

**THE INVESTIGATION OF CONFLICT IN ADOLESCENTS DATING
VIOLENCE IN THE ROLE OF PERPETRATOR / VICTIM
AND PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE / REJECTION**



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JUNE 2021

**THE INVESTIGATION OF CONFLICT IN ADOLESCENTS DATING
VIOLENCE IN THE ROLE OF PERPETRATOR / VICTIM
AND PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE / REJECTION**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
OF
BAHÇEŞEHİR UNIVERSITY**

BY

EDANUR ALTINÖZ

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
GUIDANCE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELING**

JUNE 2021



**T.C.
BAHCESEHIR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL**

...../...../.....

MASTER THESIS APPROVAL FORM

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Name of The Thesis:	The Investigation of Conflict in Adolescents Dating Violence in the Role of Perpetrator/Victim and Parental Acceptance/Rejection
Thesis Defense Date:	23.06.2021

This thesis has been approved by the Graduate School which has fulfilled the necessary conditions as Master thesis.

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ABSTRACT

THE INVESTIGATION OF CONFLICT IN ADOLESCENT DATING VIOLENCE IN THE ROLE OF PERPETRATOR / VICTIM AND PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE / REJECTION

Altınöz, Edanur

Master's Thesis, Master's Program in Guidance and Psychological Counseling

Supervisor: Prof. Aynur EREN GÜMÜŞ

June 2021, 92 pages

In this study, it is aimed to examine adolescents according to their roles in dating violence, perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender, and to examine whether the role of victim is predicted by perpetrator role in dating violence. The participants consist of high school students in Turkey (15-year-old; $n=30$, 16-year-old; $n=67$, 17-year-old; $n=113$, 18-year-old; $n=96$).

Data collection instruments were Personal Information Form, Parental Acceptance - Rejection Questionnaire - Short Form (Child PARQ / Short Form: mother and father version), and Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI) Short Form. The data were analyzed by Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and Simple Linear Regression Analysis.

According to the results, there is no significant difference between genders for perpetrator and victim roles in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence. In addition, while no significant effect is found between mother acceptance and rejection on perpetrator role in emotional, physical and cyber dating violence and father acceptance and rejection of perpetrator role in physical and cyber dating violence, there is a significant difference in father acceptance and rejection of perpetrator role in emotional dating violence. When it comes to victim role in dating violence, no

significant difference is found between mother and father acceptance and rejection of emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence.

Results of simple regression analysis for total score of perpetrator role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence showed that victim role in dating violence ($R^2=.33$) is an important predictor of perpetrator role in dating violence. In detail, for roles in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, victim role ($R^2=.35$) is a significant predictor of perpetrator role in emotional dating violence. Perpetrator role is predicted by victim role ($R^2=.28$) significantly in physical dating violence. Finally, victim role ($R^2=.22$) is a significant predictor of perpetrator role in cyber dating violence.

Keywords: Dating Violence, Perpetrator, Victim, Parental Acceptance/Rejection

ÖZ

ERGENLERİN FLÖRT ŞİDDETİNDEKİ ÇATIŞMALARININ FAİL / KURBAN ROLÜ VE EBEVEYN KABULÜ / REDDİ AÇISINDAN İNCELEMESİ

Altınöz, Edanur

Yüksek Lisans, Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Programı

Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Aynur EREN GÜMÜŞ

Haziran 2021, 92 sayfa

Bu çalışmada ergenleri flört şiddetindeki rolleri ile algıladıkları ebeveyn kabul/reddi ve cinsiyetlerine göre incelemek ve flört şiddetinde mağdur rolünün fail rolleri tarafından yordanıp yordanmadığının incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Katılımcılar online platformadan ulaşılan Türkiye’deki lise öğrencilerinden (15 yaş; $n=30$, 16 yaş; $n=67$, 17 yaş; $n=113$, 18 yaş; $n=96$) oluşmaktadır.

Veri toplama araçları Kişisel Bilgi Formu, Ebeveyn Kabul-Red Anketi- Kısa Form (Çocuk EKRÖ / Kısa Form: anne ve baba versiyonu) ve Gençler Arası Flört İlişkilerinde Çatışma Ölçeği – Modifiye Edilmiş (GAFİÇÖ-M) Formu’dur. Veriler Çok Değişkenli Varyans Analizi (MANOVA) ve Basit Doğrusal Regresyon Analizi ile analiz edildi.

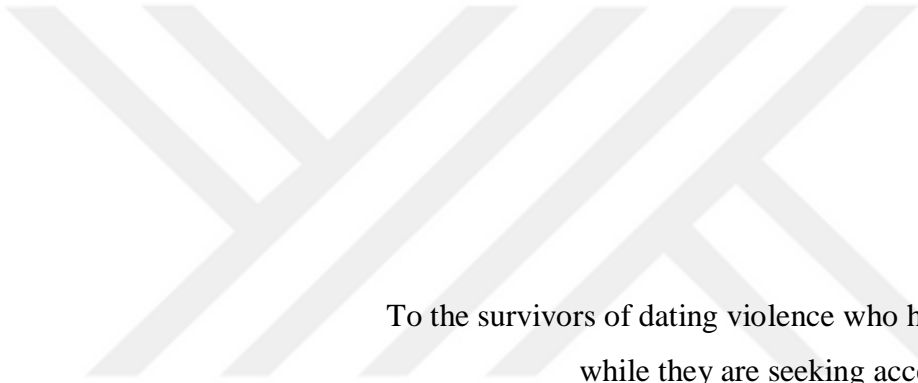
Sonuçlar katılımcıların cinsiyetine göre fail ve mağdur rolünde duygusal, fiziksel ve siber flört şiddetinde anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca, fail ve mağdur rolünde duygusal, fiziksel ve siber flört şiddetinin algılanan anne kabulü / reddine göre anlamlı bir fark olmadığı görülmüştür. Fail rolünde fiziksel ve siber flört şiddetinde algılanan baba kabulü/ reddine göre anlamlı bir fark bulunmazken, duygusal flört şiddetinde ise algılanan baba kabul/ reddine göre fark bulunmuştur. Mağdur rolünde duygusal, fiziksel ve siber flört şiddetinde algılanan anne ve baba kabul/reddine göre anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır.

Duygusal, fiziksel ve siber flört şiddetinde fail rolü toplam puanı için basit regresyon analizi sonuçları göre, flört şiddetinde mağdur rolünün ($R^2=.33$), flört şiddetinde fail

rolünün anlamlı bir yordayıcısı olduğunu göstermiştir. Duygusal, fiziksel ve siber flört şiddetindeki roller için ayrıntılı olarak incelendiğinde, mağdur rolü ($R^2=.35$), duygusal flört şiddetinde fail rolünün önemli bir yordayıcısıdır. Fiziksel flört şiddetinde fail rolü, mağdur rolü tarafından ($R^2=.28$) anlamlı olarak yordanmaktadır. Son olarak, mağdur rolü ($R^2=.22$), siber flört şiddetinde fail rolünün anlamlı bir şekilde yordayıcısıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Flört Şiddeti, Fail, Mağdur, Ebeveyn Kabul/Red





To the survivors of dating violence who have been abused
while they are seeking acceptance and love



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to begin my acknowledgements by expressing my gratefulness to my advisor Prof. Dr. Aynur EREN GÜMÜŞ for her support and guidance throughout my research. When I got cancer surgery, she offered me support beyond her advisor role. Although it was a tough year not only for me but also all people because of COVID-19, whenever I felt myself close to giving up, she encouraged and supported me to finish my dissertation.

This dissertation would not be possible without the precious support of all members in my dissertation committee. Assoc. Prof. Ezgi TOPLU DEMİRTAŞ is the mentor who listened to me in a patient way when I felt stuck. Moreover, she shared the dating violence inventory and encouraged me to shape this dissertation. Also, I would like to thank Dr. Gürsu AŞIK to be part of my thesis jury and for his valuable contributions to my study.

I am deeply appreciative to Ayşe GÜR TURABOĞLU who introduced the term of dating violence in the “maltreatment” elective course that she offered at Boğaziçi University, who also helped me to determine the thesis topic. Moreover, my sincere thanks also go to Assoc. Prof. Hande SART who always supported me even though I am her graduate student. I always feel her support and bond that we have established at Boğaziçi University. Also, I feel a deep sense of gratitude to Dr. Engin YILMAZ who encouraged me to continue to be a part of academic life. He is much more than just an academician for me.

My endless thanks go to my parents, Mehmet ALTINÖZ and Fahriye ÜNLÜ ALTINÖZ, my brother and sister, Gökhan ALTINÖZ and Meryem Sena ALTINÖZ. They are there whenever I need them, and I feel endless love for them. It was impossible to finish my thesis without their love, affection, and support.

Deepest gratitude to my dear friends and my colleagues Reyhan ÇOLAK and Çağlanur POLAT, I am very lucky to have you. Thanks to Aslı Emel BERK and Gizem YÜCEL for your support that is beyond the role of colleagues. Also, I appreciate Emine Berre GÜMÜŞ who encouraged and helped me. In addition, I would like to thank my library-buddy Can ATICI, he enabled me to study during all my hopeless

times. In addition, I am appreciative to Gürkan ÇAKAR who is willing to help in everything in endless way. I would like to thank my precious friends, Asiye YILDIZ and Çağatay YILDIZ who are a big supporter for me since Kilyos. Last but not the least, I would like to express my great thankfulness to my closest friend Ceyda KILINÇ who is always right in her comments, and she is my greatest supporter.

Many thanks to all that I mentioned and could not mention in this acknowledgment who had supported me.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CADRI	Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory
CADRI-S	Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory Short From
GAFİÇÖ-M	Gençler Arası Flört İlişkilerinde Çatışma Ölçeği'nin-Modifiye Edilmiş
IPARTheory	Interpersonal Parental Acceptance/Rejection Theory
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
PARTheory	Parental Acceptance/Rejection Theory
PARQ	Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire
WHO	World Health Organization

Chapter 1

Introduction

While adolescents move on to adulthood, adolescence period gives them permanent memories as a gift. Change of emotions and body image, seeking identity, building social environments are the most concerning issues for adolescence period (La Greca & Harrison, 2005). While adolescents explore these issues deeply, they may prefer being a part of a social environment other than the family environment (Bayhan & Işitan, 2010). Beyond these explorations, adolescents may seek attachment figures outside of their families. For example, they may affiliate with their peers who is attractive for them which means having a romantic relationship that is called dating, as well.

Although definition of dating may differ from individual to individual according to perception of commitment in relationship (Sheppard, Nelso, and Andreoli-mathie, 1995), generally, dating is defined as “two people in an intimate relationship” (Love is Respect, 2019a, para. 1). Specifically, Murray and Kardatzke (2007) describe dating as “a relationship in which two individuals share an emotional, romantic, and/or sexual connection beyond a friendship, but they are not married, engaged, or in a similarly committed relationship” (p.79).

At the age of 15, a lot of adolescents start to have intimate relationships (Feiring, 1996). Having a romantic relationship experience may help adolescents develop emotional independence from parents and peers (Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Furman & Shaffer, 2003). Especially, having a romantic relationship means gaining popularity, easy social peer acceptance among adolescents and social adaptation (Öztürk, 2007; Brown, 1999). In addition to this, Seiffge-Krenke (2003) claims that dating provides adolescents a higher position in social hierarchy more than the relationship with parents and peers (Furman and Wehner, 1997). Thus, global self-esteem and self-worth is affected by romantic intimate relationships (Furman & Shaffer, 2003; Ciairano, Bonino, Kliewer, Miceli, & Jackson, 2006). Not only higher position in social hierarchy and self-esteem but also building adult identity is developed by adolescents thanks to having a romantic relationship (Dekovic and

Meeus, 1997). While adolescents develop an adult identity, they also experience managing emotions, and contributing to communication skills.

The relationships are gained experiences for intimate relationships in adulthood (Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode, Bunge, and Rothman, 2017). Moreover, roles in dating at early ages has an effect on later marital roles (Hansen, 1985). Although the relationships contribute social support and opportunity for sharing feelings among adolescents, they may have the first experiences of dating violence during teenage years. According to Cry, McDuff, and Wright (2006), most of the adolescents experience physical and emotional violence in their romantic relationships for the first time. Gender may influence the types of dating violence that they experience. According to Fernandez-Fuertes and Fuertes' study (2010), female participants report emotional and physical dating violence more than male participants. Moreover, Makepeace (1986) find that women experience sexual dating violence more than men. On the contrary of these studies, Carney, Buttel, and Dutton (2007) indicate that men can start dating violence as much as women. As there are different findings about gender effect for experiencing dating violence, it is important to throw light on impact of gender in dating violence among adolescents.

Exner-Cortens et al. (2017) longitudinal research shows that there is a cycle about dating violence from adolescence to adulthood. Furthermore, it is important to mention the roles in dating violence which are victim and perpetration. In dating violence, individuals may adopt both perpetrator and victim roles at the same time which is called interpartner violence (Fergusson, Boden, & Horwood, (2008). There is much research about adopting interpartner violence in a romantic relationship (Carbone-Lopez, Kruttschnitt, & Macmillan, 2006; Fergusson, Horwood, & Ridder, 2005; Fergusson et al., 2008). According to Park and Kim (2017), perpetrators also have victimization history.

The relationship between adolescents and their parents is crucial, since the relationship shapes adolescents' roles in dating violence (Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, & Povedano-Díaz, 2019; Sims, Dodd, and Tejada, 2008; Swinford, DeMaris, Cernkovich, & Giordano, 2000). When they develop insecure attachment, which is related with poor parenting, the adolescents tend to adopt the perpetrator role in dating violence (Tussey, Tayler, Simons, 2008). Also, if adolescents have parents who adopt

authoritarian parenting style, they tend to involve in dating violence as well (Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, and Povedano-Díaz, 2019). When it comes to interpartner violence among adolescents, there is a risk of violence if adolescents had physical discipline attitudes from their parents (Swinford, DeMaris, Cernkovich, & Giordano, 2000).

