T.C.
ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE RELATIONS BETWEEN COPING STRATEGIES, CAREGIVER BONDING, AND DATING VIOLENCE OF EMERGING ADULTS: CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON BETWEEN CHINA AND TURKIYE

MASTER'S THESIS

Zubaidan YUSHAN

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

ANKARA, 2022

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ANKARA, 2022

APPROVAL PAGE

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PLAGIARISM PAGE

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented by academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and manner, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work. 30-09-2022

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ABSTRACT

Turkiye and China are countries that have collective culture, but they have different cultural backgrounds. They have different cultures, different religions, and different levels of economic development. The aim of this study is to compare dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding among unmarried emerging adults in China and Turkiye. This study's first aim is to examine whether or not between contries (Turkiye and China) differences in dating violence(physical assault, psychological aggression, sexual coercion, injury). The seond aim is to examine whether or not between gender differences and dating violence(physical assault, psychological aggression, sexual coercion, injury) in emerging adults. The third aim is to test whether or not caregiver bonding (care, overprotection) predict dating violence in emerging adults. The last aim is to test the moderation effect of caregiver bonding on the relationship between dating violence and coping strategies.

Participants ages were 19 and 26 years (X=23.66, SD=3.66), unmarried emerging adults Turkish 171 participants (72.5% women, 24% men, 3.5% prefer not to say), Chinese 170 participants (71.8% women, 21.8% men, 6.5% prefer not to say). All participants had been in a relationship for more than six months. Participants completed The Conflict Tactics Scales—(CTS2), The Cope Inventory, and The Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI). The result shows significant differences between China and Turkiye in dating violence (physical assault, injury, sexual coercion). However, there is no significant difference between China and Turkiye regarding psychological aggression. The results of the gender differences in dating violence between China and Turkiye show that there was a significant difference between males and females in sexual coercion perpetration, physical assault perpetration, physical assault victimization, and injury victimization in Turkiye. However, there is no significance between men and women in terms of victimization and perpetration of dating violence (physical assault, injury, psychological aggression, sexual coercion) in China. The regression analysis shows that overprotection positively predicts all variables of dating violence (perpetrations and victimizations) in China. Also, care negatively predicts psychological aggression perpetration and sexual coercion perpetration in Turkiye. Moderation analysis results show that the sub-dimension of over-protection moderates psychological aggression perpetration and avoidance coping in China. The sub-dimension of care moderates injury victimization and avoidance management in Turkiye, Also, over-protection moderates injury victimization and social support coping. Moreover, the sub-dimension of care moderates sexual coercion perpetration and avoidance coping. The results are discussed, and the limitations of the study are explained.

Keywords: Caregiver bonding, coping strategies, dating violence, emerging adulthood, cross-cultural, comparison

BELIREN YETIŞKINLERDE BAŞA ÇIKMA STRATEJILERI , BAKIM VERENE BAĞLANMA VE FLÖRT ŞIDDETI ARASINDAKI ILIŞKI : ÇIN VE TÜRKIYE ARASINDAKİ KÜLTÜRLER ARASI KARŞILAŞTIRMA

ÖZET

Hem Türkiye hem de Çin kolektif kültüre sahip ülkelerdir. Fakat ikisi de farklı kültürel geçmişlere sahiptir. Farklı kültürler, farklı dinler ve farklı ekonomik gelişme düzeylerine sahiptirler. Bu çalışmanın amacı, Çin ve Türkiye'de evlenmemiş beliren yetişkinler arasındaki flört şiddeti, başa çıkma stratejileri ve bakım verene bağlanmayı karşılaştırmaktır. Bu çalışmanın ilk amacı flört şiddetinde ülkeler (Türkiye ve Çin) farklılıkları olup olmadığını incelemektir. İkinci amaç, beliren yetişkinlikde flört şiddetinin cinsiyet farklılıkları olup olmadığını incelemektir. Üçüncü amaç, bakim verene bağlanma (bakım ,aşırı koruma)nin beliren yetişkinlerde flört şiddetini yordayıp yordamadığını test etmektir. Son amaç, flört şiddeti ve başa çıkma stratejilerinde bakım verene bağlanmanın moderasyon etkisini incelemektir.

