a preparation for marriage, as it sets the foundation for future relationships. Behaviours and expectations developed during dating can persist and influence marital dynamics (Roscoe & Benaske, 1985).

Illegal forms of violence, such as dating violence and domestic violence, extend beyond individual actions to become social phenomena observed across various societies and historical eras. The intensity and patterns of such violence vary among different societies and may also change over time within the same society (Savrun and Balcioğlu, 2000). The research conducted by Arias et al. (1987), Laner (1983), Pederson & Thomas (1992), Roscoe & Callahan (1985), and Stacy et al. (1994) define dating violence as including both minor acts of aggression (such as throwing objects, pushing, jostling, or grabbing) and more serious forms (such as biting, punching, kicking, or beating up). O'Keefe et al. (1986) broadened this term to encompass verbal threats as part of the operational framework of dating-related hostility. Various factors have been identified in research as increasing the probability of engaging in or experiencing dating violence (DV). These risk factors typically manifest throughout

the period of adolescence or early adulthood and encompass features such as a restricted level of education, insufficient parental support, and a history of family violence (Caetano, Schafer, Clark, Cunradi, & Raspberry, 2000; Niolon et al., 2017). In addition, other risk factors for intimate partner violence include gender, race, stress, anxiety, adherence to traditional gender roles, previous experience of dating violence perpetration or victimisation, substance misuse, and communication difficulties (Caetano et al., 2000; Niolon et al., 2017).

2.2.1 Dating violence types. In this study, the types of dating violence identified and categorized by Cankardaş Nalbantçılar (2018) served as the foundational basis for the analysis of dating violence dynamics. This framework provided a critical lens through which various forms of violence in intimate relationships were explored, allowing for a comprehensive understanding of the patterns and consequences of dating violence. The inconsistent findings in research make it challenging to form definitive conclusions regarding the prevalence and nature of dating violence. However, despite varying reported rates, the average prevalence of dating violence among college and high school students appears to be around 30% (Sugarman & Hotelling, 1989). While some studies suggest that females report initiating more violence, there are plausible explanations for these findings (Magdol et al., 1997). Additionally, empirical evidence indicates that in most violent relationships, both partners are mutually aggressive (Gray & Foshee, 1997).

Dating violence tends to occur more frequently within serious, long-term relationships, as indicated by several studies (Arias et al., 1987; Hanley & O'Neill, 1997; Laner, 1983; Laner & Thompson, 1982; Pederson & Thomas, 1992). Additionally, there is a negative correlation between dating violence and socioeconomic status, as suggested by research conducted by O'Keefe (1998) and Stets & Henderson (1991).

2.2.1.1 Psychological violence. Psychological violence involves actions that are intended to harm someone emotionally or mentally, rather than physically (Breiding et al., 2015). It's a method used to establish dominance or control over a partner (Follingstad et al., 1990; Sugarman & Hotaling, 1991). When psychological violence occurs, the victim's mental health and sense of self-esteem are put at risk (Murphy & Hoover, 1999).

One of the most insidious aspects of psychological violence is its subtlety. Because it doesn't leave visible marks, it can be easier for both the perpetrator and society at large to downplay or ignore its impact. The impacts of other forms of abuse or neglect have been the subject of fewer studies (Alloy et al., 2006; Bifulco et al., 2002a, Bifulco et al., 2002b; Chen et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2009; Musliner and Singer, 2014). Most of the existing study has focused on the topics of physical and sexual abuse (Cutajar et al., 2010, Dube et al., 2005, Fergusson et al., 2008, Kendler et al., 2000, Molnar et al. 2001). Psychological violence, when contrasted with physical and sexual violence, emerges as the predominant form of intimate partner violence (IPV) in both the USA (Black et al., 2011) and Europe (Rights, 2014), with an estimated impact on 35 to 49% of individuals, regardless of gender.

Threatening behaviours aimed at harming oneself, others, or the individual, including threats of separation, indifference, preventing independence, cutting off communication with social circles, and excessively controlling behaviours, are considered psychological violence (Offenhauer & Buchalter, 2011). Murphy and Hoover (1999) categorized psychological violence behaviours into four main groups based on their intended outcomes. These categories include: "Dominance/Intimidation," which involves actions like threatening, severe verbal abuse, and damaging property to intimidate the partner into submission. "Restrictive Engulfment" encompasses behaviours such as social isolation, jealousy, and possessiveness, aimed at making the victim dependent on the abuser and deterring outside interference. "Denigration" consists of actions intended to humiliate and degrade the partner, ultimately damaging their self-esteem. Lastly, "Hostile Withdrawal" involves withholding affection and contact during conflicts to instil fear and insecurity in the victim regarding the relationship.

Distinguishing itself from emotional abuse, psychological abuse involves persistent and repetitive actions that harm or obstruct the growth of vital mental capacities, particularly cognitive functions such as intelligence, perception, attention,

recognition, and memory. In essence, it is a pattern of behaviour that undermines and damages an individual's mental well-being and cognitive abilities over time (O'Hagan, 1995).

2.2.1.2 Stalking. Stalking refers to the recurrent acts of harassment that induce fear and pose a threat to the safety of the targeted individual (or a reasonable person in the same circumstances) (Diette et al., 2014). The phenomenon of stalking is commonly classified as a form of psychological/emotional assault (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). An estimated 25% of women and 13% of males experience sexual abuse, physical violence, and/or stalking from an intimate partner (Breiding, Chen, & Black, 2014).

Chugh and Guggisberg (2020) highlight that a huge number of people, nearly 3.5 billion according to We Are Social (2019), spend close to seven hours a day online on social platforms. Social media platforms are a major draw, consuming almost 2.5 hours of that daily online time, as reported by Clement (2020). But the internet offers more than just social interaction. The popularity of video streaming services is undeniable, with Armstrong (2020) highlighting the nearly 615 million subscribers. And those subscribers aren't just casual viewers; Keslassy (2019) found the average Netflix user dedicates approximately two hours daily to online streaming content. In the digital realm, there's a worrisome trend where users of social media and online dating platforms frequently disclose personal details like photos, contact information, locations, daily habits, religious beliefs, relationship backgrounds, and even family history online. However, many seem oblivious to the potential safety hazards associated with sharing such information (Couch et al., 2012; Hajli & Lin, 2016). Alarming, the covert capabilities of online technology have transformed it into a widespread tool for facilitating stalking (Tokunaga & Aune, 2017). Cyberstalking refers to the act of using the internet to actively seek, harass, or communicate with another person without their consent. It is often seen as an expansion of physical stalking (Bocij & McFarlane, 2002). Behaviours associated with cyberstalking include searching social media sites seeking personal information, monitoring conversations and locations, eavesdropping, conducting video surveillance, making telephone calls, and using GPS tracking (Tokunaga & Aune, 2017). Existing research indicates that

around 17% to 25% of individuals may experience some form of stalking behaviour at some point in their lives (Chan & Sheridan, 2020).

Chugh and Guggisberg (2020) emphasise this point further by stating that, according to Borrajo et al. (2015), approximately half of the participants reported having been the victim of online stalking in the six months prior to this study. Most respondents attributed their partner's actions to jealousy. Additionally, cyber dating abuse frequently correlated with emotional or physical dating violence. Strategies masked as attempts to pursue a relationship may involve giving gifts, unexpected visits to the workplace, and unwelcome messages (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014). These actions appear to be socially tolerated in modern society, despite stalking being deemed illegal in numerous countries since the 1990s (Smoker & March, 2017). It's not surprising that women who are stalked by an intimate partner frequently don't identify the actions as stalking because they interpret these behaviors differently (Woodlock, 2017), leading to a lack of awareness of being stalked (Fissel, 2018). Irrational beliefs about the intimate partner have been identified as a key driving force behind stalking behavior (Cheyne & Guggisberg, 2018).

As a result, individuals who stalk their partners typically exhibit a strong sense of possession, viewing their actions as justified. They often believe that their intimate partner behaves in a provocative manner, leading them to perceive women as intentionally fueling their jealousy (Kingham & Gordon, 2004). Moreover, some people may view stalking behaviors as acceptable, seeing them as a form of gender-based control aimed at asserting or reclaiming male authority over their female partners (Caputo, 2013). An anomaly arises in a study conducted by Smoker and March (2017), revealing that women exhibit a higher propensity for engaging in intimate partner cyberstalking compared to men. Moreover, the study identifies "Dark Tetrad" traits—such as Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy, and sadism—as predictive factors for perpetration.

As internet-based entertainment platforms have become increasingly prevalent, Netflix has risen to prominence as a frontrunner in effortlessly providing digital content to television screens worldwide. 'You,' a current American psychological thriller, depicts how the male protagonist exploits modern media to participate in romantic stalking and other manifestations of dating violence (Chugh & Guggisberg, 2020). The plot centres on Joe Goldberg, a psychopathic serial killer who relentlessly pursues Beck Guinevere, a college student, with the aim of establishing a romantic

connection with her. Joe's fixation on Beck leads to multiple murders of individuals within Beck's social circle whom Joe perceives as obstacles to his romantic pursuit of her. The series illustrates how social media can be exploited to invade someone's privacy and manipulate an intimate partner, ultimately escalating to dangerous and lethal consequences. The rapid and widespread popularity of "You" makes it a compelling subject for examination, especially due to its portrayal of conflicting themes of love alongside controlling and obsessive behaviours. The peril of delusional and obsessive jealousy is evident in real-life cases of intimate partner homicides (Kingham & Gordon, 2004). Research findings indicate that the acceptance of coercive control as a legitimate tactic in intimate relationships correlates with social upbringing and childhood attachment issues (Buck et al., 2012; Politoff et al., 2019). It's frequently observed that men who engage in abuse against women often portray themselves as victims of traumatic childhoods, potentially employing this narrative as a means of exerting control (Towns & Adams, 2016).

Attachment theory is commonly employed to elucidate the patterns of partner abuse and stalking. Research indicates that childhood difficulties resulting from disorganised attachment may cause males to pursue improper relationships in adulthood as a means of compensating for deficiencies in their mothers (Cheyne & Guggisberg, 2018; Chugh & Guggisberg, 2020). Kingham and Gordon (2004) have established a correlation between the notion of "maternal deprivation" and the occurrence of stalking and obsessive jealousy. There is a strong correlation between inappropriate attachment to romantic partners in maturity and the manifestation of sexual jealousy and stalking behaviours within abusive relationships. For example, a study conducted by Buck et al. (2012) revealed that persons who had insecure attachment tendencies exhibited feelings of mistrust, anxiety surrounding separation, and an unhealthy reliance on their relationships, which could potentially result in interpersonal violence. Nearly all instances of dating violence involve some type of cyber abuse (Flach & Deslandes, 2017; Taylor & Xia, 2018). This is aptly demonstrated in the TV series 'You,' where Joe employs his abilities to manipulate Beck's social media and email accounts, all the while monitoring her social surroundings. Due to the detrimental effects of such behavior, experts advocate for increasing awareness about the risks associated with sharing personal information (Chugh & Guggisberg, 2020; Flach & Deslandes, 2017).

2.2.1.3 Sexual violence. Sexual violence is defined as any sexual act performed by another person without the victim's voluntary agreement or committed against someone who is incapable of giving consent or declining to participate (Breiding et al., 2015, p.11). These acts cover a range of behaviours, expanding from non-physical unwelcome encounters such as verbal sexual harassment to cases of coerced penetration.

College students are particularly vulnerable to sexual violence prevention efforts, as females aged 18 to 24 face the highest rates of victimization compared to other age groups (Langton & Sinozich, 2014). Additionally, a significant majority of female victims experience their first rape before reaching the age of 25 (Smith et al., 2018). The college environment exposes students to increased risk factors such as reduced parental supervision, heightened alcohol consumption, greater sexual activity, and exposure to peer attitudes regarding sexual violence (Mellins et al., 2017; Zinzow & Thompson, 2015). Consequently, sexual violence affects numerous college students and occurs within a context of heightened independence and risky behaviors, leading to various negative outcomes including psychological distress and academic difficulties (Banyard et al., 2017; Carey et al., 2018).

Research indicates that males are more frequently identified as perpetrators of sexual violence (Bonar et al., 2022), while studies on risk factors for female perpetration are scarce due to the rarity of such behaviour (Porta, Mathiason, Lust, & Eisenberg, 2017; Campbell et al., 2017). For men, well-supported risk factors for perpetrating sexual violence include prior perpetration, certain sexual behaviors (such as having multiple partners or engaging in impersonal sex), and specific attitudes and beliefs related to sexuality and violence (like hostility toward women or acceptance of rape myths) (O'Donohue & Schewe, 2019; Tharp et al., 2013). Studies have found that a significant proportion of men report perpetrating sexual violence before college, with factors like exposure to sexual media, alcohol misuse, and hypermasculine attitudes contributing to this behavior (Salazar et al., 2018). Although longitudinal research on sexual violence perpetration is limited, existing literature suggests that risk factors can evolve over the college years and influence the likelihood of perpetration (Swartout et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2015). Additionally, studies indicate that college men who express remorse and learn from past perpetration are less likely to offend again, whereas those who exhibit callous attitudes toward women are more likely to continue perpetrating (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004). At the level of family relationships, factors

occurring before college such as child abuse and witnessing parental violence are associated with an increased risk of perpetrating sexual violence (Tharp et al., 2013). The duration of the relationship can also influence the perception and frequency of gender-based violence. Studies indicate that the frequency and intensity of abuse can increase as the relationship progresses (Keeffe, Brockopp, & Chew, 1986). It can be said that those in longer relationships perceive higher levels of abuse compared to those in shorter relationships (Kılınçer et al., 2012).

Being involved in a romantic relationship increases the likelihood of being victimised, as a substantial proportion of sexual assault takes place inside these types of relationships. According to a study conducted by Bhochhibhoya et al. (2019), out of 361 students, 35% reported instances of sexual assault perpetrated by a dating partner. Moreover, nearness to peers involved in deviant conduct, such as criminal activities, was linked to incidents of attempted sexual assault. Recent studies have also found that meeting potential partners through dating apps and participating in casual encounters commonly referred to as "hook-ups" are factors that increase the likelihood of becoming a victim (Herres et al., 2018; Gilbert et al., 2019).