Another crucial issue is perceived parental acceptance / rejection while adolescents become adults. Rohner (1986) defines Parental Acceptance / Rejection theory (PARTheory) as individuals' perception of affection and love which is given from their caregiver or parents. If individuals develop insecure attachment with their parents which means they feel rejection from their parents, they may have aggression, stress and anxiety. In addition, individual's coping mechanism is affected negatively as well (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). So, feeling parental rejection affects their character in a negative manner. Moreover, Furman and Wehner (1997) claim that there are two reasons for the importance of parent-child relationships. The first one is attachment style and caretaking period determine characteristics of adolescents' romantic relationships. The manner of the parent relationship can reflect on the style of adolescents' date which is the second reason (Furman and Wehner, 1997). In addition to this, Hazan and Shaver (1994) support that quality of relationships with parents can form adolescents' romantic relationships as well.

As it is seen above, adolescents' perceived parental acceptance / rejection and romantic relationships have effects on their future lives. In the light of the literature, the current study is designed to address how perceived parental acceptance / rejection and gender as an individual factor is related with the roles of dating violence.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Although the concept of violence in intimate relationships is not new, the term of dating violence is a newly spoken in Turkey. When violence in intimate relationships may be interpreted as love among adolescents, knowing the term of dating violence gains more importance (Ayala, Modelda, Rodriguez-Franco, Galaz, Ramiro-Sánchez, & Diaz, 2014). Since perceived parental acceptance / rejection affects not only individuals' social and emotional development (Rohner, 1986) but also interpretation of love as well, examining dating violence and perceived parental acceptance / rejection together may have practical and theoretical implications.

When the relevant literature is examined, there are different findings about roles in dating abuse if the effect of gender is considered (Dardis et al., 2015; Makepeace, 1986; Park & Kim, 2017). Gender has an effect on not only roles in dating abuse, but also on perceiving parental acceptance / rejection (Babuşçu, 2014; Hussain, Alvi, Zeeshan, & Nadeem, 2013). Therefore, it is crucial to study gender as a factor which may have an influence on roles in dating violence which are perpetrator and victim when parental acceptance / rejection is taken into consideration among adolescents in Turkey. Also, the relationship between roles of victimization and perpetration in dating violence is crucial to understand the nature of dating violence among adolescents.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to examine adolescents according to their roles in dating violence and their perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender. In addition, it is aimed to investigate whether the victim role in dating violence is predicted by the perpetrator roles.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the purpose of the study, the following research questions are stated:

- 1) Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator role differ significantly in terms of gender?
- 2) Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly in terms of gender?
- 3) Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator role differ significantly in terms of their perceived mother acceptance/rejection?
- 4) Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator role differ significantly in terms of their perceived father acceptance/rejection?

- 5) Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly in terms of their perceived mother acceptance/rejection?
- 6) Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly in terms of their perceived father acceptance/rejection?
- 7) Can dating violence scores of adolescents who have perpetrator roles (in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence) be predicted by victim roles (in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence) in dating violence scores?

1.4 Significance of the Study

In adolescence period, individuals change both physically, emotionally, socially, morally, and mentally as well. During this period, while they change beyond all recognition; emotions, body image, developing identity and social environment are the hottest topics for adolescents (La Greca & Harrison, 2005). Also, developing peer relations is crucial in order to have social support and experience for future relationships. It contributes to developing a worldview when they move on to adulthood (Erikson, 1968 cited in Collins and Sprinthall, 1995). In addition, according to Rabaglietti and Clairano (2008), peer relations have an effect on adolescents' autonomy regulation, social skills, and dating behavior skills. While the relationships between adolescents and their parents remain, close social relationships are developed; particularly peer relations and romantic relations which include intimacy (Bayhan & Işitan, 2010).

Since individuals' love and attachment figures start to change in adolescence period, they experience dating relationships with their peers. Adolescents have dating relationships with individuals whose appearance is attractive for them or who can provide intimacy and support (Feiring, 1996). While having a dating relationship is beneficial for adolescents' self-esteem, identity development, social and communication skills, managing emotions etc. (Dekovic and Meeus, 1997; Furman & Shaffer, 2003), they may experience dating violence in the romantic relationship. Thus, adolescence period is important for development of individuals, but investigating dating violence among adolescents is essential as well. While exploring

dating violence, roles in dating violence which are the perpetrator and the victim are paid attention in order to understand the effect of dating violence on adolescents.

Along with understanding dating violence, adolescents' perceived parental acceptance/rejection also plays an important role as adolescents' transition into adult life. According to Rohner (1986), when adolescents feel rejection from their parents, they may develop stress, aggression, and anxiety. Thus, their coping mechanism and character development are affected negatively (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). When they feel high acceptance from their parents, adolescents may involve in violence less (Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, and Povedano-Díaz, 2019). Not only adolescents' personality but also future relationships are affected from perceived parental acceptance/rejection. Hence, investigating dating violence among adolescents with parental acceptance/rejection is made significant.

Even if there are studies that investigate dating violence with victimization, depression, anxiety, trauma and attachment etc. among adults and adolescents (e.g. Cinal, 2018; Park and Kim 2017; Yüce, 2019) it is uncommon for many previous studies to investigate adolescents according to their roles in dating violence, perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender, and to examine whether the role of victim is predicted by perpetrator role in dating violence. It is aimed that this thesis will make contribution to the literature and may encourage other researchers investigate this issue in detail. Moreover, this dissertation may support to develop sufficient dating violence prevention programs for adolescents.

1.5 Definitions

Dating: Two individuals who engage in emotional, romantic, and/or sexual relationship more than friendship who have similar commitment (Murray and Kardatzke, 2007).

Dating Abuse: One partner committing violence against the other or both partners against each other physically, emotionally, sexually, and/or verbally is called dating abuse in order to control or dominate (Toplu Demirtaş, 2015; WHO, 2013).

Physical Abuse: Partners damaging another partner's body in a physical way. Even if this damage does not hurt or leave a mark on the body, this behavior is still considered physical abuse (Love is Respect, 2019; WHO, 2013).

Emotional Abuse: One of the partners bring psychological and/or verbal damage to the other which includes intimidation, humiliation, blaming etc. (Love is Respect, 2019; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019; WHO, 2012). Also, emotional abuse is the aftereffect of all types of abuse (Leisring, 2013).

Sexual Abuse: One of the partners forcing another to sexual activity and/or prevent another to obtain birth control and/or condom (Love is Respect, 2019). There is no consent in sexual abuse (Office on Women's Health, 2019).

Stalking: Following a partner or an ex-partner consistently without getting permission (Love is Respect, 2019; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019).

Digital Abuse: One partner damaging the other or both each other in an online manner to control, dominate, or threaten (Love is Respect, 2019; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019).

Perpetrator: The partner who commits one or more types of abuse to the other in order to dominate, intimidate, or control (Flowers, 2002; Park & Kim, 2017).

Victim: The partner who experiences one or more types of abuse (Park & Kim, 2017).

Parental Acceptance: Individuals perceiving acceptance, warmth, love and affection from their caregiver (Rohner, 1986).

Parental Rejection: Individuals feeling rejected, cold, and unloved by their caregiver (Rohner, 1986).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

In this chapter, definition of dating violence, types of dating violence, theoretical perspectives of dating violence, dating violence among adolescents, and parental acceptance and rejection theory will be examined.

2.1 Definition of Dating Violence

Dating is defined as “two people in an intimate relationship” (Love is Respect, 2019a, para. 1). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), intimate partner relationships include formal partnerships like marriage, dating relationship, and sexual relationship (2013). However, Murray and Kardatzke (2007) describe dating as “a relationship in which two individuals share an emotional, romantic, and/or sexual connection beyond a friendship, but they are not married, engaged, or in a similarly committed relationship” (p.79). When it comes to defining abuse, terms like violence or aggression can be used instead of abuse (Toplu Demirtaş, 2015); abuse may be called as aggressive acts (Archer, 1994).

Sometimes dating violence may not be recognizable or may be considered as an expression of love (Ayala, Modelda, Rodriguez-Franco, Galaz, Ramiro-Sánchez, & Diaz, 2014). Because of this, it is crucial to be aware of the definition of dating violence. WHO (2013, p. 6) defines intimate partner violence as “one or more acts of physical and/or sexual violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15 years”. Although it refers to adolescents or unmarried university students (Toplu Demirtaş, 2015), WHO (2013) includes marriage and unmarried relationships as well. Dating violence which is defined by WHO (2013) may be considered inadequate. One of the extensive definitions is given by Flowers (2002): “Dating violence, like domestic or intimate violence is a means used by the perpetrator to control and dominate the victim through intimidation threats, and physical emotional, sexual, and verbal abuse (Flowers, 2000; Sousa, 1999)”. However, in the case of Turkey, dating violence is defined by Mor Çatı Women’s Shelter Foundation (2019) as referring to

physical, sexual, social, psychological, digital violence and stalking behaviors between people in a romantic relationship who are between 15-23 years old.

2.2 Types of Dating Violence

When the literature on dating violence is examined, physical, emotional, sexual, and verbal abuse step forward (Toplu Demirtaş, 2015; WHO, 2013). On the other hand, some sources add stalking, digital/cyber abuse, controlling behaviors/social abuse, and intimidation, use of isolation, coercion etc. (Love is Respect, 2019; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019; Flowers, 2002; Michigan Domestic Violence Prevention & Treatment Board, 2019). According to Leisring (2013), emotional abuse may involve intimidation, use of isolation, coercion, social abuse and verbal abuse as well for some cases. So, it may be hard to separate types of dating violence in a clear way since they are interrelated (Jackson, 1999).

Physical violence, which is also known as physical abuse and physical aggression, is studied frequently because of the advantage of simplicity and traceableness when dating violence studies are considered (Jackson, 1999). It is defined by WHO (2013, p. 6) as "Physical violence is defined as: being slapped or having something thrown at you that could hurt you, being pushed or shoved, being hit with a fist or something else that could hurt, being kicked, dragged or beaten up, being choked or burnt on purpose, and/or being threatened with, or actually, having a gun, knife or other weapon used on you." Along similar lines, Love is Respect (2019) draws attention to the purpose of the act: "Physical abuse is any intentional and unwanted contact with you or something close to your body. Sometimes abusive behavior does not cause pain or even leave a bruise, but it's still unhealthy." As an example, a partner forcing the other not to leave or pushing the other to go somewhere (Love is Respect, 2019).

Emotional abuse is also called psychological violence or verbal abuse (Love is Respect, 2019; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019; WHO, 2012). According to Follingstad (2007, p. 443), the term of aggression "covers a range of behavior, does not require a threshold severity level, and can consider whether an impact has occurred, but does not have to require that a person has been harmed" so, it should be preferred over the term of violence and abuse. Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation

(2019) defines psychological dating aggression as one of the partners behaving or speaking to another in the way which frightens, damages self-esteem and self-respect and leads to excuse of protection. Moreover, telling the partner what they should wear, any word or act of humiliation, criticizing, telling the partner's secrets to someone else, threats to take away children, insults are other examples of emotional abuse (WHO, 2012; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019). Moreover, emotional aggression is component and consequence of all types of abuse (Topçu Seçim, 2019). According to Leisring (2013), there are three types of emotional aggression which are "restrictive engulfment, denigration, and dominance/intimidation". When these examples are taken into account, they are under these types of psychological abuse umbrella.

Intimidation is defined as "making the victim fearful by using threatening behavior, abuse of animals; verbal aggression or destruction of property." by Michigan Domestic Violence Prevention & Treatment Board (2019, p. 3). When the definition is considered, the term may be categorized under emotional and physical abuse since perpetrator may use verbal or physical ways in order to intimidate. Not only intimidation but also coercion which is "threatening to find someone else if the dating partner doesn't comply with the abuser's wishes or demands; threats to harm self or others if the dating partner leaves." (Michigan Domestic Violence Prevention & Treatment Board, 2019, p. 3) and minimizing or blaming which is "telling the victim s/he is at fault for the abuse; claiming the victim is lying about the abuse; making light of the controlling behaviors." (Michigan Domestic Violence Prevention & Treatment Board, 2019, p. 3) could be considered as verbal and physical aggression as well.

Besides psychological aggression and physical abuse, sexual violence is another common research topic under the context of dating violence (Avşar Baldan & Akış, 2017; Love is Respect, 2019; WHO, 2012; WHO, 2013). Sexual dating abuse is also known as "sexual abuse, sexual aggression, sexual harassment, date rape" (Toplu-Demirtaş, 2015, p.29). Broad definition of sexual abuse is that it "refers to any action that pressures or coerces someone to do something sexual they don't want to do. It can also refer to behavior that impacts a person's ability to control their sexual activity or the circumstances in which sexual activity occurs, including oral sex, rape or restricting access to birth control and condoms" (Love is Respect, 2019). If the

definition is interpreted, the basic term of a sexual relationship is consent which is a clear acceptance in order to have sexual activity (Office on Women's Health, 2019).

Another kind of dating violence is stalking, which is to follow or watch someone continuously and causing fear and unsafe environment for the victim (Love is Respect, 2019). Stalker is the term for a person who stalks. Stalker may be an ex-partner or someone who is not known by the victim. Stalker tries to reach the victim via friends or tries to get victim's personal information without permission (Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019).

The last type of dating violence is digital abuse or cyber dating abuse which incorporates other abuses via technologies in an online way to control and threaten (Love is Respect, 2019; Mor Çatı Women's Shelter Foundation, 2019). It is common in association with adolescents and younger adults. (Office on Women's Health, 2019) Because of this, it is crucial to discuss cyber dating abuse.

2.3 Roles in Dating Violence

There are two dimensions for dating violence which are perpetration and victimization. While the perpetrator is a person who uses types of abuse against another in an intimate relationship in order to control, which means abuse of power, victim is exposed to these abuse or aggression (Flowers, 2002; Lewis and Fremouw, 2001; Park & Kim, 2017; Wolfe, Wekerle, Gough, Reitzel-Jaffe, Grasley, Pittman, Lefebvre, and Stumpf, 1996).