Katılımcılar 19 ve 26 yaşları arasındaydı (X=23.66, SD=3.66) evlenmemiş beliren yetişkinlik dönemindeki 171 Türk katılımcı (%72.5 kadın, %24 erkek, %3.5 söylememeyi tercih ediyor) 170 Çinli katılımcı (%71.8 kadın, %21.8 erkek, %6.5'i söylememeyi tercih ediyor). Tüm katılımcılar altı aydan uzun süredir bir ilişki içindeydi. Katılımcılar, çatışmaların çözümüne yaklaşım ölçeği (CTS2), COPE (Başa Çikma Tutumlarini Değerlendirme Ölçeği ve Ana Babaya Bağlanma Ölçeği (PBI) tamamladılar. Bulgular, flört istismarı (fiziksel saldırı, yaralanma, cinsel zorlama) konusunda Çin ve Türkiye arasında önemli farklılıklar olduğunu göstermektedir. Ancak psikolojik saldırganlık açısından Çin ile Türkiye arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamaktadır. Çin ve Türkiye arasında flört istismarına ilişkin cinsiyet farklılıklarının sonuçları, Türkiye'de erkek ve kadın arasında cinsel zorlama uygulama, fiziksel saldırı uygulama , fiziksel saldırıya maruz kalma ve yaralanma mağduriyeti arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermektedir. Ancak Çin'de erkekler ve kadınlar arasında flört istismarı (fiziksel saldırı, yaralanma, psikolojik saldırganlık, cinsel zorlama) mağduriyet ve faillik açısından anlamlı bir fark yoktur. Regresyon sonucu, Çin'de aşırı korumanın flört istismarının tüm değişkenlerini (suç ve mağduriyetler) pozitif olarak yordadığını göstermektedir. Ayrıca Türkiye'de bakım, psikolojik saldırganlık ve cinsel zorlama eylemlerini olumsuz yönde yordamaktadır. Moderasyon analizi sonuçları, koruma alt boyutunun Çin'de psikolojik saldırganlık gerçekleştirme ve kaçınma ile başa çıkmayı azalttığını göstermektedir. Türkiye'de bakım alt boyutu, yaralanma mağduriyeti ve kaçınma ile başa çıkmayı hafifletmektedir. Ayrıca aşırı koruma, yaralanma mağduriyetini ve sosyal destekle başa çıkmayı hafifletir. Ayrıca bakım alt boyutu, cinsel zorlama yapma ve kaçınma ile başa çıkmayı hafifletmektedir. Sonuçlar tartışılmış ve çalışmanın sınırlılıkları açıklanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Başa çıkma stratejileri, beliren yetişkinlik, bakım verene bağlanma, flört şiddeti, kültürler arası karşılaştırma

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

Violence can occur in marriage and between young people in unmarried relationships. Since the 1980s, more than 50 studies have reported that dating couples are more likely to be violent than married couples (Straus, 2004) and that younger couples are more likely to be violent in intimate relationships (Stets & Straus, 1989). Research shows that intimate partner violence occurs most frequently between the ages of 16-24 (Greenfeld et al., 1998). The average prevalence of dating violence (physical violence) among university students is around 30% (Chan et al., 2008; Lewis & Fremouw, 2001). Exposure to dating violence hurts the physical, mental and social functioning of the victim (Banyard & Cross, 2008). For example, a US study (Silverman et al., 2001) reported that high school girls who had been violently victimized by their boyfriends (both physically and sexually) were four times more likely to use drugs and alcohol, four to six times more likely to be pregnant, and eight times more likely to commit suicide than girls who had not been violent. Dating violence is also associated with depressive symptoms, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), feelings of self-blame, sexually transmitted infections, and suicidal ideation (Chan et al.,2008; Dutton et al., 2006; Slashinski et al., 2003).

Despite the prevalence and harmfulness of dating violence, the access rate to counseling units is low, and people are not even aware of professional help opportunities (Shen, 2011). Adolescents or young people are prone to seek help out of shame, fear, or myths (interpreting violent behavior as a 'manifestation of love' or believing that violence is a 'normal' phenomenon that does not require outside intervention) (Levy, 1998). Adults also often underestimate the dangers of dating violence, and there is no government legislation to protect against it (Levy, 1998). Research has shown (Henton et al., 1983) that approximately 25% of victims and 33% of perpetrators of dating violence (high school students) interpret violence as an expression of love. In addition, many victims blamed themselves and were reluctant to tell anyone about the experience (23%). Since young people who have experienced dating violence rarely seek help from outside, how do they respond to violent conflicts in their intimate relationships? Currently, most studies on violence coping strategies are focused on battered married women, and few studies have focused on the coping strategies of unmarried youths to dating violence. Dating violence

can be seen as a prelude to marital violence and understanding and research on dating violence can help to prevent it (Chao et al., 1994).