Imaging-based Sexual Abuse (IBSA) has attracted growing interest from scholars in recent years (Citron & Franks, 2014; McGlynn & Rackley, 2017; Powell & Henry, 2017; Powell, Henry, & Flynn, 2018). There are three primary behaviours associated with this phenomenon: the production or acquisition of nude or sexual photos, the distribution or circulation of such images, and the issuance of threats to distribute such images (Powell & Henry, 2017; Powell, Henry, & Flynn, 2018). These visuals might manifest as either still photos or streaming videos. Perpetrators may be driven by various motives, including revenge, sexual gratification, the assertion of power, or the pursuit of enjoyment, entertainment, social status, or financial gain. In different situations, individuals perpetrating domestic violence may use threats of sharing nude or sexual images to manipulate or coerce their victims. Similarly, hackers may employ threats of exposing stolen images to compel the victim to provide additional images, engage in unwanted sexual activities, or extort money. (Henry et al., 2020). Victims of Image-based Sexual Abuse (IBSA) may experience heightened levels of psychological distress, potentially leading to the development of anxiety disorders. Numerous victims have expressed feeling "very" or "extremely" fearful for their safety following their experience with IBSA, with female victims more

frequently reporting such feelings. This underscores the significant impact that IBSA can have on individuals' mental well-being. (Powell, Henry, & Flynn, 2018).

2.2.1.4 Economic violence. Economic abuse revolves around fostering financial reliance on the perpetrator (Miller, 1995). Economic abuse comprises actions that restrict a victim's "capacity to obtain, utilize, and preserve resources, thereby jeopardizing their financial stability and ability to support themselves" (Adams, Sullivan, Bybee, & Greeson, 2008). Economic abuse manifests when the perpetrator exerts full authority over the victim's financial assets (Fawole, 2008). This form of abuse encompasses three main types: economic control, employment sabotage, and economic exploitation (Postmus, Plummer, & Stylianou, 2015; Stylianou, Postmus, & McMahon, 2013).

Instances of economic control arise when the perpetrator limits the victim's ability to obtain financial information and exercise decision-making power (Anderson et al., 2003; Brewster, 2003; Postmus, Plummer, et al., 2015).

Employment sabotage refers to deliberate acts that are intended to obstruct the victim's ability to earn or retain employment (Postmus, Plummer, et al., 2015). Additionally, research has documented instances of employment sabotage including disrupting sleep before job interviews, tampering with alarms, damaging clothing, causing visible injuries, disabling vehicles, threatening child abduction, failing to fulfil childcare or transportation responsibilities, and harassing the victim at their workplace (Tolman & Raphael, 2000). Perpetrators also impede their partner's educational opportunities and interfere with their access to alternative sources of income, such as child support, public assistance, or disability payments (Anderson et al., 2003; Brewster, 2003; Moe & Bell, 2004).

Economic exploitation refers to the intentional acts taken by the perpetrator to diminish the financial assets of the victim or irreparably damage their credit (Postmus, Plummer, et al., 2015). Considering the growing prevalence of consumer credit, wrongdoers are increasingly using debt as a means to establish dominance and influence over their relationships (Littwin, 2012). This type of exploitation encompasses the act of pilfering money, checks, or ATM cards; unauthorised use of the victim's credit line; failure to meet indispensable expenses such as mortgage or utilities; accumulation of debts in the names of the victim or their children; or

squandering jointly earned funds (Anderson et al., 2003). Furthermore, offenders may also engage in damage of the victim's possessions to take advantage of them (Brewster, 2003). A study conducted by Anderson and colleagues in 2003 found that women who sought help from a domestic abuse advocacy group, 38% reported experiencing incidents of their husbands stealing money from them (Stylianou, 2018).

Stylianou and colleagues (2013) highlighted the spatial aspect of abusive behaviours, emphasizing that physical and sexual violence typically require proximity between the perpetrator and the victim. However, psychological abuse can occur regardless of distance if communication channels are open between the perpetrator and the victim or their close contacts. Economic abuse, on the other hand, can be carried out remotely with minimal identifying information. This suggests that victims of intimate partner violence may struggle to end economic abuse even after terminating other forms of abuse, as perpetrators can continue economic manipulation without direct contact or proximity. Economic abuse exerts a profound influence by fostering reliance on the perpetrator for financial support. Research consistently underscores that this reliance poses the most significant challenge for survivors seeking to extricate themselves from abusive situations (Adams, 2011; Barnett, 2000; Fawole, 2008; Kim & Gray, 2008).

Economic abuse has a detrimental impact on the psychological well-being of its victims. Postmus, Huang, and their colleagues (2012) undertook a longitudinal investigation to examine the impact of psychological, physical, and economic abuse on the occurrence of mother depression. The study revealed that moms who experienced economic abuse had a roughly doubled likelihood of developing depression compared to those who had not encountered economic abuse (Stylianou, 2018). Similarly, Huang et al., (2013) investigated the patterns of economic abuse over time and its impact on union formation among mothers. Their findings revealed that economic abuse became more common over time, and both its occurrence and escalation were significantly linked to lower chances of forming stable unions, such as marriage or cohabitation. Several more research studies have established a connection between experiencing economic abuse and its impact on mental health. For instance, Nancarrow et al. (2009) conducted a study involving 532 women residing in Central Queensland's mining area. They discovered that among various forms of abuse, such as psychological, sociopsychological, and nonphysical abuse, economic abuse emerged as the most significant risk factor for depression. Similarly, Hamdan-

Mansour, Arabiat, Sato, Obaid, & Imoto (2011) investigated almost 1000 women in southern Jordan, with an average age of 34.6 years. The majority were married (85%), and nearly half had an education level below secondary. Their findings revealed a notable correlation between economic abuse experiences and adverse effects on psychological well-being, self-acceptance, and environmental mastery (Stylianou, 2018).

In abusive relationships, economic abuse frequently accompanies other forms of abuse like psychological, physical, and sexual violence (Adams et al., 2008; Postmus, 2011). Nonetheless, early research indicates that economic abuse maintains its distinct identity from other forms of abuse, particularly psychological abuse (Adams et al., 2008; Stylianou et al., 2013).

2.2.2 Gender differences in psychological violence. Men who are convicted of violence against women in intimate relationships often shift blame onto their victims to rationalize their own violent actions (Lila, Gracia & Murguia, 2013). Additionally, men tend to downplay their own aggressive behavior while exaggerating women's sense of culpability for it (Jackson, 1999).

When examining interpersonal violence, it's crucial to distinguish between aggressors and victims, with gender playing a significant role in this differentiation. The exploration of dating violence in relation to gender has yielded varied findings. While traditional beliefs in spousal abuse literature suggest that females are primarily victims, research on dating violence presents a more nuanced picture. Some studies indicate similar rates of violence initiation and reception across genders (Follette, 1992; O'Keefe et al., 1986; Riggs et al., 1990). For instance, White and Koss (1991) found in a representative sample that 37% of males reported perpetrating violence, while 39% reported experiencing violence from their partners. Similarly, 35% of females admitted to perpetrating violence, and 32% reported experiencing violence in dating relationships.

Magdol et al. (1997) discovered that 21% of males perpetrated violence compared to 37% of females. In a similar vein, Foshee (1996) found that 27% of females engaged in violent behaviour at least once, while only 15% of males reported doing so in the sample. When examining the gender of the perpetrator, research indicates that both boys and girls generally exhibit greater tolerance for physical and

sexual dating violence when perpetrated by females, compared to when it's perpetrated by males (Courtain & Glowacz, 2021). Further investigations indicate that boys exhibit higher rates of perpetration and victimization in relational dating violence (DV) compared to girls. This contrasts with the "complementary pattern" identified by Wincentak et al. (2016), where different genders may demonstrate varying levels of involvement in DV perpetration and victimization. A gendered explanation suggests that females may underreport perpetrating and being victimized by dating violence because it's often trivialized, while males may not hesitate to report perpetration as it's seen as less serious than physical violence. Boys may also feel less threatened reporting their victimization as it doesn't challenge their masculinity like physical violence does (Courtain & Glowacz, 2021).

A meta-analysis was undertaken by Archer (2000) to investigate gender disparities in the commission and consequences of physical violence in heterosexual relationships. The study revealed that women exhibited a little higher propensity for participating in physical violence against their partners and employed it with greater frequency compared to males. However, men were more likely to cause injury to their partners, with women being the primary victims of such injuries.

A study (Ureña, Romera, Casas, Viejo, & Ortega-Ruiz, 2015) with young couples involved testing 849 university students who were selected based on their involvement in or history of heterosexual romantic relationships within the past six months. It focused on behaviours like disrespect, verbal aggression, jealousy, humiliation, and control, which can damage communication and the love within relationships. The research suggests that such violence may be a precursor to more serious forms of violence in adulthood, including gender-based violence. This underscores the pressing need for educational initiatives and support systems aimed at cultivating healthy relationship dynamics and fostering respectful communication among young adults.

2.2.3 Psychological violence in the context of social media. The potential for abuse increases with the level of technology integration in intimate relationships. Cyber abuse and traditional psychological abuse are not the same, although having many similarities. Because of its characteristics, cyber partner abuse can be classified as a separate type of psychological abuse. Cyber partner abuse refers to the exploitation of technology, such as text messaging, social media, and other electronic applications, to inflict psychological harm on one's relationship (Zweig et al., 2013).

Evidence from recent studies has revealed a notable association between cyber dating abuse and both the commission and experience of psychological abuse (Bennet et al. 2011; Reed et al. 2016). While cyber partner abuse and psychological abuse share many similarities, the specific setting (whether online or face-to-face) determines how they are carried out and tolerated.

Some parts of cyber partner abuse, such as deceit and sexual harassment, are distinct and can stand on their own. A scenario depicts a concerning interaction between Molly and her boyfriend, Tom, on Facebook. Tom displays controlling behaviour by questioning Molly's interactions with others, (her guy friend commenting on her post and her response) demanding her password and dictating what she should post or wear. Molly, feeling pressured, complies with his demands and apologizes, but Tom continues to manipulate her by ignoring her messages while remaining online. This situation illustrates several forms of psychological abuse, including monitoring, verbal abuse, control, and isolation, within the context of social media (Stephenson et al., 2018).

Research shows that jealousy and suspicion are commonly observed in psychologically abusive relationships, as highlighted by Follingstad (2011). These emotions are particularly relevant in the context of cyber partner abuse, where social media platforms play a significant role. Muise et al. (2009) discovered that heightened Facebook usage is linked to increased levels of jealousy, independent of individual and relationship characteristics. This jealousy stems from interpretations of Facebook content, such as interactions with past romantic partners, which trigger feelings of suspicion and jealousy (Muise et al., 2009). Furthermore, Facebook jealousy has been found to have a positive correlation with both psychological and physical aggression offline, as indicated by Brem et al. (2015). Ambiguous interactions on social media, such as photos, tags, comments, and conversations, can be perceived as potential

threats to the relationship. Individuals may respond to these perceived threats by engaging in behaviours such as uploading pictures showcasing the couple, confronting individuals who have interacted with their partner, or monitoring their partner's online activities. These actions are considered mate retention tactics and have been associated with psychological abuse, according to research by Buss et al. (2008).

When engaging in social media or electronic communication, individuals often exhibit behaviours that are more frequent or intense compared to their offline interactions. This phenomenon, known as the online disinhibition effect, was identified by (Suler, 2004). Perpetrators of psychological abuse may exploit this effect, using intimidation tactics online that they might hesitate to use in person. These threats can range from threatening to end the relationship to threatening physical harm or even death (Follingstad et al., 2005). Offenders may use social media platforms as a means of publicly disparaging or shaming their partners, threatening to post improper or embarrassing content, or threatening to humiliate them. (Draucker and Martsolf, 2010; Leisring and Giumetti, 2014). Victims who opt not to react to verbal abuse or continuous surveillance may be compelled to respond by the use of threats of injury (Draucker and Martsolf, 2010). In various domains, the media exerts personal and collective influences on individuals. These influences span from shaping shopping habits (Uysal, 2011), to incorporating character names and behaviours into one's own life (Yegin, 2020), to altering beliefs and perceptions (Austin & Meili, 1994; Wilson & Ertan, 2020), and to representing and influencing societal views on gender roles through media messages (Abdukaya, 2020; Sarioğlu & Özgen, 2019). Negative emotions and behaviours experienced in relationships, such as aggression and jealousy, also manifest in the digital realm and technological devices (Deans & Bhogal, 2019). Moreover, youth are observed to engage in instances of psychological violence in their dating relationships through technological means or exhibit directly harmful behaviors towards individuals in online spaces (Toplu-Demirtaş, Akcabozan-Kayabol, Araci-Iyiaydin, & Fincham, 2022).

2.2.4 Cultural differences. College students represent a vulnerable group concerning dating violence (DV) due to the social dynamics inherent in their living and interacting environment. Being immersed in a campus setting where they reside, study, and socialize alongside their peers exposes them to influential factors (Duval, Lanning, & Patterson, 2020). Research indicates that college students are inclined to adopt both constructive and detrimental behaviours exhibited by their peers, such as binge drinking (Lorant & Nicaise, 2014) or adopting healthy eating habits (Deliens, Clarys, De Bourdeaudhuij, & Deforche, 2014). Students enrolled in nonsecular schools may hold different views on dating violence (DV) compared to those attending secular institutions. Faith identification plays a crucial role in shaping cultural norms and values, which in turn affect political, cultural, and social attitudes (Barnett, Sligar, & Wang, 2016). Research suggests that a person's religious upbringing could negatively impact their understanding of dating violence victimisation and perpetration, since some religion doctrines may support rape myths and patriarchal beliefs (Barnett et al., 2016). Therefore, it is crucial to understand the reasons why a risk factor for dating violence may be relevant to one group of college students but not to another (Duval, Lanning, & Patterson, 2020).