Park and Kim (2017) conduct meta-analysis in order to determine the roles in dating violence. According to their research, perpetrators and victims take both roles in intimate partner violence. When they analyzed the literature, they found that victims adopt perpetration role later in dating violence. In other words, perpetrators have victimization history more than history of perpetration. Moreover, the role of perpetration is related more to past and current victimization involvement and the role of victimization has an effect on additional violence (Park & Kim, 2017).

In addition to meta-analysis of Park and Kim (2017), when Lesiring's (2013) research results are examined, the researcher mentions "sole perpetrators" which means the person who has never been a victim of dating violence. Although Lesiring

(2013) only indicates sole perpetrations, there might be “sole victims” in dating violence as well.

2.4 Gender and Dating Violence

When the gender issue is taken into consideration in dating violence, a lot of research is conducted to understand how gender affects victimization and perpetration. Most of the research proves that both men and women engage in dating violence as perpetrator and victim (Baker & Stith, 2008; Dardis et al., 2015; Leisring, 2013; Park & Kim, 2017). While females take the role of victimization more, males show not only perpetration but also victimization in dating violence (Leisring, 2013; Park & Kim, 2017).

Even if it seems that men start aggression in romantic relationships, women can start it as much as men (Carney, Buttell, and Dutton, 2007). If a partner uses physical aggression as perpetrator, the other partner which is the victim may adopt the perpetrator role by using physical abuse which is a valid situation for both men and women (Baker and Stith, 2008).

Anger, emotional pain and inability to express verbally may lead perpetrators to use emotional and physical violence in romantic relationships. According to Leisring’s (2013) research, many women perpetrators use violence in retaliation because their partners hurt them emotionally. Ninety-five percent of college women perpetrators use emotional abuse and 30,5% of them use physical aggression toward their romantic partners (Leisring, 2013).

However, when it comes to types of violence, initiation of violence may differ for gender issue (Poitras & Lavoie, 1995). According to research of Poitras and Lavoie (1995) in high school, they find that while both some male and female students experience sexual violence as victim in romantic relationships, fourteen percent of male participants and six percent of female participants identify themselves as coercive to start having sex. Yet, other than the initiation of sexual violence in dating relationships, there is a gender difference about victimization and perpetration role for sexual violence in romantic relationships. Women as victims are reporting more sexual violence in dating relationship than men (Makepeace, 1986).

2.5 Dating Violence among Adolescents

During adolescence period, young men and women change not only physically and hormonally but also emotionally and socially. Peer relations, close friendships, and friendship support gain more importance than relationships with family in this period for adolescents which helps adolescents to develop individuality and self-concept (Bayhan & Işitan, 2010; Kalkan, 2008; La Greca & Harrison, 2005).

According to Erikson (1968), while adolescents try to establish new relationships, they also gain experience for future adulthood relationships. Concept of romance starts at the age of 15 among adolescents and most of them have romantic relationship experience (Feiring, 1996). The number of adolescents who have romantic relationship is more than adolescents who have never had a romantic relationship (Çevik, 2008).

Emerging of romantic relationships is crucial for them in order to build social network and support (La Greca & Harrison, 2005). It also enables adolescents to feel a part of social friendship groups and to help sharing their own feelings (Feiring, 1996). Like providing benefit for future adult relationships, dating is like a trial intimate and romantic adulthood relationships for adolescents (Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode, Bunge, and Rothman, 2017). Moreover, it is also important for the development of psychological health (Rizzo, Daley, Gunderson, 2006). Although, having romantic relationships contributes to adolescents in a beneficial way, sometimes, violent behaviors may appear in dating (Wolfe, Scott, Reitzel-Jaffe, Wekerle, Grasley, & Straatman, 2001).

Even if adolescents feel upset in intimate relationships because of dating violence, they may interpret this violence as a sign of love (Ayala et al, 2014). Moreover, they may not have experience about romantic relationships (Öztürk, 2017). So, they may prefer to continue the relationship. Other than misinterpretation of love, having a romantic relationship gives adolescents social acceptance, high self-confidence, and an identity. So, there is a common belief among them that having dating violence is better than having nothing (Öztürk, 2017). Moreover, peer pressure on adolescents who do not have romantic relations is another reason to stay in dating violence (Öztürk, 2017).

Adolescents who are victims in dating violence may tend to have suicidal thoughts, depression, poor self-esteem and engage in other violent behaviors (Ackard, Neumark-Sztainer, & Hannan, 2003; Howard & Wang, 2003). Because of these effects of dating violence on adolescence, it is crucial to enlighten dating violence.

2.6 Dating Violence Research

Dating takes a crucial place in adolescents' lives. They expect love, friendship, and happiness from intimate relationships (Jackson, 1999) especially if the expectation is a romantic relationship. When it is considered that the early experience of dating may leave a mark for adulthood intimate relationships, then understanding dating violence among adolescents is important for not only young men and women but also adults.

Cry, McDuff, and Wright (2006) conducted a research about dating violence behaviors among adolescents who are 13-17 years old and victims of child sexual abuse. While more than 45% of participants experience physical dating violence, more than 90% of them experience emotional dating violence. Researchers find that age is positively correlated with female adolescent perpetration. When age increases, young women perpetration increases as well (Cry, McDuff & Wright, 2006). Yet, Moore, Elkins, McNulty, Kivisto, and Handsel (2011) investigate the relationship between alcohol use and dating violence perpetration among college students by using electronic diary. Moore et al. (2011) find that participants report less dating violence perpetration while their age is increasing for both men and women.

The range of dating violence is found to be from 9% to 65% (Ayala et al., 2014; Fernández- Fuertes & Fuertes, 2010). Ayala et al. (2014) intend to learn adolescents' self-perception of dating violence with their feelings of fear and entrapment and determine extensiveness of different types of dating violence or victimization situations with these feelings. According to Ayala et al. (2014), dating violence is correspondent among men and women, they can be both perpetrators or victims in the romantic relationships which contain various types of violence such as emotional, physical or sexual. Results of the research show that participants who feel abused report that they are exposed more to eight forms of victimization than participants who do not feel abused. In addition, participants who feel abused and afraid present that

they have higher prevalence of humiliation and physical abuse than participants who feel abused and not afraid. Participants who feel abused, afraid and trapped report that they have sexual and physical abuse more than those who feel abused, afraid and not trapped. Moreover, they who feel afraid and trapped but not abused disclose that higher prevalence in humiliation, sexual and physical abuse, coercion, gender-based violence than those who feel just afraid but not abused or trapped. When it comes to total results, most participants answer “no” to questions about whether they experience abuse or not in their romantic relationship. Ayala et al. (2014) conclude that this result may be connected to misinterpretation of expression of love. Adolescents are likely to label dating violence as sign of love (Agoff et al., 2006; Castro & Casique, 2007; Méndez & Sánchez, 2009; Vázquez & Castro, 2008 cited in Ayala et al., 2014).

Fernandez-Fuertes and Fuertes (2010) investigate the prevalence of verbal – emotional and physical aggression in romantic relationships, relationship of dating violence perpetration and results of dating violence for victims. Participants’ ages are between 15-19 years old. They have heterosexual romantic relationships or had the relationship in the past 12 months. Researchers ask two types of questions for relational variables: open ended questions in order to learn the length of the relationship and time spent together; multiple choice questions to understand frequency with which participants see each other, commitment, and seriousness of the relationship. In addition to these questions, a brief Spanish version of Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationship Inventory (Wolfe et al., 2001) is used in order to explain victimization and perpetration. According to Fernandez-Fuertes and Fuertes (2010)’s findings verbal – emotional aggression is reported more significantly. Although female participants share frequency of perpetrating verbal – emotional and physical aggressions more than male participants, there is only significant difference for verbal – emotional perpetration. When it comes to victimization of Spanish adolescents, there is no sex difference. Moreover, a remarkable relationship between the perpetration and victimization of types of aggressions is found across genders. Fernandez-Fuertes and Fuertes (2010) find that jealousy is reportedly one of the most important factors for using dating violence. Lastly, while dating violence increases between Spanish adolescents, their well-being decreases or vice versa (Fernandez-Fuertes and Fuertes, 2010).

In order to establish that adolescent dating is partly responsible for interpersonal violence among adolescents especially for adult partner violence, Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode, Bunge, and Rothman (2017) conducted a longitudinal research. They designed four waves for research that are wave 1: 1994-1995, wave 2: 1996, wave 3: 2001-2002, wave 4: 2007-2008. Participant age is between 12-18 years old who report adolescent dating violence pair with nonvictimized participants between wave 1 and 2 interviews. Exner-Cortens et al. follow the participants through wave 3 and 4 which lasts totally 12 years. According to the result of the research, there is a greater risk for female and male victims, when Exner-Cortens et al. (2017) compared females and males as victims and nonvictims. For male adolescent dating violence, there is more risk of physical violence revictimization than female adolescent dating violence. Likewise, if participants have adolescent dating violence in wave 2 and (also) wave 3, their possibility of revictimization increases in wave 4 for both males and females, which means if they experience psychological or physical adolescent dating violence in wave 2 and (also) 3, physical intimate partner violence may be re-experienced in wave 4. That is the cycle of interpartner dating violence from adolescence to adulthood. The significance of the romantic relationship for adolescents can be evaluated as evidence since it has a role for forming their development while they are becoming adults (Exner-Cortens et al., 2017). The other important issue is that psychological abuse begins before physical abuse (Loinaz, Ortiz-Tallo, & Ferragut, 2012; Novo, Fariña, Seijo, & Arce, 2012). Moreover, in Exner-Cortens et al. (2017)'s research there is connection between psychological dating violence in adolescence and physical intimate partner violence in adulthood.

To sum up, when these researches are examined one of the basic issues is that adolescents fail to interpret signs of love as distinguished from dating violence. Another one is that there is a relation between adolescents' experience of dating and adulthood intimate relationships.

2.7 Dating Violence Research in Turkey

Literature on dating violence among adolescents in Turkey examines participants who are generally above 18 years old which includes young adulthood (Toplu, Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; Aslan Vefikuluçay, Zeyneloğlu, Erdost, and Temel,

2008; Topçu Seçim, 2019; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013). One of the exceptions is Parlak (2018), which investigates the effectiveness of a prevention program for partner violence among adolescents. When the results are examined, scores of perpetrations of psychological and physical dating violence for both women and men are significantly different (Parlak, 2018).

Aslan Vefikuluçay, Zeyneloğlu, Erdost, and Temel (2008) compares perpetration and victimization situations of freshmen and senior students from two universities and their ideas. According to results of the research, while 26,6% of the participants are used to be the victim in their romantic relationship, 21,6% of the participants who have an intimate partner currently are the victim in their relationship. In addition to this, 18,4% of the participants used to have a partner who is a perpetrator and 12,4% of the participations who currently have romantic relationships are perpetrators in their relationship as well. Aslan et al. (2008) report that while literature define some behaviors as dating violence (e.g., mocking, jealousy, stalking, and nipping etc.), participants do not evaluate these behaviors as dating violence because of normalization. On the other hand, while the age of participants is rising, their victimization is increasing with it. Aslan et al. (2008) explains this situation that since definition of dating violence is becoming common, they may evaluate their relationship with perspective of dating violence. So, awareness about dating violence is increasing.

On the other hand, it is valuable to mention the research about dating violence among young adults, since according to Social Learning (Bandura, 1973) and Attachment Theory (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991) younger ages reflect on adulthood. Hence, adulthood intimate relationships may give an idea about adolescents' dating violence. Toplu and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2011) conducted a research about types of dating violence according to gender and role of dating violence (perpetrator and victim) by using the revised conflict tactics scales. Results of the research show that 24% of participants who are in relationship currently are victims of psychological dating violence, %10 of the participants are victims of physical dating aggression, and %6 of the participants are victims of sexual dating violence. Totally, while 30% of participants who have continued the relationship or not, suffer from psychological dating violence, 12% of the participants suffer from physical dating aggression and

5% of the participants suffer from sexual dating aggression as well. When it comes to the gender variable, the ratios are close between males and females in terms of perpetration and victimization (female & male victimization: 36,7% & 39,4%; female & male perpetration: 41,3% & 40,1%) (Toplu & Hatipoğlu, 2011).

Another study on dating violence is about the relation between Investment Model, which foresees adherence and satisfaction in romantic relationship (Rusbult, 1980), and dating victimization. Toplu-Demirtaş, Hatipoğlu-Sümer and White (2013) investigate “how much a person has already invested in the relationship” which “consists of four components: commitment, level of satisfaction, size of investment made, and perception of the availability of alternatives” and dating violence victimization (p. 206). They noticed that psychological and physical victimization are negatively associated with satisfaction (Toplu Demirtaş, Hatipoğlu-Sümer, & White, 2013). In addition, while 79.3% of participants express that they experience psychological abuse in intimate relationships, 22.8% of the participants indicate that they are assaulted sexually, and 37% of them experience physical violence in dating (Toplu Demirtaş, Hatipoğlu-Sümer, & White, 2013).

Lastly, Üçok Demir, Irmak, Murat, and Perdahlı Fiş (2016) reached some findings about dating violence in Turkey. They examined forensic cases between September 2010 and December 2012 about adolescents who experience sexual assault. They are between 12-18 years old. The research shows that 52.3% of participants are assaulted sexually by their boyfriend in an intimate relationship. Further, 31.4% of the participants who experienced sexual abuse by their boyfriends are victimized more than once (Üçok Demir et al., 2016).

To sum up, when these researches are examined, normalization of dating violence and almost all types of dating violence are experienced by young men and women.