Emerging Adulthood in Romantic Relationship

The age group of 18-25 years old has been the stage of life development that academia has paid attention to since 2000. It is called "Emerging adulthood" (Amett, 1994). It is the developmental stage of a person from the late teens through the twenties (Arnett, 1997), especially 18-25 years old. For most young people, this stage is when many significant changes occur. It is neither adolescence nor full adulthood. Humans at this age face many unique situations and challenges. (Arnett,1998).

In Emerging adulthood, as Arnett's (2000) research, the exploration of self-identity is mainly completed in three aspects: love, work, and worldview. Forming self-identity involves trying various possibilities in these three aspects and then gradually making decisions that will last longer (such as choosing a career path, choosing a longer-term partner, etc.). In terms of love, exploring love becomes more severe and intimate at the beginning of adulthood. At this time, young people began to explore the possibility of emotional and physical intimacy with each other more. (Arnett,2000)

For those who desire a lot of romantic and sexual experiences, the early adulthood is a good time to explore. At this time parental surveillance has declined, and at this time it has not yet reached the marriage age expected by society (Arnett.,in press). It should be pointed out that self-exploration at the beginning of the adulthood is not always pleasant. The exploration of love may be disappointed, disillusioned. (Ben-Amos,1994)

Coping Strategies

The theoretical basis of this study is contingency theory (Lazarus,1993). The coping theory originated in the 1960s as a concern for stress and is a key concept in adaptation and health research. Coping is a process that varies over time and with context (Lazarus,1993). Individuals choose to use different coping strategies depending on the nature of the stressor, their assessment of coping resources, and situational factors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggest that people's coping strategies in response to problems or life stressors can be categorized into problem-focused and emotion-focused (Lazarus, 1993). Problem-focused coping is using decisions, efforts, or actions—attempts

to change or solve a problem through decision-making, effort, or activity. Emotion-focused coping refers to using positive thinking, ignoring the problem, denial, negative acceptance, withdrawal, and using positive thinking, ignoring the problem, denial, negative acceptance, withdrawal, and using a positive thinking approach. Negative acceptance, withdrawal, blind faith, etc., to adjust to the emotions generated by the problem.

Prevalence of Dating Violence

Lewis and Fremouw (2001) review the literature on dating violence and find that the prevalence rate is related to the definition of dating violence. If the definition of dating violence includes verbal violence, the prevalence rate can be as high as 65%. If only physical violence is considered, the average prevalence rate is around 30%. In a study conducted by Straus (2004) with students from 31 universities around the world (in 16 countries), 29% (median) of the subjects reported having used physical violence against someone they were dating in the past year, and 7% of the subjects caused physical injury to the person they were dating. The study's results show the cross-cultural and serious nature of dating violence.

In addition, both men and women can be perpetrators and victims of dating violence, but the forms of violence differ between men and women (Slashinski et al., 2003). According to a national analysis of data in the US (Slashinski et al., 2003), when comparing physical violence, sexual violence, and stalking in dating violence, men reported stalking as the most common form of dating violence, at 62.5%, while women reported physical violence most often, at 51.5%

Coping with Dating Violence

Most studies on intimate relationship violence coping strategies overseas have focused on married or cohabiting battered women, while few studies have focused on the coping strategies of unmarried battered youth. Therefore, this article first examines the coping strategies of young unmarried victims of violence.

Research (Gryl et al., 1991) has shown that the most common coping strategies university students use in violent relationships are confrontation and avoidance. The study also found gender differences in university students' coping strategies for relationship conflict (both violent and non-violent): female university students most often used 'seeking

social support'; male university students used self-control and avoidance strategies. Other studies have shown that after the violence, adolescent victims of violence take actions such as breaking up with or threatening to break up with the other person, fighting back, failing to act, seeking formal (professional) help, and seeking informal (family and friends) help (Watson et al., 2001). How a violated young person interprets violent behavior affects how he or she responds to it. Suppose the violent youth interprets the partner's violence as a sign of love or normal behavior. In that case, the violent person will often not use problem-oriented responses to stop or leave the violent relationship (Bird et al., 1991).