2.2.4.1 Violence against women in Turkey. Gender-based violence in Turkey has long been prevalent, but in recent years, it has re-emerged with alarming intensity, marked by significant increases in homicide rates, incidents of rape and stalking. The United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women defines violence against women as any unlawful action based on gender-based discrimination that causes physical, sexual, or psychological injury or distress to women. These encompass threats of such actions, coercion, or capricious deprivation of liberty, irrespective of whether it takes place in public or private domains. The proclamation acknowledges that violence against women is a result of historical imbalances in power relations between men and women, which continues to perpetuate prejudice and oppression targeted at women. It acknowledges that such violence serves as a significant mechanism for maintaining women's subordinate status compared to men (UN, 1993).

When considering previous methodologies, as endorsed by the UN's Human Development Report (1999), one of the most straightforward methods for assessing a

nation's quality of life is by examining its per capita national income. Nonetheless, a significant drawback of this method is its failure to account for the inequity in wealth and income distribution within the country. Therefore, addressing this issue entails evaluating how equitably the state distributes these resources among women. It is imperative to delve into the specifics of how achieving this equality will address various life challenges faced by women, including life expectancy, infant mortality, access to healthcare, employment opportunities, property rights, and political liberties.

It is concerning that several studies conducted in Turkey have revealed the existence of beliefs among women that certain behaviours warrant violence. For instance, the Turkey Demographic and Health Survey of 2003, conducted by the Hacettepe University Population Studies Institute, found that approximately 26.8% of women in the Istanbul region believed that being beaten by their husbands was acceptable in situations such as burning food, arguing with their husbands, overspending, neglecting childcare, or refusing sexual intercourse. Another study in Izmir, conducted by Yanikkerem and Saruhan (2005), surveyed 345 women, with 8% of respondents admitting they felt they "deserved violence" in certain circumstances is notable. (Kayar, 2003). These findings underscore the prevalence of societal attitudes that justify violence and normalize it. Moreover, the exposure of children to violence within the family environment contributes to a cycle wherein today's parents, who may have been subjected to violence themselves, are more inclined to perpetrate violence and propagate acceptance of it to future generations.

In familial settings, when a husband raises his voice, uses offensive language, humiliates, or verbally abuses his wife for different reasons, it constitutes psychological violence (Sümer, 1998). Such behaviour involves limiting the woman's autonomy in making decisions and controlling her movements concerning her personal life, along with other forms of intimidation. Research on violence in Turkey is constrained due to challenges in data collection, yet there has been a notable increase in studies addressing this issue in recent years. In women's professional lives, the need to balance career and family responsibilities, particularly after marriage, often leads to challenges in managing both roles effectively. This struggle can ultimately steer women away from pursuing their careers, pushing them into roles that rely heavily on their husbands and prioritize family duties. For instance, research among female academics has shown a decline in their numbers at higher career stages post-marriage, reflecting this phenomenon (Hablemitoğlu et al., 2004). Despite limitations in

reporting and defining workplace harassment, studies in Turkey have shed light on its prevalence. For example, a study among healthcare workers in 1999 revealed a 16% rate of physical assaults, a 67.6% rate of verbal harassment, and a 48.6% rate of verbal threats (Ölmezoğlu et al., 1999). Another study among healthcare professionals found a violence rate of 50.8% (Ayrancı et al., 2002). Similarly, in a study involving public and private sector employees, 49% of women and 30% of men reported experiencing sexual harassment, with a higher rate of women reporting incidents to authorities compared to men (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2004). Moreover, in research conducted in 2001, involving discussions and surveys with 154 pregnant women about their experiences of violence during pregnancy, it was discovered that 110 of these women had encountered violence while pregnant (Ayrancı, Günay, & Ünlüoğlu, 2002). The findings of the study are quite alarming. For instance, 36.4% of these women reported facing physical violence, such as slapping, kicking, or being struck with objects. Additionally, 5.4% reported experiencing sexual violence, including coercion into sexual acts or ridicule regarding their sexuality. Furthermore, 97.3% mentioned instances of psychological or verbal abuse, such as yelling, demeaning behaviour, lies, or manipulation of trust. Lastly, 26.4% reported threats and intimidation, including physical threats or the use of objects like sticks or weapons.

In a study involving 162 women regarding domestic violence, it was found that 59.7% experienced physical violence, 47.4% experienced verbal abuse, and 21.4% experienced emotional abuse. The research also noted that 91% of this violence was perpetrated by spouses (Güler et al., 2005). Another study conducted on 977 university students revealed that 6.2% of female students and 7.9% of male students reported recent experiences of physical violence. Female students experienced physical violence from various sources, including fathers, brothers, friends, teachers, or strangers. Emotional violence exposure was reported at 23.7% among female students and 20.5% among male students, with the majority stemming from family members (Yiğitalp et al., 2007).

In 2007, data obtained from the Ministry of Interior's General Directorate of Security revealed that there were 17,064 reported cases of "ill-treatment of family members" across Turkey. Among these cases, 6,788 victims were women and 1,498 were men. Most female victims, constituting 95%, were aged 19 and above, while 5% were 18 years old or younger. For male victims, 83% were aged 19 and above, with

17% being 18 years old or younger. The data highlighted that women aged 19 and above were the most affected group among the reported cases (Çakır et al., 2016).

The study, which included 26,009 secondary school students, revealed that 22% of adolescents encountered physical violence, 53% encountered verbal violence, 36.3% encountered emotional violence, and 15.8% encountered sexual violence. The rates of perpetration were as follows: 35.5% engaged in physical violence, 48.7% engaged in verbal violence, 27.6% engaged in emotional violence, and 11.7% engaged in sexual violence (TBMM Research Commission, 2007). In a nationwide survey on violence against women in Turkey, it was found that 44% of women were subjected to psychological violence by their spouses/partners, with the most common violent behaviour being insults and swearing at 37%, followed by intimidation/threats and humiliation/degradation at 21% and 20% respectively, and it was determined that experiencing at least one of the specified forms of violence in the last 12 months occurred at a rate of 26% (Directorate General on the Status of Women, 2015).

2.2.5 Psychological violence scales developed in Turkey. The objective of the study undertaken by Işık et al. (2009) was to develop two separate evaluation instruments. The Attitudes towards Honour Scale (AHS) assesses attitudes specifically towards women's concept of honour. The second scale, known as the Attitudes towards Violence against Women for Protecting Honour Scale (AVWPHS), evaluates attitudes about the violence experienced by women in Turkey while defending their moral integrity.

The scale (AHS) consists of 14 items. Participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with each item on a 6-point Likert scale. In this scale, 1 means "strongly disagree" and 6 means "strongly agree." There is no midpoint on the scale. The reliability of the AHS was examined using the Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient and was found to be .94. According to Kline (2000), a reliability coefficient should be above .70, indicating that the AHS possesses an excellent level of internal consistency.

The scale (AVWPHS) consists of 14 items. Participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with each item on a 6-point Likert scale. Higher scores on the scale reflect a positive attitude toward violence against women in the name of honour. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated to examine

the reliability of the AVWPHS was found to be .91. According to George and Mallery (2003), a reliability coefficient above .90 is considered excellent, indicating that the AVWPHS has an outstanding level of internal consistency.

Constructed by Zeyneloğlu et al. (2011), the Gender Roles Attitude Scale comprises 38 items and five dimensions: egalitarian gender role, female gender role, gender role in marriage, traditional gender role, and male gender role. Quantitative analysis revealed statistically significant variations among all the items in the scale ($p < 0.01$). The scale's total Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was determined to be 0.92. The results suggest that the scale is a trustworthy and viable instrument for quantitatively assessing the views of university students towards gender roles. The questionnaire designed to evaluate the opinions of university students about gender roles using a 5-point Likert scale. Greater scores imply a greater inclination towards egalitarian views on gender roles, whilst lower scores reflect a greater influence of traditional views.

The examination of the subscales for internal consistency indicated that the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the 'female gender roles' subscale was 0.80. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the subscales of 'marriage gender roles' and 'conventional gender roles' was 0.78. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the 'male gender roles' subscale was 0.72. According to these results, the internal consistency among the items of the scale is substantial, so establishing the scale's high reliability.

The Romantic Relationship Assessment Inventory (RRAI) was created by Kılınçer et al. (2013) with the purpose of quantifying the perceived instances of mistreatment in romantic relationships among university students. The reliability coefficient of the RRAI, estimated using Cronbach's Alpha, was found to be 0.97. This finding suggests that the scale has a strong internal consistency, thereby indicating a high level of reliability. The RRAI, with a five-point Likert-type response system, has been determined to be a reliable and valid instrument for assessing the experience of abuse in romantic relationships among university students. A unidimensional instrument, the RRAI comprises 70 items, none of which are reverse scored. Scores on the scale range from a minimum of 70 to a maximum of 350. Greater scores correspond to a greater degree of abuse encountered in the romantic relationship.

2.2.5.1 Scales adapted to Turkish. Developed by Sackett and Saunders (1999), the Profile of Psychological Abuse (PPA) was subsequently translated into Turkish by Boyacıoğlu et al. (2020). The PIP dataset comprises 21 questions and 4 subscales, which are measured using a 7-point Likert scale. In the initial study, the internal consistency Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the subscales varied between .75 and .85, whereas the subscales of the Turkish version had Cronbach Alpha values ranging from .81 to .92. To assess the construct validity of the scale, the original study investigated its link with psychological factors including depression, self-esteem, and terror. All subscales of the scale exhibited a statistically significant correlation with fear, with values ranging from .47 to .66. Significant correlations were observed between self-esteem (ranging from -.31 to -.22) and depression (range from .22 to .23) with the neglect and ridicule subscales. Greater scores on the scale correspond to greater degrees of abuse.

Şahin et al. (2010) evaluated the Attitudes Towards Violence Scale (ATVS), which was created by Funk, Elliott, Urman, Flores, and Mock in 1999, among Turkish adolescents. The original scale consists of 15 items that are evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale. Its purpose is to measure the attitudes of adolescents towards violence. Among the components of the ATVS are two subscales: "reactive violence" and "culture of violence." Positive and statistically significant standardised component loadings, ranging from .27 to .80, provide as evidence supporting the construct validity.

The reliability of the scale was evaluated by examining the internal consistency of 13 of the items. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient obtained was .78. With a sample of 1266 adolescents, Funk et al. (1999) confirmed the validity of the scale. Applying varimax rotation in principal component analysis revealed two distinct factors: the first factor consisted of the first seven items, while the second factor comprised the last eight items. The seventh item was found to be loaded on both factors. The reliability coefficients for the two variables, referred to as "culture of violence" and "reactive violence," were .75 and .80, respectively.

2.3 Gender Roles

Gender roles are societal expectations regarding the attitudes and behaviours associated with each gender, considering their biological differences. Wienclaw (2011a) suggests that the formation of these roles is influenced by biology, culture, and

societal norms. These roles include the societal expectations attached to individuals according to their gender and the cultural norms and views about gender in each society. The construction of gender roles is influenced by the dynamics between individuals and their surroundings, and they are established according to the societal standards of gender distinctions (Blackstone, 2003).

Expectations related to gender roles encompass a wide range of attributes, from personal traits to societal status. Adherence to these expectations influences an individual's acceptance and approval within their social circles (Martin, 1990). A study conducted in Turkey on gender role expectations revealed that tasks like household chores and childcare are commonly associated with femininity, while responsibilities such as family leadership, administrative tasks, and repairs are seen as masculine. Moreover, professions are often categorized as suitable for either men or women. Participants also categorized physical attributes like hairstyle and clothing, along with personality traits such as loyalty and compassion, as feminine, whereas traits like authority, conformity, and assertiveness were considered masculine (Vatandaş, 2007).

Gender stereotypes refer to cultural expectations dictating what traits should be associated with one gender and not the other (Wienclaw, 2011b). These stereotypes are typically oversimplified and rely on broad, exaggerated perceptions of men and women rather than considering individual characteristics or abilities (Blackstone, 2003; Wienclaw, 2011b).

Gender is one of the most easily recognizable human characteristics, making it a common basis for classification regardless of age. This ease of classification simplifies the process of making gender-related attributions. Despite some flexibility in assessing women and men today, the basic binary classification still makes it convenient to establish and reinforce gender stereotypes. While these stereotypes can expedite perception and response processes, they often lead to unrealistic expectations and perpetuate gender inequalities (Ellemers, 2018). Gender stereotypes involve assigning certain traits and behaviours to specific genders, which can lead to situations where discrimination occurs between genders. This process begins even before a child is born, with decisions being made about gender-specific clothing, toys, and activities. As children grow, boys are often encouraged to be more assertive and independent, while girls are typically taught to be more compliant. These ingrained beliefs influence various aspects of life, from career choices to experiences in relationships, and can have long-lasting effects throughout an individual's life (Saraç, 2013).

2.3.1 Gender inequality. Gender inequality within societies encompasses situations where individuals face discrimination based on their gender across various domains, including education, social interactions, cultural norms, and economic opportunities (Jacobs, 1996; Ponthieux & Meurs, 2015; Lorber, 2001). This discrimination impacts both men and women, affecting their access to healthcare resources, economic prospects, and employment opportunities (Carpenter, 2017; WHO, 2006).

Violence represents a significant challenge associated with gender disparities. Gender-based violence is a term used to describe violence that occurs because of societal gender roles and statuses (Russo & Pirlott, 2006). It is a prevalent form of violence globally, particularly highlighting the diverse forms and reasons behind violence experienced by women (Stark & Ager, 2011). Gender-based violence and intimate partner violence against women encompass various dimensions, including physical, psychological, and economic aspects, such as honor killings, marital rape, undernourishment of girls, forced prostitution, female genital mutilation, and sexual abuse of girls (Heise, Ellsberg, & Gottmoeller, 2002).