2.8 Theoretical Perspectives of Dating Violence

In order to explain intimate partner violence or dating violence, it is important to understand theoretical perspectives which are combined by Dardis, Dixon, Edwards, and Turchik, (2015) as sociocultural theories which are feminist and coercion theories, learning/intergenerational transmission of violence theories which

are social learning and background/situational theories, and individual differences theories which are personality and typology theories. On the other hand, Üstünel Balcı (2018) integrates frameworks of existing prevention programs for dating violence in her dissertation which are the feminist framework: gender and power theories, the skill-based framework: emotion dysregulation and poor conflict resolution, and the cycle of violence framework: social learning theory. Wekerle and Wolfe (1999), use social learning, attachment, and feminist theories for their study and intervention in dating violence instead of combining theories. Likewise, Yumuşak (2013) prefers not to integrate these theories either, which are feminist theory, power theory, attachment theory, and social learning theory in his dissertation. Other than these theories, Toplu Demirtaş (2015) adds behavioral theories - contextual framework in her study. When these studies are examined, since the common concepts that are feminist, social learning, and attachment theories are related dating issues among adolescents for this dissertation more than others, these theories will be covered in the following chapters.

2.8.1 Feminist theory. Feminist theory examines power, gender, and sexuality as the main concern (Hester & Donovan, 2009). The theory explains dating violence as men having control and power over women, which is gender inequality and construction of masculinity (Dardis et al., 2015). Thus, it may not be separated from power and control theories (Üstünel Balcı, 2018). In order to keep or get back power, males may try to control women when they do not have enough income or education or when they judge that their power is lower than women (Üstünel Balcı, 2018). With the contribution of the gender roles and learning theories, children learn masculinity and femininity in childcare and household tasks, for example, while men are caretaking in childhood, women are caregiving, such as infant care (Serbin, Powlistha, & Gulko, 1993). In addition to this, while males are encouraged to be aggressive and assertive, females are promoted to be obedient or cooperative and passive in gender roles.

Before the post-modernist feminist movements, dating violence was defined as gender-specific, in that men are perpetrators, and women are victims, thus ignoring same-sex intimate relationships (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). With the beginning of third wave feminist movements, as men engage in dating violence in order to obtain power, control and status, women may do the same as well, which means women may use

dating violence over men to protect their femininity (White, 2009). Thus, self-defense arguments, control, temper, and jealousy are triggers for both males and females (Dardis et al., 2015). While demographic, personal, and interpersonal variables are taken into account, psychological, relational, and some individual factors are not included in feminist theory for dating violence (Dardis et al., 2015).

In conclusion, Feminist theory focuses on gender inequality, gender roles and patriarchy among married couples at the beginning (Toplu Demirtaş, 2015). It advocates that males try to control females by using physical power over females. Then, with the help of post-modernist movements, Feminist Theory changes form of the consideration. These movements add multiple forms of violence, female's perpetration, and same sex dating violence (Hester & Donovan, 2009; Toplu Demirtaş, 2015).

2.8.2 Social learning theory. Bandura (1973) who developed social learning theory claims that external powers have effect on responses rather than inner sources which means behaviors are learned rather than innate. The theory explains that humans gain responses by observing, imitating, and modeling (Bandura, 1973). Intergenerational transmission of violence and background-situational theories which are under social learning theory are used to describe dating violence (Dardis et al., 2015). For intergenerational transmission of violence theory, violence raises violence which means humans learn violent behaviors from each other via their relationships (Curtis, 1963; Bandura, 1977 cited in Dardis et al., 2015). In addition, if people are witnesses of marital violence in a family environment, they may tend to engage in dating violence or marital abuse (Stith & Farley, 1993).

According to the background-situational theory (Riggs & O'Leary, 1996) while people decide to resort to violence, their background factors like experiencing aggression connect with their circumstantial points like communication styles. Witnessing interparental aggression and/or experiencing child abuse have an effect on personality and psychopathology which also means adoption and/or acceptance of aggression and violence. So, these factors reflect on romantic relations as well (Riggs & O'Leary, 1996).

Gender roles are learned in childhood from parents, so the theory explains abuse as a gender issue (Jackson, 1999) like before post-modern feminist movements.

However, Breslin, Riggs, O'Leary, & Arias (1990) realize that while men who are witnesses of maternal assault use aggression in dating relationships, women are affected of interparental aggression.

Moreover, social ecological perspective which focuses on genetic, self-system, influenced by personal, dispositional factors defines dating violence with social-environmental and individual predictors like background-situational theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Also, according to ecological perspective, individuals are affected by their environment as not only witnessing and/or experiencing parental violence background (Boxer, Rowell Huesmann, Dubow, Landau, Gvirsman, Shikaki, & Ginges, 2012), but also peers' behaviors (Boxer, Guerra, Huesmann, & Morales, 2005) and teachers (Boxer, Musher-Eizenman, Dubow, Heretick, & Danner, 2006) etc. In addition, Benda and Corwyn (2002) found that while adolescents may learn abusing behaviors from their peers, behaviors of peers have an effect on older adolescents' behaviors who are between 16-18 years old, family interactions affect younger adolescents' behaviors more about abusive behaviors (Benda and Corwyn, 2002).

To sum up, Social Learning Theory covers intergenerational transmission of violence theory, background-situational theory, and social ecological theory all together.

2.8.3. Attachment theory. The relationship between infants and their caregivers has an influence on their emotional and social development especially their future close relationships, environment and perception of self (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). If infants have a secure relationship with their caregivers, which means when the caregivers meet the infants' needs emotionally, physically, and socially, the infants develop secure close relationships in their adulthoods (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

When attachment theory is evaluated, if individuals experience insecure attachments with their caregivers, they may adopt avoidant and anxious attachment styles in adult life (Bowlby, 1988). It is also related to using violence while they build relationships (Dutton, 1995). Tussey, Tyler, & Simons (2018) find that there is a relationship between parental relationship quality and dating violence perpetration. Tussey, Tyler, & Simons (2018) explain that people who have a strong relationship

with their mother in their childhood may not tend to be perpetrators of dating violence in intimate relationships.

According to Kesebir, Özdoğan Kavzaoğlu, and Üstündağ (2011) and Riggs (2010), even if adolescents whose emotional and social development continue try to reduce their interaction with their family, they expect their family to be present whenever they need them. Thus, their attachment development continues as well. When they become adults, they may see the effect of this previous attachment style. Bartholomew (1990, cited in Dutton, 1995) claims that if a person wants to have intimate relationships with others which may be romantic or not, but s/he felt frustrated or rejected in childhood while s/he developed a relationship with his/her parents, s/he may develop dysfunctional protest behavior which may be abusive or violent behavior. Thus, if people do not develop secure attachments, they may tend to be perpetrators in intimate relationships (Dutton, 1995). Also, insecure attachment at early ages which affects emotion regulation, social functioning, perception of self negatively, may result in intimate insecure adult attachment. Because of this, it may embody the quality of intimate or romantic relationships (Riggs, 2010). Thus, it may lead up to intimate partner violence in dating.

As Social Learning Theory explains some violent behaviors of individuals by exposing and/or learning these behaviors from their environment, Attachment Theory interprets violent behavior in romantic relationship with poor and/or aggressive relationship with their caregivers which means insecure attachment.

2.9 Parental Acceptance and Rejection

Research on the relationship between parents and children began in the 1890's (Stogdill, 1937 cited in Rohner, 1986). However, until 1930's there was no practical study (Rohner, 1986). During 1930's and 1940's, Fels Research Institute and Smith College Studies in Social Work developed research about effects of the parental acceptance and rejection (Rohner, 1986). Symonds (1939, cited in Rohner 1986) added parental control to parental acceptance and rejection. By the 1960's Schafer and colleagues showed warmth and control dimensions of parenting. Then, their study continued until 1980's and they developed Children's Report of Parent's Behavior Inventory (Rohner, 1986).

When time gets along to 1990's, especially three studies promote improvement of Parental Acceptance and Rejection Theory (PARTheory) (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). First one is Rollins and Thomas' (1979) study which is about parental supportive behavior. Second prominent study is Baumrind's (1991) parenting styles which are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and rejecting/neglecting. Last affectional study conducted by Downey, Feldman and colleagues (Downey and Feldman, 1996; Feldman and Downey, 1994) is on rejection sensitivity which states "interpersonal rejection – especially parental rejection in childhood – leads children to develop heightened sensitivity to being rejected" (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005, p. 303). By 2000, PARTheory is extended to involve intimate adult relationships and other significant interpersonal relationships. This extension enables to rename PARTheory to its current name which is Interpersonal parental acceptance-rejection theory (IPARTheory).

Love is one of the basic needs for children's social and emotional development while they are growing up regardless of their culture, ethnicity or gender etc. (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Rohner (1986) defines PARTheory as perceived acceptance or rejection by children from their primary caregiver that refers to the parent. It is the interpretation of children that is the main concept of the theory which is based on the warmth dimension. If the children take affection and love from parents not only physically but also verbally such as kissing, hugging, or praise, they feel accepted and warmth (Rohner, 1986). Parental rejection is the reverse of feeling warmth which is the deficiency of affection and love psychologically and/or physically that is defined as cold and unaffectionate (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Other than cold and unaffectionate, there are three forms of feeling rejected as well that are hostile and aggressive, which means that children experience physical aggression or/and unfavorable feelings from their parents (e.g. hitting, sarcasm), indifferent and neglecting, which means that parents are not available or do not pay attention for children's emotional, physical and social needs (e.g. ignoring the needs of the children), and undifferentiated rejection which means that the children think that they are not loved by their parents (Rohner, 1986).

IPARTheory includes three sub-theories which are personality sub-theory, coping sub-theory, and sociocultural systems model and sub-theory (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005).

2.9.1 IPAR personality sub-theory. Perceived parental warmth and rejection may enable us to predict and interpret children's major personality development (Rohner & Rohner, 1981). Every person wants to meet biological needs as well as emotional needs thanks to positive responses like support, concern, maintenance, and satisfaction (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Quality of the relationship between children and their caregiver or significant others determines psychological and emotional health of the children. Personality sub-theory seeks answers to two basic questions. First one is to learn if all children who are from different sociocultural systems, racial or ethnic groups etc. incline the same way when they feel themselves as rejected or accepted by their attachment figures or significant one or not. Another question is to understand how the children's perception of acceptance and rejection continue to adulthood and old age.

Ainsworth's (1989) attachment figures take place in not only attachment theory but also IPARTheory. Since children need emotional security and comfort from their parents or caregiver who is crucial for them in terms of secure attachment, these two theories share the same corner stone. However, IPAR personality sub-theory differentiates with adults' sense of emotional security, psychological adaptation and well-being because adults establish a relation between their perceived quality of relationship and their current significant others or attachment figures instead of old remembered childhood memory with caregivers (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005).

If the value of the relationship does not meet their emotional needs which means the children feels insecure and anxious because of parents' rejection they may develop dependent personality as reported by Rohner, Khaleque, and Cournoyer (2005). The term of dependent personality or dependence is defined as intense desire for positive response which is a relationship between dependency and rejection (Rohner, 2016). Adolescents and adults may reveal their desire of positive responses more in a visible way by looking for reassurance, support, and affection from people who are significant to them or attachment figures for them (Rohner, Khaleque, &

Cournoyer, 2005). Other personality results of the term “dependence” are passive aggression, emotional unresponsiveness, negative worldview, or/and hostility because perceived rejection from significant others creates psychological pain (Rohner, 2016). In addition to psychological pain, according to Eisenberger (2012) social rejection or loss activates the specific part of brain that is the same area when people have physical pain. In other words, when people feel rejected, their senses are similar to when they have actual physical pain.

Some individuals who feel rejected turn into defensive independents which is they reject other people who reject them (Rohner, 2016). It is a process of counter rejection since they deny their warmth needs (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). According to Rohner, Khaleque, and Cournoyer (2005), this situation is similar to symbolic interaction theory (Cooley 1902; Mead 1934) which means people tend to consider themselves as their attachment figures view them. If they feel rejected, they may tend to view themselves as they are unlovable which is decrease self-worth, self-value, and self-adequacy. These feelings may cause anger, so it affects dealing with stress and anxiety insufficiently (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Moreover, these all-negative feelings are related with mental representation which is defined as “an individual’s more-or-less organized but usually implicit conception of existence, including a conception of things that the individual takes for granted about self, others, and the experiential world, as constructed from emotionally significant past and current experiences” (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005, p. 313). The term “mental representation” affects how people collect and keep in mind their own experiences. Because individuals feel rejected by significant others, they may tend to perceive and interpret their experiences with distorted mental representation. This situation may lead them to have difficulty to trust or get attached to others as a result of selective attention and understanding that is rejection sensitivity (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005) as mentioned before in this dissertation.

To conclude, perceived rejection by caregivers for children, significant others, and attachment figures for adults affect individuals’ lifelong social-emotional functioning negatively (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005; Rohner, 2016; Rohner & Rohner, 1981).

2.9.2 IPAR coping sub-theory. Coping sub-theory tries to explain how some individuals have emotional resiliency more than others while they deal with experience of rejection from their parents, caregiver or significant others. Two terms come to the fore in this theory which are affective copers and instrumental copers (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Although individuals feel rejected by their family or attachment figures, individuals who are affective copers have good emotional, mental health state. As for instrumental copers, they are rejected too, even if they are good at task-oriented activities, occupations, and academic performance, they struggle with emotional and mental problems (Rohner, 2016).

Coping sub-theory adopts multivariate model which has three elements which are self, other, and context. This theory defines behavior of individuals as “a function of the interaction between self, other, and context” (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005, p.315). “Self” characteristics involve internal (biological) and external (personality) characteristics which is people’s mental activity description. “Other” characteristics includes form, repetitiveness, period, and severity of rejected behaviors from individuals’ personal and interpersonal tendency of rejection. “Context” characteristics involve attachment figures in people’s lives associated with social-circumstantial characteristics of individual’s environment (Rohner, 2015). Thanks to the existence of alternate affectionate and supportive significant others, even if individuals experience perceived parental rejection, their coping mechanism may work when all other things are equivalent (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005).

Social cognitive capabilities may enable individuals to use their coping mechanisms (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). This capability involves a differentiated sense of self, a sense of autonomy, and the competency to depersonalize (Rohner, 1986). When individuals who are rejected have a sense of self-determination, differentiated sense of self and a developed depersonalization, their ability to cope increases (Rohner, 2016).