Waldrop and Resick (2004) synthesized research and found that the coping strategies used by battered women were diverse and changed over time and with changes in intimate relationships. Victims who choose to stay with their perpetrators use more passive coping strategies to deal with the violence. However, when the violence became more frequent and severe, the battered women used a proactive coping strategy to leave the perpetrator. In addition, cultural factors may also influence the choice of response strategies of women who are victims of violence. For example, Eastern cultures, which emphasize the virtues of submission and peace as a woman's virtue, may discourage battered women from seeking external help (Yoshihama, 2002).

Caregiver Bonding and Dating Violence

Numerous studies have shown that attachment plays an important role in intimate relationships. (Ainsworth,1970) Bowlby first proposed the attachment theory in the late 1960s (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment refers to the emotional connection formed between infants and young children and their primary caregivers. Hazan and Shaver proposed the theory that romantic love can also be conceptualized as an attachment in 1987, and demonstrated the similarities between infant attachment and adult romantic love (Hazan & Shaver,1987). Attachment theory focuses on regulating the emotional experience and intimacy behaviors in interpersonal relationships, so it can help people understand the causes of love violence. (Contreras, 2000), Many studies have shown that the quality of the parent-child relationship has an important impact on the development of adolescents' romantic relationship. (Collines,2003) for example When boys enter adolescence, the continuous development of their interpersonal skills still mainly depends on the quality of the attachment relationship between them and their mothers (Rice et al.,1997). Hostile parenting styles in the family tend to cause young people to have in-depth sexual behaviors

such as direct stroking and sexual intercourse prematurely in romantic relationships. (Kaminer et al.,2008).

Cultural Similarity and Differences Between China and Turkiye

Turkiye and China are two countries located at the eastern and western ends of Asia, and they are also countries with a long history and culture. Although China has made significant progress in westernization and modernization in recent years, it can feel the influence of Eastern culture in China, especially in some small cities. Likewise, due to Turkiye's geographical location and history, Turkish culture has also been influenced by Eastern and Western cultures, constituting Turkiye's own geopolitical culture. As a result, Turkiye has some similarities with China in many ways.

Similarity showed in tea culture, family relations, friendly relations, gender inequality, and favorite color, red. However, there are also language, religion, one-child policy, and education pressure differences between China and Turkiye. Nevertheless, the difference and similarities between the two countries can make the paper breakthrough in a new area.

Aims of the Study

The existing literature on dating violence mostly focuses on Western society. Although violence is a human behavior across cultures, races, and genders, the definition of violence is a sociocultural construct (Özgür, 2011). Different cultures have different evaluations, judgment standards, and norms for violent aggression, so it is necessary to pay attention to the relationship between different cultural backgrounds and violent behavior in dating violence-related research (Punamaki & Joustie., 1998). A review of domestic and international literature reveals that studies on coping strategies for violence are dominated by married women who are victims of violence, with few studies focusing on the coping strategies of unmarried men and women. No studies use a national sample to investigate the prevalence of dating violence, caregiver attachment, and coping strategies among unmarried emerging adulthood. Different cultures, religions, and levels of economic development may impact dating violence, caregiver bonding, and coping strategies. There are more studies on these aspects in Turkiye and China, but there are few cross-cultural studies.The aim of this study is to compare dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding among unmarried emerging adults in China and Turkiye.This study's

first aim is to examine whether or not between contries (Turkiye and China) differences in dating violence(physical assault, psychological aggression, sexual coercion, injury). The seond aim is to examine whether or not between gender differences and dating violence(physical assault, psychological aggression, sexual coercion, injury) in emerging adults. The third aim is to test whether or not caregiver bonding (care ,overprotection) predict dating violence in emerging adults. The last aim is to test the moderation effect of caregiver bonding on the relationship between dating violence and coping strategies.

Research Questions

1. Are there significant differences between the type of dating violence (physical assault, psychological aggression, sexual coercion, injury) and countries (China ,Turkiye)?
2. Are there significant differences between gender and dating violence (physical assault, psychological aggression, sexual coercion, injury) in Chinese and Turkish unmarried emerging adults?
3. Does caregiver bonding (care,overprotection) predict of dating violence in Chinese and Turkish unmarried emerging adults?
4. Are there caregiver bonding moderation effect between dating violence and coping strategies in Chinese and Turkish unmarried emerging adults?