Studies have shown that young individuals often witness gender-based violence within their families, observe it among peer groups, or directly experience such violence (Johnson et al., 2005). Gender-based violence manifests in both known and stranger-originated physical and sexual violence acts, with intimate partner violence being a primary component (Stark & Ager, 2011).

2.4.1 Attachment. Bowlby's attachment theory, developed in the late 1960s and further elaborated in subsequent years, explains how individuals form relationships throughout their lives based on their perception of themselves and others, starting from infancy. Attachment, formed through early experiences, continues to influence individuals' behaviours and perceptions throughout their lives. According to Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980), attachment begins with the bonds formed with the primary caregiver, typically the mother, from the first year of life. This attachment is facilitated through behaviours such as crying, smiling, and seeking physical contact. When separated from the attached figure, infants may exhibit protest, despair, or detachment. Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) conducted experiments that identified three

attachment styles: secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant. Securely attached infants seek comfort from the caregiver, easily calm down upon reunion, and resume normal activities. Anxious/ambivalent infants display intense distress upon separation, reluctance to interact with strangers, and difficulty calming down upon reunion. Avoidant infants show little distress upon separation, may prefer interaction with strangers, and avoid contact with the caregiver upon reunion. These attachment styles have implications for individuals' emotional development and relationships throughout life.

Bowlby (1973) posits that after interacting with the primary attachment figure, infants develop mental representations of themselves and others. These internal working models form fixed and immutable rules governing attachment styles that persist throughout life. The presence of a responsive attachment figure during moments of danger determines the infant's sense of security and influences their evaluations. Consequently, a child may perceive themselves as unworthy of love if they feel neglected, whereas feeling loved and valued by parents may lead them to believe they are deserving of affection from others (Bowlby, 1973).

Klein (1946) proposes in her object relations theory that the mental representations individuals form about themselves and others in relation to their early relationship with the mother shape their attachment styles with others throughout life. Klein divides the development of object relations into two periods: the paranoid and depressive positions. In the paranoid position, the infant projects negative attributes onto an external object/mother, whereas in the depressive position, the infant realizes that the mother can possess both good and bad qualities simultaneously. This shift results in feelings of guilt between the infant's conflicting feelings of love and aggression towards the mother (Klein, 1946).

Shaver and Mikulincer (2002) assert that attachment serves as a system activated when an individual perceives internal or external threats. This system first helps perceive and evaluate threatening situations, then assesses the availability and likelihood of response from a supportive attachment figure. Finally, it facilitates the individual's ability to express and regulate their emotions, influencing their seeking of closeness or distance in response to attachment-related insecurity. The organization of attachment into secure, insecure, or avoidant structures influences the coping strategies individuals employ when feeling threatened (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002).

Fraley (2002) evaluated the continuity of attachment through two models derived from the literature. The first perspective, known as the prototype perspective, argues that attachment styles formed in infancy are maintained throughout life and influence future relationships. According to this view, early attachment schemas emerge in every new interaction an individual engages in, and in adult relationships, individuals exhibit behaviours consistent with their childhood attachment patterns. The second perspective, termed the revisionist perspective, suggests that established attachment schemas can be reshaped, influenced, and altered by new interactions. According to the revisionist view, attachment styles can change based on new experiences, and individuals may exhibit attachment behaviours like or different from their childhood patterns. In this view, rather than changing attachment styles when encountering different experiences, individuals may exhibit behaviour patterns of different attachment styles depending on the context of their relationships (Fraley, 2019).

2.4.1.1 Adult attachment styles and psychological violence. The foundation of an individual's relational blueprint, known as the Internal Dynamic Model (IDM), is laid through early interactions with their primary caregiver, typically the mother or father. These interactions shape cognitive orientations regarding how to behave in relationships and form expectations about others' behaviour (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1994; Holland, Fraley, & Roisman, 2012). This developmental process influences later relationships, including those marked by dating violence (Lee, Reese-Weber, & Kahn, 2014). Numerous studies have established a connection between insecure attachment styles and intimate partner violence (IPV), indicating that exposure to IPV can disrupt the quality of attachment styles, particularly in women (Yuspendi et al., 2018).

Insecure attachment styles, including avoidant and anxious dimensions, have been found to be associated with intimate partner violence (IPV), indicating a positive correlation between these types and violent conduct (Belanger et al., 2015). Individuals with secure attachment, on the other hand, tend to cultivate connections of superior quality, stability, and longevity. Furthermore, they utilise efficient conflict resolution techniques, which decreases the probability of engaging in dating violence in comparison to individuals with anxious or dependence attachment styles (Creasey & Hesson-McInnis, 2001; Fraley & Waller, 1998).

Research suggests that adult attachment patterns can serve as a predictor for an act of dating violence, with attachment anxiety showing a positive correlation with the

perpetration of physical violence. Nevertheless, the influence of attachment dependent on the prediction of violent behaviour may vary between genders. Several research indicate that it is less important for women but more relevant for men (Babcock et al., 2008; Lawson & Malnar, 2011). Patterns of insecure attachment, specifically attachment anxiety, have been consistently linked to intimate partner violence (IPV) and exacerbate the challenges that abused women encounter when attempting to exit abusive relationships. This often amplifies the typical fear of being separated and experiencing loss (Shurman & Rodriguez, 2006; Bartholomew & Allison, 2006; Levendosky, Lannert, & Yalch, 2012). Furthermore, there is a correlation between insecure attachment styles and the use of negative communication tactics in resolving conflicts within romantic relationships (Bonache et al., 2019; Fowler & Dillow, 2011; Sierau & Herzberg, 2012). Specific communication patterns have been found to be associated with different types of intimate partner violence (IPV) (Katz & Myhr, 2008; Salwen & O'Leary, 2013). Scholarly investigations have mostly concentrated on the correlation between attachment styles and the act of intimate partner violence (IPV). These studies have found that insecure attachment is a notable risk factor for abusive conduct towards intimate partners in both males and females (Bélanger et al., 2015; Dutton, 2011).

Research indicates that women with avoidant or anxious attachment styles are more susceptible to sexual victimization than those with secure attachments (Gentzler & Kerns, 2004). Securely attached individuals, characterized by low levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance, typically exhibit independence and comfort with intimacy. In contrast, insecurely attached individuals often struggle with negative thoughts and feelings about themselves and others (Bonache et al., 2019; Sierau & Herzberg, 2012).

Individuals with high anxious attachment have a strong desire for connection and a strong fear of rejection, whereas those with high avoidance tend to be emotionally distant and self-oriented. Frequently, these maladaptive ideas and actions result in the use of harmful methods to resolve conflicts within relationships (Fowler & Dillow, 2011; Sierau & Herzberg, 2012). Secure attachment is correlated with effective conflict resolution strategies (Creasey & Ladd, 2005), while anxious attachment is linked to withdrawal behaviours, such as avoiding conversations and ignoring the partner, as well as confrontational behaviours, such as personal verbal abuse and losing control (Collins et al., 2006; Sierau & Herzberg, 2012).

Individuals with anxious attachment tendencies exhibit a fluctuation between retreat and active involvement marked by intrusive behaviours and criticism. Their fear of rejection and their need for closeness, support, and affection are the driving forces behind this oscillation (Fowler & Dillow, 2011). Individuals who prefer conflict involvement tend to have a negative perception of their relationships and evaluate their partner's behaviours with greater scrutiny, particularly when they have high levels of attachment anxiety (Honeycutt et al., 2015; Collins et al., 2006). Such perception can cause individuals to interpret their partner's actions as either hostile or withdrawn (Bonache et al., 2019; Collins et al., 2006; Gallo & Smith, 2001), and increased levels of attachment anxiety have been associated with the intensification of conflicts (Campbell et al., 2005). Therefore, anxious attachment is linked to a range of harmful conflict tactics.

Chapter 3

Method

3.1 Research Design

This study is a quantitative, cross-sectional research with a between-subjects design, focusing on the adaptation and validation of scales.

3.2 Participants

In this study, the total number of participants involved was 308. The population included high school, undergraduate, graduate, and doctorate students, as well as the general population who have graduated, in Istanbul and North Cyprus. The sample comprised young adults aged 15 to 30, consisting of students and the general population in Istanbul and Nicosia.

Convenience sampling was used. Participants were reached online via Google Forms, and the study was shared among WhatsApp groups and on Instagram. To ensure confidentiality, participants' names were not collected.

3.3 Data Collection

3.3.1 Data collection instruments. The study utilized several tools: a demographic information form to gather participants' demographic characteristics, the Gender Violence Perception Scale (VGP) to assess adaptation to Turkish culture and perceptions of gender violence among young couples, and the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği) to evaluate psychological dating aggression and victimization. Additionally, the study aimed to examine the correlation between the Turkish version of the VGP Scale and the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse. The participants completed each of these surveys online within their respective time frames.

3.3.1.1 Demographic information form. A Demographic Information Form was used to collect demographic information about the participants, including their

relationship status, age range, gender, education level, how long they have been single (if applicable), the duration of their current relationship, the number of hours they use social media, and whether they live with their partner or spouse. The form was created by the researcher.

3.3.1.2 Gender Violence Perception Scale (VGP). VGP was developed by Álvarez (2014) to measure perceptions and attitudes towards gender-based violence. This scale typically assesses how individuals perceive various forms of gender violence, including physical, psychological, and sexual abuse. The VGP Scale evaluates factors such as the recognition of abusive behaviors, the perceived severity of different types of abuse, and the cultural and societal attitudes that may influence these perceptions. The VGP Scale includes two subscales: Hostile Domination and Controlling-Possessive Domination. The Hostile Domination subscale includes items 12-22 and assesses perceptions of overtly aggressive and hostile behaviors, such as verbal threats, intimidation, and actions intended to assert control through fear and aggression. The Controlling-Possessive Domination subscale includes items 1-11 and evaluates behaviors that are possessive and controlling, including excessive jealousy, monitoring a partner's activities, isolating them from friends and family, and other actions aimed at restricting their autonomy and independence. These subscales provide a nuanced understanding of the different forms of domination and control in relationships. The short version of the scale consists of 22 items. The VGP Scale uses a 7-point Likert scale, where responses range from 0, indicating "not violence," to 6, indicating "it is violence."

Participants rate each item based on their perception of how much the described behavior constitutes violence. Higher scores indicate a stronger perception that the behavior is considered violent. The score for each dimension, can be calculated by adding the scores of the items. The reliability of the VGP Scale, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was found to be 0.965 for the entire scale. For Dimension 1, the Cronbach's alpha was 0.940, and for Dimension 2, it was 0.951. The VGP Scale, designed to evaluate the recognition of gender violence in dating couples, has demonstrated strong reliability. It is supported by three types of validity: content validity, internal structure validity, and validity through its relationships with other variables. The construct indicators were developed based on theoretical frameworks

and qualitative analyses of how young couples experience gender violence, ensuring the instrument's relevance and accuracy.

3.3.1.3 Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA). The MMEA, developed by Murphy and Hoover in 1999, is a self-report instrument consisting of 56 variables. These questions are evenly distributed between victimisation and perpetration, with 28 items for each category. This assessment is specifically developed to evaluate psychological aggression within romantic relationships. Four subscales, each consisting of seven items, comprise the victimisation and perpetration sections: Restrictive Engulfment (RE), Denigration (DEN), Hostile Withdrawal (HW), and Dominance/Intimidation (D/I). This scale was selected as a criterion because it includes items like “Checked up on the other person by asking friends or relatives where they were or who they were with”, which align with items on the VGP scale, such as “Wants to know everything she does, where she is, and who she’s with when she’s not with him.”

Restrictive Engulfment (RE) refers to actions that are intended to restrict and control a partner's activities and social interactions by means of jealousy and possessiveness, so intensifying their dependence (e.g., "covertly rummaging through the other person's possessions"). Denigration (DEN) refers to deliberate acts and verbal insults aimed at humiliating and degrading a partner, therefore diminishing their self-esteem and self-worth (e.g., "referring to the other person as a loser, failure, or a similar term" and "suggesting that someone else would be a more suitable partner"). Hostile Withdrawal (HW) refers to behaviours that are intended to avoid the partner during conflicts and withdraw emotional support, therefore exacerbating anxiety or sense of insecurity in the relationship (e.g., "refused to engage in any conversation about a problem"). Dominance/Intimidation (D/I) refers to actions and verbal attacks performed with the purpose of damaging property and using intense verbal aggression to induce fear and submission in the partner. Examples of D/I include becoming sufficiently angry to frighten the other person and throwing, smashing, hitting, or kicking something in front of the other person (Murphy & Hoover, 1999). The MMEA items were evaluated using a 7-point frequency scale that extended over the previous six months (never, once, twice, 3–5 times, 6–10 times, 11–20 times, and more than 20 times). An extra choice was provided to indicate that the behaviour had taken place

before, but not within the last six months. Subscale scores were determined by summing the response values for each item. An overall score, obtained by summing the four subscales, ranges from 0 to 168. Moderate to high positive correlations between the subscales were observed. Concurrent validity analysis revealed substantial associations between the subscales and variables including physical assault, insecure attachment, and interpersonal difficulties. In addition, the subscales exhibited strong internal consistency, as evidenced by Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .84 and .85 for RE, .88 and .91 for HW, .89 and .92 for DEN, and .83 and .91 for D/I for victimisation and perpetration, respectively.

In the current study, the Turkish version of MMEA (Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği (ÇBDİÖ)) was used. The Turkish version of the questionnaire was developed by Demirtaş, Sümer and Murphy (2018). Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) was calculated for each subscale of the MMEA-TR to assess internal consistency for both perpetration and victimization. For perpetration, the α values were .74 for RE, .68 for DEN, .83 for HW, and .72 for D/I. For victimization, the α values were .73 for RE, .70 for DEN, .86 for HW, and .77 for D/I. The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the perpetration and victimization dimensions of the MMEA-TR were .89 and .90, respectively.