2.9.3 IPAR sociocultural system model and sub-theory. Sociocultural system model and sub-theory try to foresee and describe parental acceptance and rejection in a comprehensive way. According to this sub-theory, it is not possible to explain the causes of parental acceptance and rejection without considering the effect of the ecological system. It demonstrates parents' or attachment figures' behaviors in the context of society which is institutionalized express systems and behaviors, for example traditions, beliefs, political organizations, family structures etc. (Rohner, 2016).

It is crucial to learn the causes of parental acceptance and rejection for sociocultural system model and sub-theory. However, it is also important to understand the effects of parents' such behaviors on children's personality development as in personality sub-theory. The sub-theory supports that there is bidirectional interaction among factors which are natural environment, maintenance system, parental behavior, child personality/behavior, intervening developmental experiences, adult personality/behavior, and institutionalized expressive systems and behaviors (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005; Rohner, 2016). For example, parents', attachment figures', or significant others' behaviors have effects on children's character. Also, children's behavior affects their parents' behaviors as well (Rohner Khaleque, and Cournoyer, 2005).

2.10 Parental Acceptance/Rejection and Dating Violence

The bond between parents or caregiver and children has an important role as they become adults as mentioned before. When literature is examined, relationship between parenting styles, conflict between parents, interparental violence and dating violence draw the attention other than the examining adolescents according to parental acceptance/rejection and dating violence together.

Social Learning Theory supports that individuals learn how to behave among others by observing behaviors of parents or other important individuals (Bandura, 1973). According to Bandura (1973), violent tendencies are not inherited, they are learned by modeling someone else. In addition, intergenerational transmission of violence theory claims that individuals who are abused or witnessed interparental violence may later become perpetrator or victim of abuse including dating violence as

Social Learning Theory mentioned (Gwartney-Gibbs, Stockard, & Bohmer, 1987). Thus, investigating effects of perceived parental acceptance/rejection on dating violence gain importance in order to interpret individuals' violent behavior in romantic relationship.

According to Sims, Dodd, and Tejada's (2008) research men who have violence experiences at home are more likely to engage in dating violence than women as perpetrators which means social learning context at home has influence on becoming dating violence perpetrator later. Whereas Gover, Kaukinen, and Fox (2008) claim that both men and women who are exposed to violence in childhood at home are predictor of adopting perpetrator and victim role in dating violence.

When Attachment Theory which focuses on early relationship between parents and children is considered, development of attachment style is related with Social Learning Theory as well (Bowlby, 1988; Rohner, 1987). Moreover, parents' attachment style and parenting skills are connected which means insecure attachment is linked with poor parenting style (Gordon, 2003). Children who are raised with insecure attachment have potential poor coping mechanisms, emotional regulation, and low competence (Gordon, 2003). In the light of research about attachment and parenting style, Tussey, Tayler, and Simons (2018) assert that when children experienced physical abuse and had poor maternal relationship while they are raised, they adopt perpetrator role in dating violence among young individuals attending college. In other words, early experience with family abuse and attachment anxiety is associated with dating violence perpetration (Lee, Reese-Weber, & Kahn, 2014; Tussey, Tayler, and Simons, 2018). Furthermore, according to Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, and Povedano-Díaz (2019), while adolescents who have authoritarian parents which means low acceptance and high severity have higher risk in dating violence, adolescents who have indulgent parents which means low use of strictness and high acceptance have lower risk in dating violence. Especially, mothers' parenting style affects adolescents more than fathers' parenting style in dating violence (Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, and Povedano-Díaz, 2019).

To sum up, the effect of adolescent and parent relationship on dating violence among adolescence gains importance, even if PARTheory may not directly considered with dating violence in literature, there is some observed effect of interparental

violence, parenting and attachment style on dating violence (Gover, Kaukinen, & Fox, 2008; Lee, Reese-Weber, & Kahn, 2014; Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, & Povedano-Díaz, 2019; Sims, Dodd, and Tejeda, 2008; Tussey, Tayler, and Simons, 2018).



Chapter 3

Method

In this dissertation, quantitative methods was used in order to investigate adolescents according to their roles in dating violence, perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender, and to examine whether the role of victim is predicted by perpetrator role in dating violence.

3.1 Research Design

This study is conducted according to correlational/descriptive design. Researchers investigate the relation or association between variables via using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2008). This dissertation searches adolescents according to their roles in dating violence, perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender, and whether the role of victim is predicted by perpetrator role in dating violence.

The design of this study has two independent variables which are gender and parental acceptance / rejection, and one dependent variable (dating violence) with three subdimensions which are emotional, physical and cyber dating violence.

3.2 Participants

Participants who are between 15-18 years old will be high school students in Turkey. Data is collected from volunteer students via creating online form on “Google Forms” between in the month April 2020 – May 2020. For data collection 71 questions is distributed.

The research study group is consisting of 193 female (63,1%) and 113 male (36,9%) participants. The number of participants is 30 (9,8%) for age 15, 67 (21,9%) for age 16, 113 (36,9%) for age 17, and 96 (31,4%) for age 18. The demographic characteristic of participants is summarized Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Information of Participants

Category		N	%
Age Groups			
	15	30	9,8
	16	67	21,9
	17	113	36,9
	18	96	31,4
Gender			
	Female	193	63,1
	Male	113	36,9
The Number of Dating			
	1	82	26,8
	2 to 4	144	47,1
	5 and more	80	26,1
Total		306	100

Participants indicated that 240 of them (78.4%) adopt perpetrator role, 257 of them experience victim role in dating violence as can be seen Table 2. In addition, there are 34 participants (88.9%) who indicate perceived maternal rejection and 42 participants (13.7%) who express perceived paternal rejection as can be seen Table 3 as well.

Table 2

Perpetrator and Victim Role in Dating Violence Information of Participants

Category	N	%
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Perpetrator	240	78.4
Victim	257	84

Table 3

Perceived Parental Acceptance/Rejection Information of Participants

Category	N	%
Perceived Maternal Acceptance	272	88.9
Perceived paternal Acceptance	264	86.3

3.3 Procedures

3.3.1 Data collection instruments. Four self-report measures will be included in this study. These self-report measures in Turkish can be listed as follows: Personal Information Form, Parental Acceptance - Rejection Questionnaire - Short Form (Child PARQ / Short Form: mother and father version), and Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI) Short Form are provided in Appendices. Data was collected in an online way under COVID19 and quarantine circumstance.

3.3.1.1 Personal information form. The personal information form is developed by researcher. The form is administered to participants in order to gather information about personal information of participants concerning age, gender, and the number of intimate relationships.

3.3.1.2 The parental acceptance – rejection questionnaire (child PARQ / short form: mother and father version). The Parental Acceptance - Rejection Questionnaire which is self-report instrument was developed by Rohner (1975) in order to understand children's, parents', or adults' current perception about their experiences maternal and paternal acceptance and rejection. There are four versions of PARQ which are (1) Early Childhood PARQ, (2) Child PARQ, (3) Adult PARQ, and (4) Parent PARQ (Rohner & Ali, 2016). All versions consist of two forms for both mother and father application (Dedeler, Akün, & Durak-Batıgün, 2017).

The questionnaire has four sub-scales: (1) warmth and affection (or coldness and lack of affection, when reverse scored; e.g., “Was really interested in what I did”), (2) hostility and aggression (e.g., “Punished me severely when s/he was angry”), (3) indifference and neglect (e.g., “Paid no attention to me”), and (4) undifferentiated rejection (e.g., “Seemed to dislike me”) (Şahbudak Barış, 2016). The Early Childhood PARQ (ECPARQ) is developed to be used with children who are between 4 -7 years old. The Child PARQ is constructed to be used with children who are 7 until their ongoing contact with their parent end. The Adult PARQ is developed to be used with adults in order to express their earlier experience with parents in childhood. The Parent PARQ is designed for parents in order to reflect on their present accepting-rejecting behaviors toward their child (Rohner & Ali, 2016).

The PARQ consists of totally 60 items which are 20 items for warmth/ affection sub-scale, 15 items for the hostility/aggression and indifference/neglect sub-scales, and 10 items for the undifferentiated rejection sub-scale. The short forms of PARQ include 24 items which are 8 items for the warmth/affection sub-scale, 6 items for the hostility/aggression and indifference/neglect sub-scales, and 4 items for the undifferentiated rejection sub-scale (Rohner & Ali, 2016). When PARQ score is calculated, 4-point Likert is used that is 1 point for “almost never true”, 2 points for “rarely true”, 3 points for “sometimes true”, 4 points for “almost always true”. Total scores of PARQ is ranged from 60 to 240. Warmth/ affection sub-scale score is calculated in a reverse way. If participants get lower score, it means participants have greater acceptance from their parent (Şahbudak Barış, 2016; Rohner & Ali; 2016). Khaleque and Rohner (2002) investigate the reliability of the Child, Adult, and Parent versions of the questionnaire in a meta-analysis of 51 studies worldwide. Coefficient

alphas of the scale across these three versions of the PARQ and across all ethnic and sociocultural groups of the world is .89. In addition, coefficient alphas of the Child PARQ is .89, for the Adult PARQ it is .95, and for the Parent PARQ it is .84 (Rohner & Ali, 2016; Babuşçu, 2014). Moreover, the test-retest reliability of the scale is .93 (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002).

The adaptation of PARQ to Turkish (Ebeveyn Kabul – Red Ölçeği, EKRÖ) is developed by Polat (1988). According to Polat's study (1988), while the alpha coefficients of sub-scales of PARQ is ranged from .76 to .89, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of total scale of PARQ is .80. The child version of PARQ is translated to Turkish by Erdem (1990). According to Erdem (1990), while the alpha coefficients of sub-scales of PARQ is ranged from .78 to .90, test-retest reliability coefficient of sub-scale of the questionnaire is ranged from .85 to .90. Erkman (2003) indicates that the Cronbach alpha values of Turkish Child PARQ -Long Form, it is .81 for mother version, it is .85 for father version.

Yılmaz (2007) studies the reliability of Child PARQ short form in her dissertation with sample of eight, ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades of students in İstanbul. The participants' age is ranged from 13 to 18. Yılmaz (2007) examines corrected item – total correlations and Cronbach alpha coefficients of four sub-scales which are for 8 items for warmth/ affection sub-scale, 6 items for the hostility/aggression and indifference/neglect sub-scales, and 4 items for the undifferentiated rejection sub-scale for both mother and father forms. As reported by the mother form, Cronbach alpha values for warmth/ affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection are .88, .69, .66, .53 and item total correlations are ranged from .20 to .72. In addition, Cronbach alpha coefficients is .89 (Yılmaz, 2007). When it comes to the father form, Cronbach alpha values for warmth/ affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection are .88, .66, .70, .65 and item total correlations are ranged from .24 to .71. Moreover, Cronbach alpha coefficients is .90 (Yılmaz, 2007).

The Pearson product moment correlation is carried out by Yılmaz (2007) in order to measure the correlation between Child PARQ – short form mother and father version. Yılmaz (2007) finds a significant correlation between these versions of Child PARQ short form. Furthermore, Yılmaz and Erkman (2008) find the Cronbach alpha

of the short form of the Turkish Child PARQ, it is .89, for mother version; it is .90 for father version.

According to these findings Child PARQ – short form in Turkish has internal consistency and both versions are correlated (Yılmaz & Erkman, 2008) in order to use for this study. Lastly, permission to use Turkish version of the inventory was got from Ronald and Nancy Rohner Center for the Study of Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection, Human Development and Family Sciences as can be seen at Appendix A.

3.3.1.3 Conflict in adolescent dating relationships inventory (CADRI).

Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relations Inventory (CADRI) which is self-report instrument is developed Wolfe et al. (2001) in order to measure abuse in adolescent dating relationships. CADRI enables to measure two dimensions of dating violence that are perpetration and victimization behaviors. There are five sub-scale in CADRI which are physical violence (4 items, e.g., “I pushed, shoved, or shook her/him”), sexual abuse (4 item, e.g., “I kissed her/him when s/he didn’t want me to”), relational aggression (3 items, e.g., “I spread rumors about her/him.”), threatening behaviors (4 items, e.g., “I deliberately tried to frighten her/him”), and verbal and emotional abuse (10 items, “I said things just to make her/him angry”) (Wolfe et al., 2001).

Each of the items in the inventory are calculated respective to the participants rate their own behavior and their (intimate relationship) partner’s behavior on a four-point scale which means 0 = never, 1 = seldom, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often (Hunter, 2009). Possible score is ranged from 0 to 75. According to Wolfe et al. (2001) CADRI has test- retest reliability and validity. They find alpha values ranging from .83 to .87 during the beginning development and validation of the questionnaire (2001).

CADRI – short form (CADRI-S) is developed by Fernández-González, Wekerle, & Goldstein (2012). They construct two items for each subscale, total 10 items (physical abuse, threatening behavior, sexual abuse, relational abuse, and verbal/emotional abuse) (2012). The reliability coefficients of the CADRI-S is around or above 0.70 which means it may be acceptable (Cole, Rabin, Smith, & Kaufman, 2004). concurrent validity, correlations between the short and full form of CADRI is high (around 0.90) and ranging 0.75–0.93 for the different subscales (Fernández-González, Wekerle, & Goldstein, 2012).

The adaptation of CADRI-S to Turkish (Gençler Arası Flört İlişkilerinde Çatışma Ölçeği'nin-Modifiye Edilmiş (GAFİÇÖ-M) is improved by Toplu Demirtaş Morelli, Bianchi, Baiocco, Chirumbolo, and Laghi (2018). CADRI-M is a 9 item self-report measure designed to evaluate three forms of dating violence which are psychological violence (3 items), physical violence (3items), and cyber psychological violence (3 items) in a dating relationship. Each item makes use of 4-point frequency scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 that are 0 = never, 1 = seldom, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often (Toplu Demirtaş et al., 2018). According to results, these three forms of dating violence are correlated ($r_s = .35, .35, \text{ and } .24$), the Cronbach's alphas for psychological violence is .70, for physical violence is .83, and for cyber psychological violence is .66. For the second sample in this study, the coefficients are found as .72, .90, and .69, each for psychological violence, physical violence, and cyber psychological violence in a dating relationship (Toplu Demirtaş et al., 2018). Lastly, permission to use Turkish version of the inventory was got from Assoc. Prof. Dr Ezgi Toplu Demirtaş.