1.2 Cultural Similarity and Differences Between China and Turkiye

Turkiye and China are two countries located at the eastern and western ends of Asia, and they are also countries with a long history and culture. Although China has made significant progress in westernization and modernization in recent years, it can feel the influence of Eastern culture in China, especially in some small cities. Likewise, due to Turkiye's geographical location and history, Turkish culture has also been influenced by Eastern and Western cultures, constituting Turkiye's own geopolitical culture. As a result, Turkiye has some similarities and differences with China in many ways. The difference and similarities between the two countries can make the paper breakthrough in a new area (Tian, 2019.

1.2.1 Cultural Similarity between China and Turkiye

Tea culture - It can be said that the most extensive and characteristic aspect of Chinese and Turkish culture is the tea culture. Chinese tea is dominated by green tea, black tea, and oolong tea, while Turkish tea is dominated by Turkish black tea. （Tian,2019）

Family relations - Turkish and Chinese family structures are very similar, and in both cases, family is essential. For example, the Chinese and Turks try to celebrate special holidays in a family environment. (Tian,2019)

Relationship with friends- The Chinese have valued friendly relationships since ancient times. Chinese and Turkish people prefer to do business and spend time with people who have deep friendships in their business and personal lives case. (Tian, 2019)

Gender equality -China is a country with a history of 5,000 years. Before that, it was a patriarchal society, where men held the main power. So, in China, since ancient times, there has been a patriarchal concept that a son is cons idered to have offspring, daughters will eventually become someone else's family people China pregnancy test does not give ultrasound to detect the sex. It is to prevent female fetuses from being aborted. (Lee, 2012)

Turkiye is also a patriarchal society influenced by religion, and many policy guidelines in both countries are made by men. In life, most of the executives of companies are men, and most principals of schools or college presidents are also men. So, men and women in both countries are not equal. (Müftüler, 2012)

Color red- both Chinese and Turkish flags are red. In addition, perhaps the culture of both countries is influenced by Western culture, and we can see white wedding dresses in the streets. However, the clothes worn by Chinese people since ancient times since their marriage are primarily red, and the house is decorated with red ornaments to show joy. This is also true in Turkiye. Turkish women usually wear red and burgundy clothing on henna nights. （Tian, 2019）

1.2.2 Cultural Differences between China and Turkiye

Language-Chinese people speak Chinese, and Turkish is spoken by Turkish. The official language of Chinese is Mandarin. Because of regional differences, each region has its dialect, and ethnic minorities have their languages.

One child policy in China -Because China was overpopulated and had a surplus of labor, it could not solve the problems of employment, clothing, food, and development. Hence, it was necessary to control population growth. Therefore, in China, from September 1980, it was advocated that a couple should preferably have only one child. Incentives were offered to those with one child, such as priority job placement, until January 1, 2016, when the policy of two children per couple was fully implemented, and actions to cope with the aging population were actively carried out. Turkiye. There are no political restrictions, so the average family has three or more children. (Lee, 2012)

National College Entrance Examination (GAOKAO) **-**Gaokao is one of the essential national examinations in China. Because of the problems of the Chinese population, Gaokao is considered the biggest opportunity for the poor to change their lives. This is also divided into families. For ordinary families and below, Gaokao is very important.

It is the fairest exam in the country. The Gaokao is the first turning point in life. The children of wealthy families in China cannot take the Gaokao seriously because the family conditions themselves are good enough, and the children of other families growing up enjoy the resources that ordinary families are much better. Therefore, even if they do not take the Gaokao, they can choose and study other things they are interested in because they have the conditions and resources to do so. (Lee& Zhong, 2018)

For ordinary families, there are not so many options. The Gaokao is the only way out. That is why families in China make their children study all courses from the time they enter kindergarten, attend cram schools and get private tutors from an early age to prepare for the GAOKAO, and study under more pressure than in other countries. There are also exams to enter university in Turkiye, but the pressure to study is not as great as that of Chinese students.