3.3.1.4 Translation and Adaptation of the VGP Scale. The present work employed a forward translation–back translation approach to construct a Turkish adaptation of the scale that is both theoretically and linguistically precise. The forward translation was carried out by four competent English-speaking bilingual experts. These four translations were subsequently evaluated and merged into a unified forward translation. This consolidated edition was later translated into English by two separate academics, one with expertise in English language instruction and the other in psychology. Upon comparison of the back-translated items with the original items, no disparities were detected in terms of meaning or language. Two educators from the Department of Turkish Language evaluated the Turkish version to guarantee grammatical accuracy, fluency, and comprehensibility. The input received suggested that only minor modifications were required.

3.3.2 Data collection procedures. Before data collection, a pilot study was conducted to identify any typos, missing information, or unclear sections. The study received approval from the Bahçeşehir University Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee. Following ethical approval, data collection commenced. The data was gathered using convenience sampling, with participants reached online via Google Forms. The study was disseminated through WhatsApp groups and Instagram. Participation in the study took approximately 15 minutes. The first page of the study featured the Informed Consent Form, which provided an overview of the study, including the researcher's identity, the study's purpose, participation criteria, the content of the scales used, the duration, the study's contributions to the literature, the rights of voluntary participants, confidentiality assurances, and the researcher's contact information. Participants were required to approve the Informed Consent Form to proceed with the study. Upon approval, participants completed the Demographic Information Form, the Gender Violence Perception Scale (VGP), and the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA). The data was collected between March and July 2024.

3.3.3 Data analysis procedures. After collecting the data, it was downloaded from Google Forms as an Excel file. The data was then imported into SPSS 29.0 for analysis. To prepare the data, demographic variables and scale items were named and coded according to their specific scoring systems. For scales with multiple subscales, these scores were analyzed to explore their relationships with other variables. Outliers were identified using extreme value detection and boxplot analysis, leading to the identification of 10 outliers. Before excluding these outliers, normality tests and other analyses were conducted to determine their impact. To ensure a normal distribution and meet analysis requirements, the 10 outliers were excluded. Normality tests were performed on the cumulative scores of the scales using Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, as well as skewness and kurtosis values. Results indicated that the data was not normally distributed. Reliability and validity scores for predictor and criterion variables were then assessed. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated for all scales and subscales to evaluate reliability. Descriptive statistics and frequency distributions of demographic variables were analyzed to understand the characteristics of the participants. Spearman Correlation Analyses were conducted to test hypotheses and explore associations between scales, subscales, and demographic variables. To

validate the structure of the VGP scale, factor analysis was conducted. To evaluate the sample adequacy for each variable, the KMO measure was employed. Additionally, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was performed to examine the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. A KMO score of 0.952 and a statistically significant Bartlett's Test ($p < 0.001$) suggested that the data was appropriate for doing factor analysis. After rotation, the factor loadings were analyzed, and items were assigned to factors based on their highest loading. The results showed that the VGP scale consisted of two factors, with items loading significantly on their respective factors. No items were excluded from the analysis due to their high factor loadings, indicating that all items contributed meaningfully to the identified factors. To examine the relationship between demographic variables and the dependent variable, 2 Independent Samples Tests and K Independent Samples Tests were performed. Finally, Simple and Multiple Linear Regression Analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses.

3.3.4 Reliability and validity. To measure the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency method, which is one of the reliability methods, was used to determine whether the items are consistent with each other and whether they measure a hypothetical variable (Çakmur, 2012). The reliability of the scale is calculated using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient when the item responses exceed two (Erkuş, 2014). As a result of the analysis, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the VGP was found to be .91. Considering that the recommended reliability level for psychological measurement tools used in research is .60 (Büyüköztürk, 2007), it can be said that the reliability level of the scale is sufficient. The reliability of the scales in this study was determined using internal consistency measures (see Table 1). In previous research, a Cronbach's alpha value greater than 0.6 has been considered acceptable (Daud et al., 2018; Griethuijsen et al., 2014).

The Cronbach's alpha for the overall Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale is 0.91. This high Cronbach's alpha value indicates excellent internal consistency for the overall VGP scale. This means that the items within the VGP scale are highly correlated and consistently measure the same underlying construct. The Cronbach's alpha for the Controlling-Possessive Domination subscale is 0.90. This also

demonstrates a high level of internal consistency. The Hostile Domination subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. This value reflects good internal consistency. All three scales exhibit high Cronbach's alpha values, suggesting that the items within each scale are consistently measuring the intended constructs.

Table 1

Internal Consistency Reliability of the VGP Scale and Subscales

Scale	Cronbach's α
VGP Total	.91
Controlling-Possessive	.90
Domination	
Hostile Domination	.86

3.4 Limitations

This study, while offering valuable insights, is not without its limitations. The use of a convenience sample may limit the generalizability of the findings, as participants may not fully represent the broader population, potentially introducing biases. The use of self-report measures, such as the VGP Scale and MMEA, can also add bias, as individuals may either underestimate or overestimate their experiences owing to social desirability, difficulties in recalling memories, or unclear interpretations of the questions. Although the VGP Scale was adapted to the Turkish context, some cultural nuances may still affect the interpretation of items, and certain cultural or societal factors influencing gender violence perceptions may not have been fully captured. The fact that participants from Turkey and North Cyprus were included in the study is one of its limitations. Although there are certain cultural connections between these geographical areas, the reliability of the scale may have been influenced by minor cultural variations. The potential impact of differences in the interpretation of specific items, societal norms, and attitudes towards gender roles and violence between North Cyprus and Turkey on participants' responses may have altered the internal consistency of the scale. The focus on young adults further limits the applicability of the findings to other age groups, as perceptions of gender violence may differ significantly among older adults. Moreover, without longitudinal data, it is

challenging to assess how perceptions of gender violence evolve over time or how relationship dynamics change as relationships progress. While gender differences were explored, the study may not fully account for the complexities of gender identity and expression beyond the binary understanding of gender, potentially limiting the scope of the findings regarding gender-based violence. Furthermore, the online data collection method may have excluded participants without regular internet access, introducing a bias in the sample. These limitations should be acknowledged to provide a balanced view of the study's strengths and the caution needed in interpreting the results.

In this adaptation study, several limitations must be acknowledged. The process of translating the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) Scale from its original language to Turkish may have led to subtle changes in meaning, as cultural differences could influence how certain concepts are understood and interpreted, potentially impacting the validity of the scale in the Turkish context. Ensuring that the adapted version measures the same constructs as the original is challenging, as there may be differences in how certain behaviors or attitudes are perceived across cultures, which can affect the reliability and validity of the scale. Linguistic nuances present another challenge, as some words or phrases may not have direct equivalents in Turkish, leading to the use of terms that might not fully capture the original meaning, causing respondents to interpret questions differently than intended.

While pilot testing is crucial for refining the adapted scale, the sample used in this phase may not be fully representative of the broader Turkish population, limiting the effectiveness of the adaptation process and the generalizability of the findings. Although back-translation is employed to ensure accuracy, it may not always capture the nuanced language and cultural differences, potentially leaving some discrepancies unresolved. Establishing measurement invariance across different groups within the Turkish population is also challenging, and without this, comparisons across groups may be problematic.

The sample used for the adaptation study may differ from the broader Turkish population in significant ways, such as socio-economic status, education, or geographic location, which can further limit the generalizability of the results. Additionally, given the limited existing literature on gender violence perceptions in

the Turkish context, it is challenging to determine whether the adapted scale accurately reflects the constructs being measured, making it harder to validate the scale's effectiveness and reliability. Furthermore, some items from the original scale may not be culturally relevant or appropriate in Turkey and North Cyprus, leading to modifications or removal of these items, although not the case in the current study, which could affect the scale's overall structure and the ability to compare results across different versions.



Chapter 4

Findings

This chapter covers the presentation of descriptive statistics, examination of correlations, analyses of group differences, factor analyses, and application of multiple linear regression techniques.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The sociodemographic distribution of the participants is presented below in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Participants According to Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variable		N	(%) P
Age	15-18	44	14.3
	19-25	169	54.9
	26-30	95	30.8
	Total	308	100
Gender	Male	85	27.6
	Female	223	72.4
	Total	308	100
Education	Secondary	82	26.6
	Undergraduate	173	56.2
	Postgraduate	53	17.2
	Total	308	100
Relationship status	Single	77	22.1
	In a relationship	167	54.2
	Married	64	20.8
	Total	308	100
Duration of being single	1-6 months	34	11.0
	7-12 months	50	16.2
	In a relationship	224	72.7
	Total	308	100
Duration of relationship	Less than 6 months	48	15.6
	6 months-12 months	52	16.9

Table 2 (continued)

	More than 1 year-Less than 2 years	44	14.3
	More than 2 years	99	32.1
	Single	65	21.1
	Total	308	100
Social media usage	Less than 4 hours	158	51.3
	More than 4 hours	150	48.7
	Total	308	100
Co-habitation status	Yes	88	28.6
	No	220	71.4
	Total	308	100

A total of 308 participants were included in the study. The age distribution of the participants indicates a predominantly young demographic, with the majority (54.9%) falling within the 19-25 age range. This is followed by participants aged 26-30 (30.8%), and a smaller portion aged 15-18 (14.3%). This distribution suggests that the sample primarily consists of young adults, which could be reflective of the target population for the study. There is a notable gender imbalance in the sample, with a significantly higher proportion of female participants (72.7%) compared to male participants (27.3%). The education levels of the participants are predominantly centred around university education (56.2%), with a smaller proportion having completed secondary education (26.6%) and postgraduate studies (17.2%). Many of the participants are in a relationship (54.2%), with fewer participants being single (25.0%) or married (20.8%). The duration of relationships among participants varies, with the majority having been in a relationship for more than 12 months (72.7%). This is followed by those in relationships lasting 7-12 months (16.2%) and 1-6 months (11.0%). The participants' social media usage is nearly evenly split, with slightly more participants using social media for less than 4 hours per day (51.3%) compared to those using it for more than 4 hours per day (48.7%). Most participants do not cohabit with their partners (71.4%), while a smaller proportion do (28.6%).

4.2 Correlation Analyses and Criterion-Related Validity

The Gender Violence Perception Scale (VGP) was administered simultaneously with the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA), a tool commonly used in the field to measure concepts related to psychological violence. The correlation coefficients between the two scales were calculated and analysed. The results obtained from this analysis are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Correlation Analyses Results Between VGP Scale and Subscales and MMEA

Scale and Subscales

		SUM_V GP	SUMV GP_CP D	SUMV GP_HD	SUM_ MMEA	SUM_ MMEA _PERP	SUM_ MMEA _VIC
SUM_VGP	Spearman Correlation	1.00					
	p						
	N	308					
SUMVGP_ CPD	Spearman Correlation	.97**	1.00				
	p	.00					
	N	308	308				
SUMVGP_ HD	Spearman Correlation	.81**	.67**	1.00			
	p	.00	.00				
	N	308	308	308			
SUM_MM EA	Spearman Correlation	-.04	.01	-.14*	1.00		
	p	.48	.81	.01			
	N	308	308	308	308		
SUM_MM EA_PERP	Spearman Correlation	-.40**	-.39**	-.31**	.32**	1.00	
	p	.00	.00	.00	.00		
	N	308	308	308	308	308	
SUM_MM EA_VIC	Spearman Correlation	-.37**	-.35**	-.28**	.34**	.91**	1.00
	p	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	N	308	308	308	308	308	308

Table 3 presents the correlation analysis results between the VGP scale scores and various criteria, specifically examining the relationships between the total VGP

score (SUM_VGP) and its subscales (SUMVGP_CPD and SUMVGP_HD), as well as other related measures (SUM_MMEA, SUM_MMEA_PERP, and SUM_MMEA_VIC).

The correlation between the total VGP score (SUM_VGP) and its subscales demonstrates strong internal consistency. Specifically, the correlation between SUM_VGP and SUMVGP_CPD is extremely high (Spearman's $\rho = .97$, $p < .01$), indicating a robust relationship between these two measures. This suggests that the constructs measured by the SUMVGP_CPD subscale are a significant component of the overall VGP score. Similarly, the correlation between SUM_VGP and SUMVGP_HD is very high (Spearman's $\rho = .81$, $p < .01$), further supporting the integral role of the SUMVGP_HD subscale within the VGP scale.

The correlation analysis also examines the relationship between the VGP scale scores and other external measures, namely the MMEA scales. The correlation between SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA is weak and not statistically significant (Spearman's $\rho = -.04$, $p = .479$), indicating little to no relationship between these measures. However, a moderate negative correlation exists between SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA_PERP (Spearman's $\rho = -.40$, $p < .01$), suggesting that higher VGP scores are associated with lower scores on the MMEA_PERP subscale. This indicates an inverse relationship between the overall VGP score and the MMEA_PERP measure. A similar moderate negative correlation is observed between SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA_VIC (Spearman's $\rho = -.37$, $p < .01$), further indicating an inverse relationship between these constructs.

In summary, the correlation analysis highlights the strong internal consistency of the VGP scale, as evidenced by the high correlations between the total VGP score and its subscales. Additionally, the moderate negative correlations with specific MMEA subscales (MMEA_PERP and MMEA_VIC) suggest that higher VGP scores are associated with lower levels of certain problematic behaviours measured by these external measures. These findings support the validity of the VGP scale in measuring the intended constructs and demonstrate its potential utility in understanding related behaviours and attitudes within the Turkish context.

4.3 Normality Test Results for Study Variables

Table 4 presents the results of the normality tests conducted to determine whether the data distribution for the variables meets the assumption of normality.

Table 4

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
SUM_VGP	.22	308	.00	.75	308	.00**

**($p < 0.01$)

Both tests yield a significance value (p-value) of 0.000, which is below the commonly used threshold of 0.05. This indicates that the null hypothesis, which assumes that the data is normally distributed, can be rejected. Consequently, the data for the SUM_VGP variable does not follow a normal distribution.

4.4 Assessment of Sampling Adequacy and Factorability

Table 5 presents the outcomes of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, criteria employed to evaluate the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis.