3.3.2 Data collection procedure. Firstly, permission is obtained from Bahçeşehir University's Institutional Review Board for Research with Human Subjects to conduct the research (see Appendix E). Then, although researcher apply for permission to Ministry of Education in order to reach high school students, since pandemic disease (COVID19), Ministry of Education breaks for schools. Because of this, online form is created by researcher. Web-link of the form is shared with participants thanks to the help of the school counselors, teachers, voluntary students, and volunteers who work with high school students. After online informed consent form is fulfilled by participants, they participate the study.

All participants are asked to complete personal information form, Personal Information Form, Parental Acceptance - Rejection Questionnaire - Short Form (Child PARQ / Short Form: mother and father version), and Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI) Short Form in Turkish. Instructions of the instruments about how they will answer is written on the first page of the instruments.

The data is collected by the researcher in an online way because of pandemic. Even if there was no pandemic, collecting data in an online manner is more advantageous than traditional paper and pencil methods since traditional way is time consuming and costly (Lefever and Matthíasdóttir, 2007). While Web-based survey

research remove space boundaries, data entry, and copying costs (Tuten, 2010), or it is rapid access to large and diverse (Best and Krueger, 2004), there may be some ethical problems (Lefever and Matthíasdóttir, 2007). For example, if there was face to face school period, since it is not allowed adolescents who under 18 years old to participate a research without getting permission from their parents and also parents might fulfill consent form for them as well, although online consent form is filled by only participants. However, although quitting the research in face-to-face method may not be easy for participants, in online survey method, participants may withdraw the survey freely. Even if they approve consent form, they have right to change their mind without any guilt (Roberts and Allen, 2015). Yet, it may cause higher non-response rates (Berk, 2012).

In the light of advantages and disadvantages of collecting data in an online way, participants are informed about general information about the study (the aim of the study, confidentiality, their right to refuse to complete the questionnaires).

3.3.5 Data analysis. In this study, 412 high school students participate the study on the Internet. Since 74 participants indicate that they have not experienced romantic relationship or dating before, they are excluded from the data. After Mahalanobis distance is controlled (Pallant, 2020), outliers are detected, and 32 participants removed from the data as well for assumption of outlier. Personal information form was presented above as frequencies and percentages which are age, gender, and the number of intimate relationships at Table 1.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analyses is conducted to investigate first six research questions. Before the data is used for analysis, parental acceptance/rejection data is transformed from continues data to categorical data. If participants get 56 points and above which means there is perception of rejection is coded as 1, below 56 points means participants have perception of accepted that is coded 2 (Rohner, 2005). Then, assumptions of the analyses are checked. According to Pallant (2020), there should be minimum 3 participants at least for every independent variable for the assumption of sample size. There are 316 participants in this study. Thus, the sample size assumption is not violated. When the test of normality is examined for variables if the data is distributed in a normal manner, Skewness value of the victimization variable is 1.285, and Kurtosis values of the victimization variable

is 1.563; Skewness value of the perpetration variable is 1.324 and Kurtosis values of perpetration variable is 1.664. According to George and Mallery (2012) Kurtosis value between +1.0 and -1.0 is considered great for most psychometric aims, but a value between +2.0 and -2.0 is in many cases also appropriate for the application. Mahalanobis distance is calculated to compare the critical value given in the Chi-square table to control multivariate normality (Pallant, 2020). For 3 variables, the critical value is indicated as 16.27 (Pallant, 2020) and the maximum Mahalanobis distance in the study is 21.41 that shows the existence of outliers in the data. Mahalanobis distances for the first 32 participants are higher than the critical value which they are removed from the study. For linearity assumption, scatterplots are created for dependent variables. After examining the scatterplots, there is no violation of the linearity assumption. Then, the correlation coefficients are calculated to check multicollinearity and singularity assumption. According to Pallant (2020), the correlation coefficients between the dependent variables should be smaller than .8 in order to understand that variables are not the same, but they are correlated. The correlation coefficients between the dependent variables ranged from .044 to .214. Thus, the assumption of multicollinearity and singularity is met. In addition, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances is controlled to understand the assumption of Homogeneity of variances. While the assumption is valid for cyber violence ($p=.050$) and emotional violence ($p=.073$), the assumption is not met for physical violence ($p=.007$). Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices is used in order to understand whether the data violates the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. The study's Box's M Sig. value is .000. So, the assumption is violated which means Pillai's Trace value is taken into consideration other than Wilks' Lambda (Pallant, 2020) for first and second research questions. Since the study's Box's M Sig. value is .267 for third research question; Box's M Sig. value is .131 for fourth research question; Box's M Sig. value is .519 for fifth question; Box's M Sig. value is .205 for sixth question. The assumptions are not violated, and Wilks' Lambda (Pallant, 2020) is taken into consideration for research question 3-4-5-6.

Simple linear regression is conducted to investigate rest of the research questions. Before conducting the analysis, assumptions of the analysis are controlled. First one is sample size assumption. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), there

should be at least 15 participants per variables. The number of participants of the study is enough to check the assumption. When the test of normality is controlled for variables, Skewness value of maternal acceptance/rejection variable is .664 and Kurtosis values of maternal acceptance/rejection variable is .715; Skewness value of paternal acceptance/rejection variable is .982 and Kurtosis values of paternal acceptance/rejection variable is 1.750. Since the values are between +2 and -2, it is considered assumption of normality is not violated according to George and Mallery (2012), as mentioned above. When the scatterplots are examined, it is observed that the linearity assumption is met. Moreover, residuals are independent, and the residuals have constant variance at level of independent variables which is used to check homoscedasticity.

The Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS- version 27.0) will be used. MANOVA and linear regression tests are used for the study. The significance level will be set at .05, unless otherwise indicated.

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine adolescents according to their roles in dating violence, perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender, and to examine whether the role of victim is predicted by perpetrator role in dating violence. With this aim, variables of the current dissertation are gender, dating violence, and perceived parental acceptance/rejection. In this chapter, data analysis of the study is presented addressing each research questions.

4.1 The Results of Examining Emotional, Physical and Cyber Dating Violence among Adolescents who Have Perpetrator Role by Gender

The first question of the present study is “Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly according to gender?”. In order to demonstrate the mean difference between perpetrator role in dating violence scores with respect to gender, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used on mean value of perpetrator role in subdimensions of dating violence.

The mean and standard deviations of the perpetrator role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores with respect gender variable are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of the Perpetrator Role in Dating Violence scores by Gender

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Perpetrator Role in Emotional Dating Violence	Female	1.98	1.74	193
	Male	2.15	2.01	113
	Total	2.04	1.84	306

Table 4 (cont'd.)

Perpetrator Role in Physical Dating Violence	Female	.16	.58	193
	Male	.08	.33	113
	Total	.13	.50	306
Perpetrator Role in Cyber Dating Violence	Female	.22	.59	193
	Male	.15	.46	113
	Total	.19	.54	306

According to the results in Table 4, male participants' mean value for perpetrator role in emotional dating violence higher than female participants. Females have higher mean value than males for perpetrator role in physical dating violence and in cyber dating violence. The means of the perpetrator roles in emotional physical and cyber dating violence for both female and male are low (For CADRI-S, minimum point is zero and maximum point 27).

Table 5

MANOVA Results for Perpetrator Role in Dating Violence by Gender

Effect	Pillai's Trace	F	df	Error df	p	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	.543	119.747	3.00	302.00	.00	.543	1.000
Gender	.016	1.606	3.00	302.00	.188	.016	.421

p<0.05

When the result of MANOVA is examined as seen in Table 5, Pillai's Trace =.016, p=.188. This result shows that there is no significant difference according to gender on perpetrator role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, $F(3, 302) = .188, p < .05$; Pillai's $\Lambda = 0.16$, partial $\eta^2 = .016$.

4.2 The Results of Examining Emotional, Physical and Cyber Dating Violence among Adolescents who Have Victim Role by Gender

The second question of the present study is "Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly according to gender?". In order

to determine the mean difference between victim role in dating violence scores with respect to gender, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used on mean value of victim role in subdimensions of dating violence.

The mean and standard deviations of the victim role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores with respect gender variable are given in Table 6.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations of the Victim Role in Dating Violence scores by Gender

	Gender	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Victim Role in Emotional Dating Violence	Female	2.19	1.86	193
	Male	2.76	2.14	113
	Total	2.40	1.99	306
Victim Role in Physical Dating Violence	Female	.08	.38	193
	Male	.18	.65	113
	Total	.12	.50	306
Victim Role in Cyber Dating Violence	Female	.35	.93	193
	Male	.35	.84	113
	Total	.35	.89	306

According to the results in Table 6, male participants' mean value for victim role in emotional and physical dating violence higher than female participants. However, when it comes to victim role in cyber dating violence, females and males have equal mean value.

Table 7

MANOVA Results for Victim Role in Dating Violence by Gender

Effect	Pillai's Trace	<i>F</i>	df	Error df	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	.598	150.056	3.00	302.00	.00	.598	1.000
Gender	.024	2.510	3.00	302.00	.059	.024	.618

p<0.05

When the result of MANOVA is examined as seen in Table 7, Pillai's Trace =.024, $p=.059$, the second finding is close to significance value which means the result remains at the threshold level between female and male on victim role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence $F(3, 302) = .059, p < .05$; Pillai's $\Lambda = 0.24$, partial $\eta^2 = .024$. When the result of emotional and physical dating violence scores are considered, there is difference in the victim role of emotional and physical dating violence against male.

4.3 The Results of Examining Emotional, Physical and Cyber Dating Violence among Adolescents who Have Perpetrator Role by Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection

The third question of the present study is "Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator role differ significantly according to perceived mother acceptance/rejection?". In order to demonstrate the mean difference between perpetrator role in dating violence scores with respect to perceived mother acceptance/rejection, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used on mean value of perpetrator role in subdimensions of dating violence.

The mean and standard deviations of the perpetrator role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores with respect to perceived mother acceptance/rejection variable are given in Table 8.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of the Perpetrator Role in Dating Violence scores by Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection

	Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Perpetrator Role in	Acceptance	2.01	1.87	272
Emotional Dating	Rejection	2.29	1.58	34
Violence	Total	2.04	1.84	306

Table 8 (cont'd.)

Perpetrator Role in	Acceptance	.12	.52	272
Physical Dating	Rejection	.18	.38	34
Violence	Total	.13	.50	306
Perpetrator Role in	Acceptance	.18	.54	272
Cyber Dating Violence	Rejection	.32	.58	34
	Total	.19	.54	306

According to the results in Table 8, adolescence's who perceive rejection by their mothers mean value for perpetrator role in emotional, physical and cyber dating violence is higher than adolescence participants who perceive acceptance by their mothers.

Table 9

MANOVA Results for Perpetrator Role in Dating Violence by Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	F	df	Error df	p	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	.638	57.23	3.00	302.00	.00	.362	1.000
Mother Acceptance / Rejection	.991	.924	3.00	302.00	.43	.009	.253

When the result of MANOVA is examined as seen in Table 9, Wilks' Lambda =.991, $p=.43$, the finding states that there is no there is no significance difference between mother acceptance and rejection on perpetrator role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, $F(3, 302) = .924$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.991$, partial $\eta^2 = .009$.

4.4 The Results of Examining Emotional, Physical and Cyber Dating Violence among Adolescents who Have Perpetrator Role by Perceived Father Acceptance and Rejection

The fourth question of the present study is “Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator role differ significantly according to perceived father acceptance/rejection?”. In order to demonstrate the mean difference between perpetrator role in dating violence scores with respect to perceived father acceptance/rejection, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used on mean value of perpetrator role in subdimensions of dating violence.

The mean and standard deviations of the perpetrator role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores with respect to perceived father acceptance/rejection variable are given in Table 10.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations of the Perpetrator Role in Dating Violence scores by Perceived Father Acceptance/Rejection

	Perceived Father Acceptance/Rejection	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Perpetrator Role in Emotional Dating Violence	Acceptance	1.90	1.74	264
	Rejection	2.93	1.91	42
	Total	2.04	1.84	306
Perpetrator Role in Physical Dating Violence	Acceptance	.12	.51	264
	Rejection	.19	.45	42
	Total	.13	.50	306
Perpetrator Role in Cyber Dating Violence	Acceptance	.18	.53	264
	Rejection	.29	.63	42
	Total	.19	.54	306

According to the results in Table 10, adolescence’s who perceive rejection by their fathers mean value for perpetrator role in emotional, physical and cyber dating

violence is higher than adolescence participants who perceive acceptance by their fathers.

Table 11

MANOVA Results for Perpetrator Role in Dating Violence by Perceived Father Acceptance/Rejection

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	F	df	Error df	p	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	.464	87.06	3.00	302.00	.00	.362	1.000
Father Acceptance / Rejection	.962	3.979	3.00	302.00	.038	.009	.833

When the result of MANOVA is examined as seen in Table 11, Wilks' Lambda =.962, $p=.038$, the finding states that there is significance difference between father acceptance and rejection on perpetrator role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, $F(3, 302) = .924, p < .05$; Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.991$, partial $\eta^2 = .009$.

Between- subjects effects are examined to understand the difference in relation to each of dependent variables. When the results for the dependent variables are considered, the only differences to reach statistical significance is for emotional dating violence perpetrator, $F(3,302)=11.61, p < .05$. According to results Table 12, $p=.001$ for dependent variable Perpetrator Role in Emotional Dating Violence which means that father acceptance and rejection has difference on perpetrator role scores in emotional dating violence. Thus, adolescents who perceive father rejection have significantly higher emotional dating violence scores in the perpetrator role.