Table 5

KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.95
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9184.17
	df	231
	p	.00

The KMO value is 0.95, which is well above the threshold of 0.7. A KMO value between 0.8 and 1 indicates that the sample is adequate for factor analysis. To

determine whether the data is suitable for factor analysis, it is stated that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient should be greater than .60 and that the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, which shows whether the relationships in the correlation matrix are significant, should yield significant results (Büyüköztürk, 2010). In this case, a KMO value of 0.95 suggests that the correlation matrix is suitable for factor analysis and the sampling is excellent. The p-value is less than 0.05, indicating that the correlations between items are significantly different from zero and that factor analysis is appropriate. This test rejects the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix.

The factors and eigenvalues obtained because of the factor analysis are presented in Table 6.

4.5 Factor Analysis

Table 6 presents the results of the exploratory factor analysis conducted to identify the underlying structure of the data.

Table 6

VGP Factor Analysis (Rotated Principal Component Analysis) Results

	Extraction	Factor-1 Loading Value	Factor-2 Loading Value
Item21	.90	.92	.21
Item17	.89	.92	.20
Item12	.89	.92	.20
Item13	.89	.92	.22
Item14	.87	.92	.17
Item15	.86	.91	.21
Item18	.85	.90	.20
Item16	.82	.87	.27
Item19	.78	.86	.20
Item22	.83	.84	.35
Item6	.72	.80	.28
Item5	.68	.78	.27
Item7	.68	.75	.33
Item8	.71	.74	.40
Item20	.76	.73	.47
Item9	.63	.63	.48
Item10	.72	.61	.60
Item4	.61	.59	.51
Item3	.77	-.04	.88

Table 6 (continued)

Item11	.74	.26	.82
Item1	.71	.31	.78
Item2	.76	.53	.69
Cumulative %			
Total: %77.50			
Factor-1: %56.93			
Factor-2: %20.57			

The two factors, which explain 77.50% of the total variance, were subjected to axis rotation to ensure "independence, clarity in interpretation, and significance." After the rotation of the axes, the loading of items on one factor increased while their loadings on other factors decreased, making it easier to identify the items associated with each factor and allowing for a more straightforward interpretation of the factors. The varimax method, one of the commonly used orthogonal rotation methods in social sciences, was applied (Büyüköztürk, 2007).

After orthogonal rotation, the values in the factor loadings matrix represent the correlations between the factors and the items within that factor. The researcher interprets loading values greater than 0.32. Values between 0.32 and 0.45 are considered weak since they account for approximately 10% of the variance, values between 0.45 and 0.55 are considered good as they account for 20% of the variance, values between 0.63 and 0.71 are considered very good as they account for 40% of the variance, and values greater than 0.71 are considered excellent as they account for 50% of the variance (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Polat, 2012). Büyüköztürk (2007) suggests that a factor loading value of 0.45 or higher is a good criterion for selection, but for a small number of items, this threshold can be lowered to 0.30. Additionally, if an overlapping item shows high loadings on more than one factor, the difference between the loadings on these two factors should be at least 0.1; if the difference is less than 0.1, the item should be removed from the scale. The factor loadings for the 22 items resulting from the exploratory factor analysis are presented in Table 6.

In table 6, the factor analysis revealed two distinct factors within the VGP scale. The total variance explained by the two factors is 77.50%, which is very high. Factor-1 explains 56.93% of the variance, indicating it is the dominant factor. Factor-2

explains an additional 20.57% of the variance, contributing significantly to the overall structure of the scale. After factor rotation, it was determined that the first factor of the scale consists of 18 items (21, 17, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 16, 19, 22, 6, 5, 7, 8, 20, 9, 10, 4), and the second factor consists of 4 items (3, 11, 1, 2). In this table, the loadings for Factor-1 are generally high, with most items having loadings above 0.7, indicating that these items are strongly associated with Factor-1. Items such as Item21 (.92), Item17 (.92), Item12 (.92), Item13 (.92), and Item14 (.92) have exceptionally high loadings on Factor-1, suggesting that these items are key components of this factor. Factor-2 also has several items with high loadings, notably Item3 (.88), Item11 (.82), Item1 (.78), and Item2 (.69). Overall, this supports the construct validity of the VGP scale and suggests that it is a reliable measure for the intended constructs within the Turkish context.

The eleven items (Items 11-22) from the original scale's first factor were again grouped under the first factor. However, it was observed that seven items originally under the second factor were grouped under the first factor, while four items from the original second factor remained under the second factor. It can be suggested that the grouping of these seven items under a different factor in this study is due to cultural and linguistic differences. Upon examining the items individually, it can be said that, in the context of Turkish culture and language, these seven items might be perceived as representing "hostility," like the other 11 items, while the remaining four items might be perceived as representing "controlling" behaviour, distinguishing them from the other seven items.

The fact that the lowest factor loading value among the items is 0.59 indicates that each item has a good correlation within its respective factor. Two items with loadings between 0.60 and 0.62 are considered very good, and nineteen items with loadings greater than 0.71 are considered excellent. Because the factor loadings for the items are calculated at good or higher levels, the removal of any items from the scale was not considered. Regarding Item 4, which had factor loadings on more than one factor, the difference between its factor loadings was less than 0.1, indicating that they are overlapping items. However, since its factor loadings were calculated to be greater than 0.50 in both factors, they were not removed from the scale.

Considering the content of the items, it was determined that there was no need to change the names of the factors from the original scale. Thus, the first factor was named "Controlling-possessive domination" (e.g., Item 1: "tells her who she can go

out with and who she can't"), and the second factor was named "Hostile domination" (e.g., Item 18: "Hits, throws, or breaks objects when arguing with her"), just as in the original scale.

4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Table 7 presents the results of the confirmatory factor analysis conducted to validate the hypothesized factor structure.

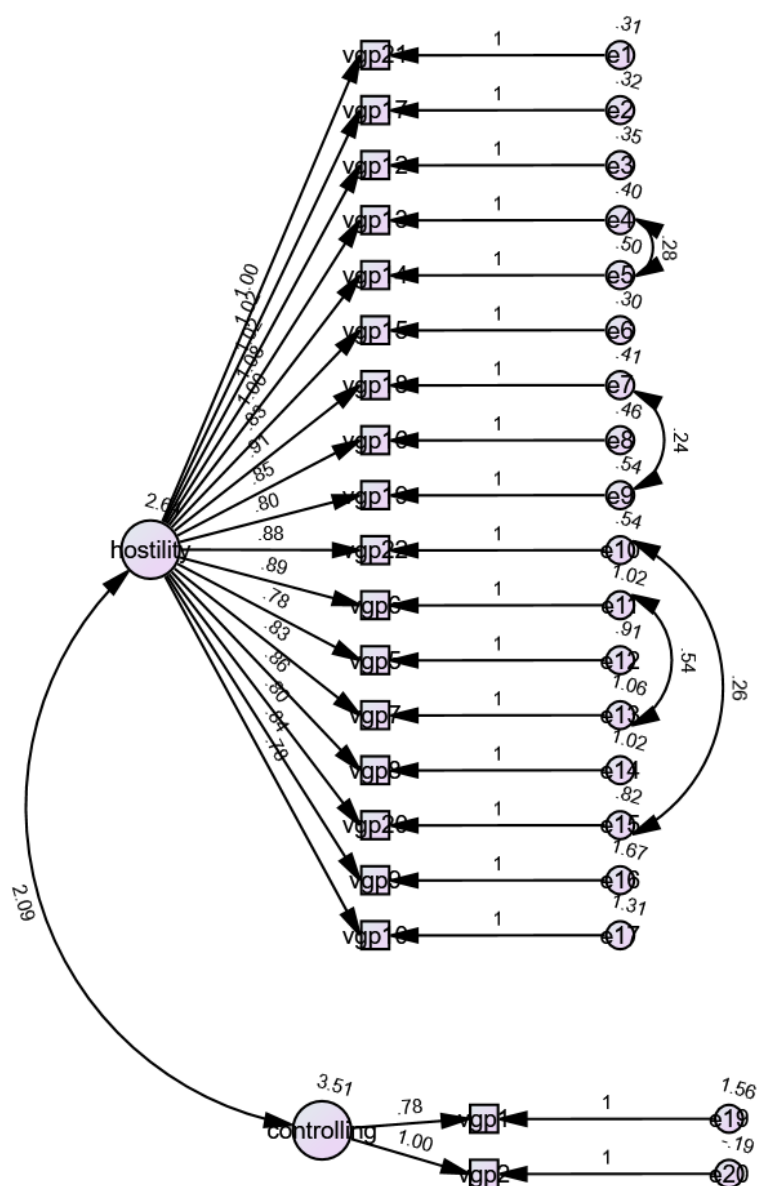


Table 7

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model Fit Indices	Reference	VGP
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.90
CFI	≥ 0.90	0.92
IFI	≥ 0.90	0.92
TLI	≥ 0.90	0.90

Table 7 displays the results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) performed to validate the hypothesized factor structure of the scale. The table includes key model fit indices such as the Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). For a model to be considered a good fit, these indices generally need to have values of 0.90 or higher. In this analysis, the NFI is 0.90, the CFI is 0.92, the IFI is 0.92, and the TLI is 0.90. These values suggest that the factor structure has an acceptable fit to the data, indicating that the model is well-specified. The CFI and IFI values, both at 0.92, further highlight a good fit, implying that the model effectively accounts for a significant proportion of the variance in the data. This validation supports the scale's structure and confirms its suitability for measuring the intended constructs.

4.7 Reliability Analysis

Table 8 displays the results of the reliability analysis conducted to assess the internal consistency of the scale.

Table 8

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item1	101.93	865.39	.62	.70	.98
Item2	101.53	852.83	.78	.80	.97
Item3	102.02	896.20	.35	.59	.98
Item4	101.30	859.58	.74	.69	.97

Table 8
(continued)

Item5	101.07	863.30	.79	.75	.97
Item6	101.44	851.77	.82	.81	.97
Item7	101.27	857.34	.80	.78	.97
Item8	101.20	853.23	.82	.76	.97
Item9	101.44	851.99	.76	.65	.97
Item10	101.59	856.33	.80	.73	.97
Item11	101.70	870.16	.60	.72	.98
Item12	100.86	845.74	.89	.92	.97
Item13	100.95	839.40	.90	.95	.97
Item14	100.89	847.18	.86	.92	.97
Item15	100.80	862.50	.88	.88	.97
Item16	101.01	858.67	.87	.85	.97
Item17	100.87	846.11	.89	.93	.97
Item18	100.80	854.67	.87	.91	.97
Item19	100.87	864.35	.83	.85	.97
Item20	101.19	857.83	.85	.82	.97
Item21	100.96	846.74	.90	.92	.97
Item22	101.00	852.97	.89	.87	.97

N=308 Alpha=.98

For item analysis, item-total correlation analysis was used. The item-total score correlation is the calculation of the correlation between the total scores of the scale and the scores of each individual item (Çakmur, 2012). Büyüköztürk (2007) states that items with an item-total score correlation value of 0.30 or higher sufficiently distinguish between individuals, and that higher values indicate that the items exemplify similar behaviours, and that the test's internal consistency is also high. In the item analysis of the VGP, the item-total score correlations were calculated as 0.35 for item 3 and between 0.60 and 0.90 for the other 21 items. These results suggest that the items in the scale have a sufficient ability to distinguish between individuals, and the high values can also be interpreted as evidence that each item measures similar behaviours, which indicates the internal consistency of the scale.

Cronbach's alpha values range from .97 to .98, suggesting high internal consistency for the VGP scale. The overall Cronbach's alpha for the scale remains very high, above .97, indicating excellent reliability.

The corrected item-total correlation values range from .35 to .90. Higher correlations indicate that the item is more consistent with the overall scale. Items VGP12, VGP13, VGP14, and VGP21 show the highest correlations, indicating they are strong contributors to the internal consistency of the scale. In conclusion, the item-

total statistics indicate that the VGP scale has high internal consistency, with each item contributing positively to the overall reliability. The corrected item-total correlation and squared multiple correlation values suggest that the items are well correlated and explained by the other items in the scale. Therefore, the VGP scale is a reliable measure for assessing the intended construct.

4.8 Group Differences

Table 9 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, which was conducted to compare the perceptions of psychological violence between two independent groups (male and female participants).

Table 9

U-Test Results of Total VGP Score Rank Averages by Gender

	Variable	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
SUM_VGP	Male	85	123.08	10461.50	6806.50	.00**
	Female	223	166.48	37124.50		
Total		308				

**($p < 0.01$)

The Mann-Whitney U test indicates a significant difference in the overall VGP scores between males and females ($U = 6806.50$, $p < .001$). Female participants have a significantly higher mean rank (166.48) compared to male participants (123.08). This suggests that females score higher on the overall VGP scale than males.

These findings suggest that females have a higher perception and awareness of gender violence compared to males. This gender difference indicates that females are more attuned to recognizing and acknowledging instances of gender violence.

Table 10

U-Test Results of Total VGP Score Rank Averages by Social Media

	Social Media	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
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Table 10
(continued)

SUM_VGP	Less than 4 hours	168	160.29	26929.00	7933.00	.00**
	More than 4 hours	140	126.56	17718.00		
Total		308				

**($p < 0.01$)

Table 10 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, which was conducted to compare differences in time spent on social media between two independent groups (1-3 hours vs 4-7 hours).

The Mann-Whitney U test indicates a significant difference in the overall VGP scores between participants who use social media for 1-3 hours per day and those who use it for 4-7 hours per day ($U = 7933.00$, $p < .001$). Participants who use social media for 1-3 hours have a higher mean rank (160.29) compared to those who use it for 4-7 hours (126.56). This suggests that lighter social media users have a higher perception of gender violence compared to heavier users.

The Mann-Whitney U test results reveal significant differences in the overall VGP scores based on social media usage. Participants who use social media for 1-3 hours per day have higher perceptions and awareness of gender violence compared to those who use it for 4-7 hours per day. These findings suggest that heavier social media usage might be associated with a lower perception of gender violence.

Table 11

U-Test Results of Total VGP Score Rank Averages by Co-Habitation

	Co-Habitation	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
SUM_VGP	Yes	98	155.81	15269.38	6308.50	.00**
	No	210	126.47	26558.70		
Total		308				

**($p < 0.01$)

Table 11 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, which was conducted to compare differences in co-habitation status between two independent groups (yes vs no).

The Mann-Whitney U test indicates a significant difference in the overall VGP scores between participants who cohabit with their partners and those who do not ($U = 6308.50, p = .00$).

Participants who cohabit have a higher mean rank (155.81) compared to those who do not cohabit (126.47). This suggests that cohabiting individuals have a higher perception of gender violence compared to those who do not cohabit.

The Mann-Whitney U test results reveal significant differences in the overall VGP scores based on cohabitation status. Participants who cohabit with their partners have higher perceptions and awareness of gender violence compared to those who do not cohabit. This finding suggests that living with a partner may increase awareness or sensitivity to gender violence issues. These results highlight the importance of considering living arrangements in research and interventions related to gender violence perception.

Table 12

Comparison of SUM_VGP Score Rank Averages by Relationship Duration, Kruskal-Wallis Test Results

Relationship duration	N	Mean Rank	df	χ^2	p
Less than 6 months	48	115.88	4	11.61	.02*
6 months-12 months	52	152.92			
More than 1 year-Less than 2 years	44	161.39			
More than 2 years	99	167.22			
No partner	65	160.25			
Total	308				

*($p < 0.05$)

In Table 12, the Kruskal-Wallis test results were used to compare the average ranks of the SUM_VGP scores across different groups defined by "Birliktelik süresi" (relationship duration). The relationship duration groups include less than 6 months, 6-12 months, more than 1 year-less than 2 years, more than 2 years and no partner.

The test reveals that there is a statistically significant difference in the perception of gender violence (SUM_VGP scores) based on the duration of the participants' relationships, with a p-value of 0.02, which is below the commonly accepted significance level of 0.05. The groups include participants in relationships lasting less than 6 months, 6-12 months, 1-2 years, more than 2 years, and those who are not currently in a relationship. Participants in relationships lasting more than 2 years have the highest mean rank (167.22), followed by those in relationships of 1-2 years (161.39), those who are not in a relationship (160.25), those in 6-12 months relationships (152.92), and finally, those in relationships lasting less than 6 months (115.88). The significant difference suggests that the duration of a relationship influences the perception of gender violence, with those in longer relationships (especially more than 2 years) having a higher perception of gender violence. This could imply that longer relationships might lead to greater awareness or sensitivity towards issues of gender violence, possibly due to increased exposure to relationship dynamics over time.

Table 13

Comparison of SUM_VGP Score Rank Averages by Age Level, Kruskal-Wallis Test Results

Age	N	Mean Rank	df	χ^2	p
15-18	44	126.28	2	5.25	.07
19-25	169	157.96			
26-30	95	161.41			
Total	308				

In table 13, The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine if there are statistically significant differences in the overall VGP scores across different age groups (15-18, 19-25, 26-30). Participants aged 26-30 have the highest mean rank, followed by those aged 19-25, and then those aged 15-18. The Kruskal-Wallis test

results indicate that there are no statistically significant differences in the overall VGP scores across the three age groups (15-18, 19-25, 26-30) at the 0.05 significance level. Although the mean ranks suggest a trend where older age groups (19-25 and 26-30) tend to have higher perceptions of gender violence compared to the younger age group (15-18), this difference is not statistically significant.

These findings suggest that age may not be a significant factor influencing the perception of gender violence among the participants in this study. However, the observed trend indicates that further research with a larger sample size might be necessary to explore potential age-related differences in gender violence perception more thoroughly.

Table 14

Comparison of SUM_VGP Score Rank Averages by Education Level, Kruskal-Wallis Test Results

Education	N	Mean Rank	df	χ^2	p
Secondary	82	144.37	2	4.70	.09
Undergraduate	173	152.27			
Postgraduate	53	177.46			
Total	308				

In table 14, The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine if there are statistically significant differences in the overall VGP scores across different education levels (Secondary, University, Postgraduate). Participants with postgraduate education have the highest mean rank, followed by those with university education, and then those with secondary education. The Kruskal-Wallis test results indicate that there are no statistically significant differences in the overall VGP scores across the three education levels (Secondary, University, Postgraduate) at the 0.05 significance level. Although the mean ranks suggest a trend where higher education levels (university and postgraduate) tend to have higher perceptions of gender violence compared to secondary education, this difference is not statistically significant.

These findings suggest that education level may not be a significant factor influencing the perception of gender violence among the participants in this study.

Table 15

Comparison of SUM_VGP Score Rank Averages by Relationship Status, Kruskal-Wallis Test Results

Relationship status	N	Mean Rank	df	χ^2	p
Single	73	150.26	2	7.07	.03*
In a relationship	170	140.67			
Married	65	174.84			
Total	308				

*(p<0.05)

In table 15, The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine if there are statistically significant differences in the overall VGP scores across different relationship statuses (Single, In a Relationship, Married). Married participants have the highest mean rank, followed by single participants, and then those in a relationship.

The Kruskal-Wallis test results indicate that there are statistically significant differences in the overall VGP scores across the three relationship status groups (Single, In a Relationship, Married) at the 0.05 significance level. Specifically, married participants have significantly higher perceptions of gender violence compared to those who are single or in a relationship.

These findings suggest that relationship status is a significant factor influencing the perception of gender violence. Married individuals may have a higher awareness or sensitivity to gender violence issues, which could be due to various factors such as shared experiences with a partner, increased exposure to discussions about relationship dynamics, or a greater understanding of the complexities involved in intimate relationships.

4.9 Regression Analyses

Table 16

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Total Gender Violence Perception Scores (SUM_VGP)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	118.48	14.84		7.99	.00**
Age	-5.22	3.85	-.11	-1.36	.18
Gender	11.09	3.86	.16	2.87	.00**
Education	6.33	3.35	.14	1.89	.06
Relationship status	-1.14	2.61	-.03	-.44	.66
Social media usage	-10.66	3.02	-.21	-3.53	.00**
Co-habitation	-7.35	3.18	-.15	-2.31	.02*

Dependent variable: SUM_VGP

**($p < 0.01$)

*($p < 0.05$)

Table 16 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis conducted to examine the predictors of total Gender Violence Perception (SUM_VGP) scores. The table provides unstandardized coefficients (B), standardized coefficients (Beta), t-values, and significance levels (p-values) for each predictor variable.

The regression analysis reveals significant insights into the predictors of total Gender Violence Perception Scale (SUM_VGP) scores. The analysis shows that gender, social media usage, and co-habitation status are significant predictors of SUM_VGP scores. Specifically, females tend to have significantly higher perceptions of gender violence compared to males, as indicated by a positive coefficient ($B = 11.086$, $p = .004$). Social media usage is inversely related to perceptions of gender violence, with higher usage associated with lower SUM_VGP scores ($B = -10.655$, $p < .001$), suggesting that participants who use social media more frequently have a lower awareness of gender violence. Additionally, co-habitation status is negatively associated with SUM_VGP scores ($B = -7.353$, $p = .022$), indicating that individuals who cohabit with their partners have lower perceptions of gender violence. Other variables, such as age, education level, and relationship status, do not show statistically significant relationships with SUM_VGP scores within this sample, although there are trends suggesting that younger participants and those with higher education levels might have higher perceptions of gender violence.

Table 17

Multiple Regression Analysis with Collinearity Diagnostics for Predicting Total Gender Violence Perception Scores (SUM_VGP)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	p	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	118.48	14.84		7.99	.00**		
Age	-5.22	3.85	-.11	-1.36	.18	.45	2.21
Gender	11.09	3.86	.16	2.87	.00**	.95	1.05
Education	6.33	3.35	.14	1.89	.06	.59	1.70
Relationship status	-1.14	2.61	-.03	-.44	.66	.75	1.34
Social media usage	-10.66	3.02	-.21	-3.53	.00**	.84	1.19
Co-habitation	-7.35	3.18	-.15	-2.31	.02*	.74	1.35

Dependent variable: SUM_VGP

**($p < 0.01$)

*($p < 0.05$)

Table 17 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis with collinearity statistics conducted to examine various predictors of total Gender Violence Perception (SUM_VGP) scores, including factors such as age, social media usage, gender, relationship status, education status, and co-habitation status.

Tolerance values above 0.1 indicate that multicollinearity is not a serious issue. VIF values below 10 indicate that multicollinearity is not problematic. In this table, all VIF values are below 3, suggesting no significant multicollinearity among the independent variables, confirming the reliability of the regression coefficients. These findings highlight the importance of considering demographic factors in understanding perceptions of gender violence.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings, along with the conclusions drawn and the recommendations proposed.

5.1 Discussion of Findings of Research Questions

The first hypothesis regarding the reliability of the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale was supported. The VGP scale demonstrated excellent reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.91, indicating a high level of internal consistency.

The second hypothesis regarding the validity of the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale was also supported. The scale showed strong criterion-related validity through its significant correlations with the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA) subscales, confirming its effectiveness in measuring the intended construct. In addition to the criterion-related validity, both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to assess the construct validity of the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale. The EFA helped identify the underlying factor structure of the scale, while the CFA confirmed that this structure fit the data well. These analyses further supported the validity of the VGP scale, demonstrating that it effectively measures the intended construct.

Contrary to the expectations set by Hypothesis 2, the data did not show high correlation between the Gender Violence Perception Scale (VGP) and the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (ÇBDİÖ). The findings indicate that, while both scales measure aspects of psychological and emotional abuse within intimate relationships, they may be capturing different dimensions or facets of abuse, resulting in a weaker than anticipated correlation. This suggests that the constructs measured by the two scales are not as closely related as initially hypothesized, highlighting the complexity and multidimensionality of psychological and emotional abuse in dating contexts. However, a moderate negative correlation exists between

SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA_PERP, suggesting that higher VGP scores are associated with lower scores on the MMEA_PERP subscale. This indicates an inverse relationship between the overall VGP score and the MMEA_PERP measure. It can be inferred that individuals who are more aware of gender violence, as indicated by higher VGP scores, are less likely to perpetuate such violence on others. A similar moderate negative correlation is observed between SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA_VIC, further indicating that people who score higher in VGP scale are also more likely not to let others inflict psychological violence on them.

The analysis also provided partial support for the third hypothesis, which suggested that the impact of relationship duration on the perception of gender violence would be more pronounced among female participants. While both male and female participants in longer relationships reported higher perceptions of psychological violence, the effect was indeed more pronounced among female participants. This gender difference indicates that women may be more attuned to or more affected by psychological violence in long-term relationships, potentially due to societal and cultural factors that influence gender roles and expectations. These findings highlight the importance of gender-sensitive approaches in addressing psychological violence and underscore the need to consider gender differences in both research and intervention strategies.

The findings from the analysis provide strong support for the fourth hypothesis, which posited that longer relationship durations would lead to significantly higher perceptions of psychological violence. The data revealed a significant relationship between the length of a romantic relationship and the perception of psychological violence, with individuals in longer-term relationships reporting higher levels of perceived psychological abuse. This aligns with the theoretical expectation that prolonged exposure to relationship dynamics increases awareness and sensitivity to such violence. The results suggest that the duration of a relationship plays a critical role in shaping perceptions of violence, likely due to the accumulation of experiences over time that may highlight or exacerbate abusive behaviors.

Similarly, the fifth hypothesis, which proposed that participants in relationships lasting over two years would consistently report higher scores on the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) scale, was also supported by the data. Participants in relationships

exceeding two years indeed reported higher scores on the VGP scale, indicating a heightened perception of gender violence compared to those in shorter relationships. This finding reinforces the notion that the length of a relationship contributes to a greater recognition of violence, potentially due to increased exposure to patterns of control, manipulation, and psychological abuse that might not be as evident in shorter-term relationships. The consistency of this result across different measures underscores the robustness of the relationship between relationship duration and violence perception.

5.1.1 Discussion on demographic information. In this study, the majority of participants were young adults aged 19-25. There is a notable gender imbalance in the sample, which may have influenced the findings, as women are generally more likely to perceive gender violence. According to a meta-analysis by Carney and Barner (2012), 41% of women reported experiencing coercive control, and 40% faced verbal or psychological violence. Similar rates of gender violence have been observed in Mediterranean countries. Since this study was conducted in Turkey, which is part of the eastern Mediterranean, and North Cyprus, also in the Mediterranean region, the context is relevant. For instance, in Italy, 38% of women experience psychological violence from their partners, and 13% face economic violence. In Spain, 33% of women report psychological violence from their partners, while 8% are subjected to economic violence (Sales et al., 2016). These statistics help explain why women in this study might be more attuned to recognizing gender violence, as they are more frequently victimized by it.

As discussed in Hypothesis 3, the duration of the relationship significantly influences the perception of gender violence, a finding that this study supports. When considering the age variable, some research suggests that intimate partner violence tends to decrease in older age groups (Burazeri et al., 2005). The age range of 17-29 is typically seen as a high-risk period for experiencing abuse in romantic relationships. However, other studies indicate that the frequency and intensity of abuse can actually increase as the relationship progresses (Keeffe, Brockopp, & Chew, 1986).

5.1.2 Discussion on adaptation of the scale. Due to cross-cultural differences, the first stage in Öner's (1994) three-step model for scale adaptation involves the translation of test items. The second stage, which focuses on examining psychometric

properties, involves testing the validity and reliability of the test items. The third stage involves examining the culture-dependent characteristics of the adapted test. Culture-dependent features refer to the identification of explanations pertaining to variations in linguistic norms and differences in the factor structure and item factor loadings between the adapted test and the original test (Öner, 1994).