Table 12

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	Emotional Dating Violence	845.360	1	845.360	256.93	.000	.458	1.000
	Physical Dating Violence	3.520	1	3.520	13.616	.000	.043	.957
	Cyber Dating Violence	7.793	1	7.793	25.975	.000	.079	.999
Father Acceptance Rejection	Emotional Dating Violence	38.22	1	38.22	11.61	.001	.037	.925
	Physical Dating Violence	.174	1	.174	.672	.413	.002	.129
	Cyber Dating Violence	.420	1	.420	1.401	.238	.005	.218

4.5 The Results of Examining Emotional, Physical and Cyber Dating Violence among Adolescents who Have Victim Role by Perceived Mother Acceptance and Rejection

The fifth question of the present study is “Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly according to perceived mother acceptance/rejection?”. In order to demonstrate the mean difference between victim

role in dating violence scores with respect to perceived mother acceptance/rejection, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used on mean value of victim role in subdimensions of dating violence.

The mean and standard deviations of the victim role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores with respect to perceived mother acceptance/rejection variable are given in Table 13.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations of the Victim Role in Dating Violence scores by Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection

	Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Victim Role in Emotional Dating Violence	Acceptance	2.34	1.997	272
	Rejection	2.88	1.907	34
	Total	2.40	1.991	306
Victim Role in Physical Dating Violence	Acceptance	.11	.499	272
	Rejection	.15	.558	34
	Total	.12	.505	306
Victim Role in Cyber Dating Violence	Acceptance	.34	.916	272
	Rejection	.44	.746	34
	Total	.35	.898	306

According to the results in Table 13, adolescence's who perceive rejection by their mothers mean value for victim role in emotional, physical and cyber dating violence is higher than adolescence participants who perceive acceptance by their mothers.

Table 14

MANOVA Results for Victim Role in Dating Violence by Perceived Mother Acceptance/Rejection

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	<i>F</i>	df	Error df	<i>p</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	.589	70.369	3.00	302.00	.00	.411	1.000

Table 14 (cont'd.)

Mother Acceptance / Rejection	.992	.784	3.00	302.00	.503	.008	.218
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When the result of MANOVA is examined as seen in Table 14, Wilks' Lambda =.992, $p=.503$, the finding states that there is no significance difference between mother acceptance and rejection on victim role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, $F(3, 302) = .784, p < .05$; Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.992$, partial $\eta^2 = .008$.

4.6 The Results of Examining Emotional, Physical and Cyber Dating Violence among Adolescents who Have Victim Role by Perceived Father Acceptance and Rejection

The sixth question of the present study is “Do emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role differ significantly according to perceived father acceptance/rejection?”. In order to demonstrate the mean difference between perpetrator role in dating violence scores with respect to perceived father acceptance/rejection, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used on mean value of perpetrator role in subdimensions of dating violence.

The mean and standard deviations of the victim role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores with respect to perceived father acceptance/rejection variable are given in Table 15.

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations of the Victim Role in Dating Violence scores by Perceived Father Acceptance/Rejection

	Perceived Father Acceptance/Rejection	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Victim Role in	Acceptance	2.31	1.989	264
Emotional Dating	Rejection	2.95	1.937	42
Violence	Total	2.40	1.991	306

Table 15 (cont'd.)

Victim Role in Physical Dating Violence	Acceptance	.12	.515	264
	Rejection	.19	.437	42
	Total	.13	.505	306
Victim Role in Cyber Dating Violence	Acceptance	.18	.903	264
	Rejection	.29	.862	42
	Total	.19	.898	306

According to the results in Table 15, adolescence's who perceive rejection by their fathers mean value for victim role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence is higher than adolescence participants who perceive acceptance by their fathers.

Table 16

MANOVA Results for Victim Role in Dating Violence by Perceived Father Acceptance/Rejection

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	F	df	Error df	p	η^2	Observed Power
Intercept	.537	86.677	3.00	302.00	.00	.463	1.000
Father Acceptance / Rejection	.985	1.484	3.00	302.00	.219	.015	.391

When the result of MANOVA is examined as seen in Table 16, Wilks' Lambda = .537, $p = .219$, the finding states that there is no significance difference between father acceptance and rejection on victim role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, $F(3, 302) = 1.484$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.985$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$.

4.7 The Results on Predictor of Perpetration in Dating Violence among Adolescence

The question of the present study is "Do dating violence scores of adolescents who have perpetrator role be predicted by victim role in dating violence scores?". Before the analysis of this research question, correlations of variables are examined as can be seen at Table 17. In order to determine the effect of victim role in dating violence

scores on perpetrator role in dating violence scores, linear regression analysis is conducted. Table 18 summarizes linear regression analysis results.

Table 17

Correlations of Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Perpetrator		.580**	.946**	.406**	.395**	.570**	.260**	.199**
2. Victim	.580**		.536**	.218**	.290**	.912**	.388**	.534**
3. Perpetrator of Emotional Dating Violence	.946**	.536**		.214**	.180**	.593**	.153**	.086
4. Perpetrator of Physical Dating Violence	.406**	.218**	.214**		-.044	.123*	.528**	.035
5. Perpetrator of Cyber Dating Violence	.395**	.290**	.180**	-.044		.146*	.024	.468**
6. Victim of Emotional Dating Violence	.570**	.912**	.593**	.123*	.146*		.201**	.200**
7. Victim of Physical Dating Violence	.260**	.388**	.153**	.528**	.024	.201**		.067
8. Victim of Cyber Dating Violence	.199**	.534**	.086	.035	.468**	.200**	.067	

**=,01, *=,05

When correlations of perpetrator and victim role in dating violence are examined, there is strong positive correlation between perpetrator and victim role ($r=.580$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of emotional dating violence and victim ($r=.536$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of emotional dating violence and victim of emotional dating violence ($r=.593$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator and victim of emotional dating violence ($r=.570$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of physical dating violence and victim of physical dating violence ($r=.528$, $n=306$, $p<.01$). Moreover, there is weak but significant correlation between perpetrator and victim of cyber dating violence ($r=.260$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), victim and perpetrator of physical dating violence ($r=.580$, $n=218$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of emotional dating violence and perpetrator of physical dating violence ($r=.214$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of emotional dating violence and perpetrator of

cyber dating violence ($r=.180$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), victim and perpetrator of cyber dating violence ($r=.290$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of emotional dating violence and victim of physical dating violence ($r=.153$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of cyber dating violence and victim of cyber dating violence ($r=.468$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), victim of emotional dating violence and victim of physical dating violence ($r=.201$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), victim of emotional dating violence and victim of cyber dating violence ($r=.200$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator and victim of cyber dating violence ($r=.199$, $n=306$, $p<.01$), perpetrator of physical dating violence and victim of emotional dating violence ($r=.123$, $n=306$, $p<.05$), perpetrator of cyber dating violence and victim of emotional dating violence ($r=.146$, $n=306$, $p<.05$).

Table 18

Results of Regression Analysis in Predicting Victim Role in Dating Violence

Predictor	Non-Standard Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	R	R ²	T	P
	B	Se	β				
Victim Role in Dating Violence	.505	.041	.580	.580	.33	12.429	.00

$p<0.05$

A simple linear regression is carried out to test if victim role in dating violence significantly predicted perpetrator role in dating violence as seen in Table 18. The results of the regression indicated that the model explained 33% of the variance and that the model is significant, $F(1,304)=154.477$, $p<.05$. It is found that victim role in dating violence is predicted significantly perpetrator role in dating violence ($\beta = .505$, $p<.05$). The correlation analysis regarding scores of victim role in dating violence revealed that there is significantly positive correlated with perpetrator role in dating violence as mentioned Table 17 ($r=.58$, $p<0.01$).

In order to determine the effect of victim role in emotional dating violence scores on perpetrator role in emotional dating violence scores, linear regression analysis is conducted. Table 19 summarizes linear regression analysis results.

Table 19

Results of Regression Analysis in Predicting Victim Role in Emotional Dating Violence

Predictor	Non-Standard Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	R	R ²	T	P
	B	Se	β				
Victim Role in Emotional Dating Violence	.550	.043	.593	.593	.35	12.849	.00

p<0.05

A simple linear regression is carried out to test if victim role in emotional dating violence significantly predicted perpetrator role in emotional dating violence as seen in Table 19. The results of the regression indicated that the model explained 35% of the variance and that the model is significant, $F(1,304)=165.090, p<.05$. It is found that victim role in emotional dating violence is predicted significantly perpetrator role in dating violence ($\beta = .550, p<.05$). The correlation analysis regarding scores of victim role in emotional dating violence revealed that there is significantly positive correlated with perpetrator role in emotional dating violence as mentioned Table 17 ($r=.593, p<0.01$).

In order to determine the effect of victim role in physical dating violence scores on perpetrator role in physical dating violence scores, linear regression analysis is conducted. Table 20 summarizes linear regression analysis results.

Table 20

Results of Regression Analysis in Predicting Victim Role in Physical Dating Violence

Predictor	Non-Standard Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	R	R ²	T	P
	B	Se	β				
Victim Role in Physical Dating Violence	.531	.049	.528	.528	.278	10.829	.00

p<0.05

A simple linear regression is carried out to test if victim role in physical dating violence significantly predicted perpetrator role in physical dating violence as seen in Table 20. The results of the regression indicated that the model explained 28% of the variance and that the model is significant, $F(1,304)=21.928, p<.05$. It is found that victim role in physical dating violence is predicted significantly perpetrator role in dating violence ($\beta = .528, p<.05$). The correlation analysis regarding scores of victim role in physical dating violence revealed that there is significantly positive correlated with perpetrator role in physical dating violence as mentioned Table 17 ($r=.528, p<0.01$).

In order to determine the effect of victim role in cyber dating violence scores on perpetrator role in cyber dating violence scores, linear regression analysis is conducted. Table 21 summarizes linear regression analysis results.

Table 21
Results of Regression Analysis in Predicting Victim Role in Cyber Dating Violence

Predictor	Non-Standard Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	R	R ²	T	P
	B	Se	β				
Victim Role in Cyber Dating Violence	.285	.031	.468	.468	.219	9.222	.00

p<0.05

A simple linear regression is carried out to test if victim role in cyber dating violence significantly predicted perpetrator role in cyber dating violence as seen in Table 21. The results of the regression indicated that the model explained 22% of the variance and that the model is significant, $F(1,304)=85.044, p<.05$. It is found that victim role in cyber dating violence is predicted significantly perpetrator role in dating violence ($\beta = .468, p<.05$). The correlation analysis regarding scores of victim role in cyber dating violence revealed that there is significantly positive correlated with perpetrator role in cyber dating violence as mentioned Table 17 ($r=.468, p<0.01$).

Lastly, at the initial design of the research, it was considered whether parental acceptance/rejection was predictive, and it was decided not to use regression analysis,

because the correlational relationship between parental acceptance/rejection scores and victim/perpetrator scores were slight. It is concluded that it might create crowded findings. It is given in the Appendix F for researchers who wants to examine the correlation results of dependent and independent variables with all sub-dimensions.



Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Discussion of the Findings for Research Questions

The current study's significance and implications of findings that have been demonstrated will be discussed in this chapter. Results of the study will be discussed in the same line that is mentioned in the earlier chapter. The findings of the current study will be discussed in accordance with the conditions of this research, theoretical opinions, and related research. Then, limitations of the study and suggestions for future studies will be presented.

5.1.1 Effect of gender on roles in dating violence. In this study, dating violence is dealt with in terms of three dimensions which are emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence. When it comes to roles in dating violence, there are two roles: perpetrator and victim. Gender is considered as female and male for adolescents.

No significant difference is found for gender as both perpetrator and victim role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence in this study. Likewise, there is a lot of research that support the finding. Fergusson, Boden, and Horwood (2008), Baker and Stith (2008) Dardis et al. (2015), Toplu and Hatipoğlu (2011), and Leisring (2013) claim that both females and males may adopt perpetrator and victim roles in dating violence as well which is also called interpartner violence.

On the other hand, according to Poitras and Lavoie (1995), Chan (2012), and Hokoda, Martin del Campo, and Ulloa (2012) assert that types of dating violence may differ for gender. Even if sexual dating violence is not included in this dissertation for adolescents, it is claimed that male perpetrators use sexual dating abuse and physical dating abuse more (Marquart, Nannini, Edwards, Stanley, & Wayman, 2007; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). In addition, females mention more victimization of emotional abuse than males (Hokoda, Martin del Campo, & Ulloa, 2012).

When theoretical perspectives of dating violence are examined, Feminist Theory which is before post-modernist movement draws attention to the terms of

gender inequality, having control and power over women and masculinity construction (Dardis et al., 2015; Üstünel Balcı, 2018). If the theory is considered, it is expected that males to be the perpetrator in dating violence more than females. Moreover, it is observed that while female students frequently share their own dating violence experience as victims first hand with school counselor or teachers, male students do not share the same dating violence story. Gender roles, according to Social Learning Theory and Feminist Theory (Bandura, 1973; Dardis et al., 2015), may be the reason why males do not share their exposure of dating violence. Since masculinity is attributed as having power and staying strong because of gender roles, while male students may share their perpetrator role of dating violence more comfortably which may be a sign of power, they may not prefer to share their dating violence experience as victims. Feminist Theory, which is referred to before the post-modernist movement, supports the cases in Turkey, since unfortunately, violence against women by men is seen in the news every month. Similar to the results of this study that perpetrator and victim roles in dating violence do not differ according to gender, it may be considered that third wave of Feminist Theory which states women might commit dating violence over men to protect their femininity (White, 2009) may start to be adopted in Turkey which means gender is not the only factor for dating violence among adolescents.

5.1.2 Effect of perceived parental acceptance/rejection on roles in dating violence. In this study, the role of perceived mother and father acceptance/rejection on perpetrator and victim roles in dating violence is examined. According to the results of the study, there is no significant difference between mother acceptance and rejection on both perpetrator and victim roles scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence among adolescents. Also, there is no significant difference between father acceptance and rejection on victim role scores in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence, only perceived father acceptance and rejection has difference on perpetrator role in emotional dating violence not for physical and cyber dating violence.