The present work employed a forward-back translation approach to construct a Turkish translated version of the scale that is both conceptually and linguistically precise. Four bilingual scholars performed the initial translation, which was then consolidated into a single version. Two separate academics, one specialising in English language teaching and the other in psychology, back-translated this into English without identifying any alterations compared to the original wording. The Turkish version was reviewed by two Turkish language instructors, leading to only minimal revisions for grammatical correctness and fluency.

For the second stage of psychometric properties, according to Öner (1994), to assess the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency method—one of the reliability techniques used to evaluate whether the items are consistent with each other and whether they effectively measure a hypothetical variable—was utilized (Çakmur, 2012). Reliability was evaluated by computing the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, a suitable measure for questions with more than two response choices (Erkuş, 2014). The analysis revealed that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the VGP was .91. Given that a reliability level of .60 is typically deemed acceptable for psychological measurement tools in research (Büyüköztürk, 2007), the scale's reliability can be considered adequate.

Moreover, in Alvarez's (2014) VGP scale development study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as .97. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as .91. The fact that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients in both studies are very close to each other can be interpreted as an indication that the scale maintains the same level of reliability across different cultures and samples.

In the psychometric examination, which includes the item-total score correlation—a method used to assess reliability—the correlation values for each VGP item with the total scale score were found to be 0.35 for the third item, and between

0.60 and 0.90 for the other 21 items. These findings can be seen as evidence that the items assess comparable behaviours. This study involved an analysis to assess the criterion-related validity of the scale by comparing the scores of the participants on the VGP and MMEA. Analysis revealed that the criterion-related validity produced insignificant findings. However, there is a moderate negative correlation between SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA_PERP, indicating that higher VGP scores correspond to lower scores on the MMEA_PERP subscale. This suggests an inverse relationship between the overall VGP score and the MMEA_PERP measure. It can be interpreted that individuals with a greater awareness of gender violence, as reflected by higher VGP scores, are less likely to engage in such violence themselves. Similarly, a moderate negative correlation is found between SUM_VGP and SUM_MMEA_VIC, suggesting that those who score higher on the VGP scale are also more likely to resist being subjected to psychological violence by others. Consequently, based on the results obtained from the construct validity and criterion-related validity analyses, it can be considered that the VGP is a valid measurement tool that can be used in future research in the literature.

Two factors that account for 77.50% of the total variance were rotated to ensure "independence, clarity in interpretation, and meaningfulness." This rotation increases the loading of items on one factor while reducing their loadings on other factors, making it easier to identify which items are associated with each factor and to interpret the factors more effectively. The varimax method, a widely used orthogonal rotation technique in social sciences, was applied (Büyüköztürk, 2007).

Following orthogonal rotation, the values in the factor loading matrix for the third stage of psychometric properties, as proposed by Öner (1994), indicate the correlations between the factors and the items inside those factors. Researchers interpret loading values greater than 0.32. Values between 0.32 and 0.45 are considered weak, explaining about 10% of the variance; values between 0.45 and 0.55 are considered good, accounting for 20% of the variance; values between 0.63 and 0.71 are regarded as very good, explaining 40% of the variance; and values above 0.71 are considered excellent, explaining 50% of the variance (Comrey and Lee, 1992; Polat, 2012; Bayraktaroğlu and Çakıcı, 2017). Büyüköztürk (2007) proposes that a factor loading value of 0.45 or above is a suitable selection criterion. However, for a

limited number of items, this barrier can be lowered to 0.30. In the event that an item exhibits substantial loadings on several factors, it is necessary for the disparity between the loadings on the two factors to be no less than 0.1. In such cases, the item should be excluded from the scale. When the results of the orthogonal rotation were analyzed, it was found that 4 items (1, 2, 3, 11) clustered under the first factor, while 18 items (21, 17, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 16, 19, 22, 6, 5, 7, 8, 20, 9, 10, 4) clustered under the second factor. The eleven items associated with the first factor in the original scale (items 11-22) also grouped under the first factor in this study. However, seven items that originally belonged to the second factor were found to cluster under the first factor, while four items from the second factor remained grouped under the second factor. This shift in factor grouping may be attributed to cultural and linguistic differences. Upon further examination, it appears that in Turkish culture and language, the seven items might be perceived as representing "hostility," similar to the other 11 items, while the remaining four items might be interpreted as representing "controlling" behavior, distinct from the other seven.

The lowest factor loading observed was 0.59, indicating that each item had a strong correlation within its respective factor. Two items had loadings between 0.60 and 0.62, which is considered very good, while nineteen items had loadings above 0.71, which is considered excellent. Given the strong factor loadings, the removal of any items from the scale was not deemed necessary. Although items 4 and 10 had a factor loading difference of less than 0.1 between the two factors, indicating overlap, they were not removed from the scale as their loadings were above 0.50 in both factors. After confirmatory factor analysis, items 3, 4 and 11 were removed from the scale.

Considering the content of the items, it was determined that there was no need to change the factor names from the original scale. The first factor was retained as "Controlling-possessive domination" (e.g., item 1: "tells her who she can go out with and who she can't"), and the second factor was retained as "Hostile domination" (e.g., item 18: "Hits, throws, or breaks objects when arguing with her"), as in the original scale.

5.2 Conclusions

The study successfully adapted the Gender Violence Perception (VGP) Scale to the Turkish context, demonstrating its reliability and validity in measuring perceptions

of gender violence among young adults in Turkey. The high Cronbach's alpha coefficient confirms the scale's internal consistency and reliability across different cultural settings. One of the key findings is that the duration of romantic relationships significantly influences the perception of psychological violence, with longer-term relationships associated with higher levels of perceived abuse. Gender differences were also evident, with women showing higher awareness and sensitivity to psychological violence, reflecting societal and cultural influences on gender roles. The study identified moderate negative correlations between VGP scores and MMEA subscales for both perpetration and victimization, suggesting that individuals with greater awareness of gender violence are less likely to engage in or tolerate such behaviors. These findings underscore the importance of considering cultural and linguistic factors in scale adaptation, as some items may be interpreted differently in the Turkish context. The study also highlights the need for gender-sensitive interventions and educational programs tailored to the specific challenges faced by different genders in recognizing and responding to psychological violence. The validated VGP scale can be effectively used in various settings, including clinical, educational, and community environments, to assess and address issues related to gender violence. Additionally, the study opens opportunities for further research, particularly in exploring the scale's applicability in different cultural contexts, understanding the evolution of violence perception over time, and investigating the inverse relationships between awareness and the perpetuation of violence. These conclusions provide a strong foundation for future research and practical applications aimed at addressing and preventing gender violence, particularly in the context of psychological abuse within intimate relationships.

This study included participants from both North Cyprus and Turkey. While the two regions share a similar culture and language, certain cultural differences may have influenced the study's results. Although both regions have predominantly Muslim populations, the practice and influence of religion can vary. In some parts of Turkey, religious practices may be more deeply integrated into daily life and social norms, while North Cyprus, influenced by its diverse and mixed history, might exhibit more secular attitudes in certain areas. Cultural attitudes towards gender-based violence might differ due to various social influences and governmental policies. North Cyprus, being a smaller community with different local regulations, might have different mechanisms for addressing and discussing such issues compared to the larger and

more diverse Turkish society. Although they speak the same language, there might be regional dialects and expressions unique to each place that can affect how concepts related to violence, relationships, and gender are discussed and understood.

Cultural differences can lead to varying interpretations of specific behaviors or attitudes. For example, some items on the VGP scale may describe behaviors that one culture views as normal or acceptable within a relationship, while another may consider them controlling or abusive. For instance, actions such as checking up on a partner's whereabouts might be interpreted as caring in one context but as controlling in another. Cultural attitudes towards gender roles can significantly influence responses. In societies where traditional gender norms are more deeply ingrained, certain behaviors, such as dominance or control by a male partner, might not be perceived as problematic or abusive. This could lead to variations in responses between participants from North Cyprus and Turkey if one group has more traditional views on gender roles than the other. Cultural differences in education, media exposure, and discussions around gender-based violence can affect participants' awareness and sensitivity to such issues. In North Cyprus, where exposure to European influences might be stronger, participants may have a more nuanced understanding of psychological violence compared to certain parts of Turkey. This difference in awareness could influence how they respond to items on the VGP scale.

5.3 Recommendations

Therefore, considering the results of this thesis, it is possible to propose numerous suggestions for future study and actual implementations. Firstly, it is recommended to broaden the sample in future research to encompass a more heterogeneous population in terms of age, socio-economic standing, and geographic distribution. This would help determine whether the findings are consistent across different demographic groups. Additionally, conducting longitudinal studies would provide insights into how perceptions of gender violence and psychological violence evolve over time, particularly as relationships progress. It is also important to address the gender imbalance observed in this study, where female participants outnumbered males, by ensuring a more balanced sample in future research. Expanding the sample size to include 500-1000 participants with a more even distribution of genders would enhance the generalizability of the findings. The scale itself could benefit from

refinement, particularly by revising items with low item-total correlations, such as item 3, to improve overall reliability and validity. Pilot testing any revised or new items before incorporating them into the final scale would ensure that they accurately measure the intended constructs. Cross-cultural validation of the adapted VGP scale is also recommended to assess its reliability and validity in different settings, enhancing the generalizability of the findings. This could involve exploring cultural differences in the perception of gender violence by comparing results from different countries, particularly within the Mediterranean region. Furthermore, developing educational programs that target young adults, with a focus on increasing awareness of gender violence and its psychological aspects, would be beneficial. These programs should be tailored to address the cultural and societal factors that influence perceptions of violence. Gender-sensitive approaches in research and practice are also essential, recognizing that women may have higher perceptions of gender violence. This could include gender-specific interventions or support systems that address the unique challenges faced by different genders in recognizing and responding to psychological violence. The VGP scale should be utilized in various settings, such as clinical, educational, and community-based environments, to better understand the prevalence and perception of gender violence across different contexts. Finally, it is recommended to further explore the inverse relationships observed between the VGP scores and the MMEA subscales, to understand why individuals with higher awareness of gender violence are less likely to perpetrate it or allow it to happen to them. These recommendations provide a comprehensive approach to advancing research and practical interventions in the field of gender violence and psychological abuse.

5.3.1 Clinical implications. The next steps following this study involve several key actions to build on the findings and further the understanding of gender violence. Conducting longitudinal studies is crucial for tracking changes in perceptions of gender violence over time, especially as relationships evolve, and for assessing the long-term impact of educational programs or interventions. Cross-cultural validation of the VGP scale should be pursued to ensure its applicability in different international contexts, allowing for comparisons across cultures to identify both universal and culture-specific factors influencing gender violence perception.

Additionally, developing gender-sensitive interventions and educational programs tailored to the specific needs of different genders will help increase

awareness and responsiveness to psychological violence. The VGP scale should also be applied in diverse settings, such as clinical practices, educational institutions, and community organizations, and used to explore how perceptions of psychological violence vary across different types of relationships, including familial and professional ones.

These findings should be integrated into local, national, and international policy frameworks to develop guidelines and standards for addressing psychological violence in workplaces, schools, and healthcare settings. Training programs for professionals, including healthcare providers, social workers, law enforcement, and educators, should be created based on these insights. Such training will equip these professionals with the necessary skills to identify, respond to, and support victims of psychological violence. Exploring the use of technology-based interventions, such as mobile apps or online platforms, could provide accessible resources and support for individuals experiencing psychological violence. Advocating for the inclusion of gender violence awareness and prevention in school curricula can shape attitudes and behaviors from a young age, potentially reducing the prevalence of psychological violence. Considering how factors such as race, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and disability intersect with gender will offer a more nuanced understanding and allow for more targeted interventions. Establishing comprehensive support systems, including counseling, legal assistance, and safe housing options for victims, is essential. Developing mechanisms to regularly evaluate and improve these programs will ensure their effectiveness. Public awareness campaigns that challenge stereotypes and myths about gender violence, alongside partnerships with NGOs and advocacy groups, will amplify these efforts, promoting societal norms that do not tolerate any form of violence.

To further expand on the clinical implications of this study, developing specialized mental health support for survivors, including trauma-informed therapy, is crucial. Routine screening for psychological violence in healthcare settings can facilitate early detection and timely intervention. Establishing crisis intervention programs that provide immediate support, such as hotlines and emergency counseling, will assist individuals experiencing psychological violence. Incorporating comprehensive training on gender violence into medical and nursing education will prepare future healthcare professionals to recognize and respond to such cases effectively. Providing support and rehabilitation programs for perpetrators of

psychological violence is also essential to help break the cycle of abuse, focusing on behavior modification and conflict resolution skills. Research into resilience factors can identify what helps individuals recover from psychological violence, informing the development of effective support programs. Offering family and relationship counseling can address the dynamics of psychological violence, promoting healthier and more respectful relationships. Community-based support groups can provide safe spaces for survivors to share their experiences and receive peer support, fostering a sense of community. Lastly, advocating for stronger legal protections for victims, such as restraining orders and recognizing psychological abuse as a form of domestic violence, can ensure victims' safety and empower them to seek help. By implementing these comprehensive strategies, the findings of this study can lead to more effective prevention and intervention efforts, significantly improving the support and outcomes for individuals affected by gender violence.

The VGP scale adapted in the study can be effectively used in clinical settings for clients who experience psychological violence. Filling out this scale can help raise clients' awareness of the signs and dynamics of psychological abuse, which may otherwise go unnoticed. This heightened awareness can be crucial in identifying controlling behaviors or emotional manipulation, providing a foundation for therapeutic intervention. Clinicians can use the scale as part of the assessment process to measure a client's perception of psychological violence and tailor therapeutic interventions based on the identified areas of concern.

By using the scale, therapists can facilitate discussions around the nuances of psychological violence, helping clients recognize patterns in their relationships and empowering them to make informed decisions regarding their well-being. Additionally, the scale can serve as a tool for clients to reflect on their experiences, providing validation and helping them articulate behaviors they may not have initially identified as abusive. This process can be instrumental in fostering insight, promoting psychological safety, and supporting recovery from psychological violence.

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