While children move into adolescents, some needs remain the same which is to feel love and acceptance from their parents regardless of culture and gender etc. (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). While parental acceptance is defined as taking affection and love, parental rejection is described as feeling cold and unaffectionate from parents physically and psychologically according to Parental

Acceptance/Rejection Theory (PARTheory) (Rohner, 1986; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Since perceived parental acceptance/rejection has an effect on personality according to IPAR Personality Sub-theory, self-worth and self-esteem are shaped by the contribution of feeling of acceptance/rejection from parents. According to DeVore's (2002) research, there is a negative correlation between victimization and self-esteem which means lower self-esteem is related to being the victim. However, according to this study's results, there is no effect of feeling mother and father acceptance/rejection on victimization in dating violence, even if the feeling of rejection may enable adolescents to feel low self-esteem, so they may tend to have victim role in dating violence. Since the data of the study is collected during COVID19 quarantine, it may be result of this circumstance which means parent-adolescent communication and relationship may have developed in this process. So, adolescents may feel acceptance more from their parents. In addition to COVID19 quarantine circumstances, even if parents behave in a cold or and unaffectionate manner towards their children, they may not feel as they are rejected. According to Rohner (2005), the children's perception may enable them to interpret feeling of acceptance or rejection from their parents, especially, in case of neglect or abuse.

On the other hand, IPAR Coping Sub-Theory supports that children may cope with perceived parental rejection in an effective way. Although they experience rejection from their parents, they may have good mental health and emotional well-being (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002; Rohner, 2005). When it is considered with the results of the study, even if there is no significant difference between mother acceptance and rejection on both perpetrator and victim roles dating violence which has emotional, physical, and cyber sub-dimensions among adolescents, it may be related to the adolescents who may deal with parental rejection effectively and they may learn how to overcome negative effect of perceived parental rejection thanks to COVID19.

Moreover, IPAR Coping Sub-theory is defined as individuals' capabilities coping mechanisms while they deal with struggles (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). Perceived parental acceptance/rejection affects development of personality, since coping mechanisms are a part of personality, it may be considered that when there is a disagreement in dating, low coping skills may have an effect of being

perpetrator in dating violence which is a part of IPAR Personality Sub-theory. Also, perceived parental acceptance and rejection may determine self-love and self-esteem during adolescence because parents' attitude and behavior have effects on adolescents' personality development. In other words, while adolescents may interpret perceived acceptance as they are worthy of being loved which enables them to have high self-esteem, adolescents who perceive rejection from their parents may describe themselves as worthless, inadequate, and individuals who cannot be loved by anyone else (Rohner, 1986). Thus, because of perceived parental rejection, adolescents who have a lack of self-esteem and self-love may tend to be both perpetrator and victim in dating violence. It may depend on how the adolescent reflect his/her low self-esteem to his/her partner, which means they may show their feelings of worthlessness and inadequacy as aggressive behaviors in dating such as physical or emotional dating violence. This may be a sign of adopting the perpetrator role in dating violence. Even, these feelings may enable adolescents to have unresponsive behaviors which may be called as victim role in dating violence. Along these lines, it may be supported by the results of the study which is father acceptance and rejection having an effect on perpetrator role in emotional dating violence. Thus, adolescents who adopt the perpetrator role which means individuals who commit types of abuse in order to dominate, intimidate, or control (Flowers, 2002; Park & Kim, 2017) may have low coping skills.

Parental acceptance/rejection contributes to parenting styles which are authoritarian, indulgent, authoritative, and neglectful. When this contribution is examined, while authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles have low acceptance, indulgent and authoritative parenting styles have high acceptance (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, Dornbusch, 1994). According to a research which is conducted by Muñiz-Rivas, Vera and Povedano-Díaz (2019), even if the roles in dating violence do not specify, authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles have an effect on dating violence in adolescence. Since fathers are seen as signs of power and having masculinity according to pre-post-modern Feminism Movement Theory (Dardis et al., 2015), perceived paternal acceptance and rejection may differ for perpetrator role in dating violence which is related to dominance and control as sign of power in Feminist Theory. On the other hand, with perspective of Social Learning

Theory (Bandura, 1973), if adolescents have hostile, aggressive and/or unfavorable feelings which is perceived rejection from a sign of power by which is meant the “father role” in the family, they may reflect these feelings on partners in romantic relationships by adopting perpetrator roles in dating violence as seen in the result of this study.

When Social Learning Theory is considered (Bandura, 1973), children learn how to behave among others via observing, imitating, and modeling. If adolescents perceive to be unaccepted and unloved by their parents, they may behave in the same way as the parents to their partner in dating relationships. Also, intergenerational transmission of violence theory supports that individuals learn violent behaviors from each other as Social Learning Theory defines. Thus, when these theories are taken together, this situation may enable dating violence to occur in romantic relationship as well. If adolescents have a history of witnessed interparental violence where their parents may have perpetrator or victim role, they may take their role as a model in dating relationships. According to Black, Sussman, and Unger’s (2010) research, while 58% of their sample of the research had experienced witnessing of psychological interpartner violence, 70% of the participants reported that they experienced psychological violence. It is the result that if children are witnesses of interparental violence while they move into adulthood, they may adopt interpartner violence since there is association between interpartner violence and interparental violence (Black, Sussman, & Unger, 2010). In parallel to this, presence of interparental violence may enable adolescents to normalize and accept aggression in dating violence as well. Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe, and Stuart (2013) assert that while girls who experienced interparental violence which may be mother to father or father to mother, they tend to be the perpetrators of physical and psychological teen dating violence, boys who are witnessed interpartner violence which is mother to father may be perpetrator of dating violence. So, violence is not innate, it is learnt from the environment. Especially, parental rejection may be considered as emotional violence, as it may turn into emotional dating violence as seen in the results of this study which there is a relationship between paternal acceptance and rejection and perpetrating of emotional dating violence.

In this dissertation, while maternal acceptance/rejection do not affect roles in dating violence, paternal acceptance/rejection affects only perpetrator role in emotional dating violence among adolescents. Pinquart (2017) claims that the situation of adolescents' mental health disorder is not influenced by gender of parents, it is affected by the relationship between parents and adolescents. On the contrary of this claim, in this dissertation, paternal acceptance/rejection is related with being the perpetrator in emotional dating violence. Moreover, according to Bowlby's (1988) Attachment Theory, attachment style with caregiver is crucial for children to feel secure. Emotional distance determines the relationship between parent and child (Huebner and Howell, 2003). Cleveland, Herrera, and Stuewig (2003) assert in the light of Attachment Theory, poor relationship with caregiver may increase the likelihood to be witness for dating violence. Furthermore, anxious and avoidance attachment with parents which may be a part of perceived parental rejection have positive correlation with dating violence (Domas, Pearson, Elgin, & McKinley, 2008; Lee, Reese-Weber, & Kahn, 2014; Rapoza & Baker, 2008). When the research is considered which point out the importance of the attachment styles between parents and their children, although generally mothers adopt the caregiver role and are the first to bond with children in Turkey, effect of fathers' bond with children is crucial for adolescents who have perpetrator roles in emotional dating violence as seen in the result of this study.

Even if investigation on the effect of mother and father acceptance/rejection on roles in dating violence among adolescents is uncommon in previous literature, there are a lot of studies that may have the same interest as the relationship between parenting style and dating abuse for adolescence, parenting attachment, or interparental violence and dating violence perpetration (Black, Sussman, & Unger, 2010; Muñiz-Rivas, Vera, & Povedano-Díaz, 2019; Temple, Shorey, Tortolero, Wolfe and Stuart, 2013; Tussey, Tayler, & Simons, 2018). Since parental acceptance/rejection, parenting style and parental attachment may not be considered different terms which are isolated from each other, even if the effect of parental acceptance/rejection on roles in dating violence seems slight, it should not be ignored. Although perceived mother acceptance and rejection does not differ for perpetrator and victim role in emotional, physical and cyber dating violence unlike previous

literature, since the data is gathered under quarantine conditions, similar studies which is conducted under COVID19 quarantine circumstance should be examined.

5.1.3 Predictor of role of perpetration in dating violence. Roles in dating violence has two dimensions which are perpetrator and victim. Perpetrator in dating violence is defined as people who use one or more types of violence against partners in order to control, dominate, or intimidate (Flowers, 2002; Park & Kim, 2017). Victim in dating violence is described as people who are exposed to one or more types of violence by partner (Park & Kim, 2017; Walker, 2006). In addition to these roles, term of interpartner violence is important in dating violence which is to adopt both perpetrator and victim role in dating violence (Leisring, 2013).

According to the results of the study, 33% of participants adopting perpetrator roles in dating violence have experienced victim role before, which means thirty three percent of individuals who have victim role in dating violence turn into perpetrators. In detail, victim role in emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence predicts emotional, physical, and cyber perpetrator role in dating violence in a significant way by 35%, 28%, and 22%.

When literature is examined about victims who turn into offenders, the term of victim-perpetrator cycle emerges. Since, victimization may include trauma experience, individuals who experience victim role in dating violence may have difficulty in psychological adjustment that may enable them to have psychological disorders; for instance, adolescents may have passivity, apathy, and nervous alterations etc. (Dwairy 2010; Güleç, Topaloğlu, Ünsal, and Altıntaş, 2012; Walker, 2006). In connection with the light of this literature, it can be said that adolescents who have a victimization story may have perpetrator role in dating violence later as the result of this study supports.

On the other hand, according to Social Learning Theory, individuals' responses have influence on each other (Bandura, 1973). With the contribution of Social Learning Theory, adolescents may adopt each other's behaviors in romantic relationship as well. Thus, individuals who take victim role in dating violence may be influenced by the individuals who are perpetrator in dating violence. So, the result of the study may be interpreted as the victim may have been influenced by the perpetrator's behavior and changed roles in dating violence.

In addition to this issue, Poulin and Boivin (2000) claim that there is a relationship between victimization and reactive aggression which is a behavior that is a response to provocation. Not only learning how to be a perpetrator via observing the perpetrator but also provocation of the perpetrator may influence victims while they adopt both roles in dating violence which is called interpartner violence. So, victimization history may predict adopting perpetrator role in dating violence.

According to Jackson (1999), since all types of violence include emotional violence, types of dating violence are interrelated (Jackson, 1999). Because of this, the percentage of victim role in emotional dating violence may be predicted by emotional perpetrator role in dating violence more than physical and cyber dating violence.

The results of this study, which is that role of victim is a predictor for perpetrator role in dating violence, may be supported by other research and Social Learning Theory as well.

5.2 Conclusion

In this dissertation, the aim of the study was to examine adolescents according to their roles in dating violence and their perceived parental acceptance/rejection and gender. Also, it was the purpose to investigate if the victim role in dating violence is predicted by the perpetrator roles among adolescents.

It is concluded that

- a) Emotional, physical, and cyber dating violence scores which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator and victim roles do not differ according to gender.
- b) Emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim and perpetrator roles do not differ according to their perceived mother acceptance and rejection.
- c) Emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have victim role does not differ according to their perceived father acceptance and rejection.

- d) Emotional, physical and cyber dating violence scores, which are subdimensions of dating violence score, of adolescents who have perpetrator role differs significantly according to their perceived father acceptance and rejection.
- e) Dating violence scores of adolescences who have perpetrator roles (in emotional, physical and cyber dating violence) scores is predicted by victim roles (in emotional, physical and cyber dating violence) scores in dating violence scores.

To sum up, even if gender roles may lose its effect on adolescence about roles in dating violence, feeling accepted and loved by mother and father still may have crucial impact for them. Also, adopting victim role predicts adopting perpetrator role in dating violence which has emotional, physical and cyber dating violence subdimensions.

5.3 Recommendations

When the findings of study are taken into account, some limitations and suggestions are presented.

For limitations,

Relevant variables were chosen based on previous literature. In this manner, different variables may be added to the study such as perceived interparental conflict or coping strategies. Also, the study is designed without control of social environment variables and childhood emotional, sexual, and physical abuse and neglect. These might be added in research as independent variables.

On the other hand, because of the pandemic, instruments are applied on the Internet. This situation makes the process difficult to announce the study and reach adolescents.

In addition, social desirability response bias might affect adolescents while they answer the questions of inventory. According to Mortel (2008), the socially desirable response is “the tendency for people to present a favorable image of themselves on questionnaires” (p. 40). This may be called as limitation of self-report measurement especially for research about dating violence since participants may not

have realized before that their relationship may include dating violence. It may be hard to admit to this and dating violence is a sensitive subject among adolescents. It should be considered for all studies that use self-report inventory.

For implementations,

Dating violence among adolescents is an important health issue to point out future difficulty in society. Prevention programs which include informative study and support groups for perpetrator and victim role in dating violence at schools may be provided by school counselors and other practitioners. Programs that develop anger managements and coping skills may be prepared for adolescents at schools in order to reduce violence in dating relationships and friendships as well. Moreover, educational systems may include the prevention programs to have respectful and equal dating relationship in order to reduce violence against women.

Even if there is a small association between parental acceptance/rejection and roles in dating violence, an informative study may be prepared about dating violence for parents in order to enable parents to understand what they are going thorough and their effect on adolescence. Specifically, it may be beneficial to provide psychoeducation and group counseling sessions for fathers that may prevent adolescents who perceive paternal rejection to be perpetrator in emotional dating violence.

For future studies,

Longitudinal design that may predict experiences of other traumatic circumstances, psychological wellbeing etc. may be developed to examine experiences of dating violence among adolescence.

Other relevant variables about adolescents that may be interpersonal relationships, personality, perceived parenting styles may be included in the study.

In this study, since gender is accepted as male and female, sexual orientation is not taken into consideration to understand association between gender and roles in dating violence. Further research is recommended for considering all adolescents who may have different sexual orientation.

Finally, research may be applied at schools with the help of school counselors that may enable to develop sample size. Thus, increasing the sample size may be beneficial in terms of understanding whether the difference between mean scores of

the perpetrator role in dating violence against men is significant in the research findings.



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