Religion- Most of the world, except China, is a religious culture, and religious beliefs characterize religious cultures. In China, there are religions, Christianity, Islam, and Buddhism. However, the whole population is not religious, so China is a country without "faith." The faith of the ancient Chinese is closer to a cultural belief. However, it is difficult to say in modern times, as contemporary Chinese believe that, after all, traditional faith is challenging to meet the needs of modern people. The pressure faced by modern people is multifaceted and complex, which no faith can solve. (Ash, 2003)

Islam is the main religion in Turkiye. According to the state, 99.8% of the population is automatically registered as Muslim by the state if neither parent has any other officially recognized religion (Oktem,2002). Islam is the main religion in Turkiye, accounting for 82% of the total population, of which 10% are non-denominational Muslims, followed by the Christian faith (5%). The majority of Muslims in Turkiye are Sunnis (about 65%), while Shia Muslims make up 4%. Among the Shia Muslims in Turkiye, a minority belongs to the Ismaili sect. The non-Muslim religious populations are Christians (Orthodox and Armenian Apostolic Church) and Sephardic Jews, who make up 4% of the total population of Turkiye. (Çakıroğlu & Toprak, 2006)

1.3 Emerging Adulthood

1.3.1 Definition of Emerging Adulthood

Compared with the past, today's research examining the stages of personal development is influenced by various perspectives. Theorists tried to understand adolescence and adulthood by considering social and cultural factors in their research and proposed new definitions to express this period. One of these definitions is emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000).

The age group of 18-25 years old has been the stage of life development that academia has paid attention to since 2000. It is called "Emerging adulthood" (Arnett,1994). It is the developmental stage of a person from the late teens through the twenties (Arnett,1997), especially 18-25 years old. For most young people, this stage is when many significant changes occur. It is neither adolescence nor full adulthood. Humans at this age face many unique situations and challenges. (Arnet,1998).

When looking up the literature, this period mainly covers the 18-25 age group, but different studies have shown that this period may extend to the 18-29year-old age group (Arnett, 2000). the must emphasize that age is only a rough predictor. The 18-year-old is a clear dividing line because most people finish their high school studies this year and leave their parents' homes. However, age is no longer a clear distinction in transitioning from emerging adulthood to adulthood. Some people have fully reached adult status at 19, and some 29-year-olds still have not got it. Most people will complete this process around the age of 30. In addition, it has been pointed out that emerging adulthood is not universal, varies from culture to culture, and has never appeared in some cultures (Arnett, 2000).

1.3.2 The Five Features of Emerging Adulthood

According to Arnett (2004). Five characteristics distinguish emerging adulthood from other life stages. The first of these characteristics is that this period is a period of identity explorations. People search for identity in terms of work, worldview, and romantic relationships. Another characteristic of emerging adulthood is that this period is instability. During this period, unstable factors such as job changes, the beginning and end of love, and house changes frequently appeared. (Arnet, 2004) The third characteristic of this period is that it is a period in which individuals self-focus. During this period, individuals make their own decisions, prepare for life and learn to be independent. Another characteristic of this period is that individuals experienced a feeling in between. (Arnett, 2004) Emerging adulthood's fifth and final characteristic is a period full of infinite possibilities. Individuals in this period have many opportunities, expectations, and hopes to change their lives. (Arnett, 2000) The five features mentioned above are explained in detail below.

Age of Identity Explorations: In emerging adulthood, individual exploration of self roles is more intense than in adolescence. Especially at 18-25, it has become a unique life stage significantly different from other stages. Frequent changes and the exploration of life possibilities are the most notable features of this stage. (Arnett, 2000) Also, in Emerging adulthood, as Arnett's (2000) research, the exploration of self-identity is mainly completed in three aspects: love, work, and worldview. Self-ident formation involves trying various possibilities in these three aspects and gradually making decisions that will last longer (such as choosing a career path, choosing a longer-term partner, etc.). In terms of love,

exploring love becomes more severe and intimate at the beginning of adulthood. At this time, young people began to explore the possibility of emotional and physical intimacy with each other more. (Arnett,2000)

Early adulthood is an excellent time to explore for those who desire many romantic and sexual experiences. At this time, parental surveillance has declined; this time, it has not yet reached the marriage age expected by society. (Arnett, in press). It is pointed out that self-exploration at the beginning of adulthood is not always pleasant. The exploration of love may be disappointing and disillusioning. (Ben-Amos,1994). Career is also the keyword at this stage. Young people receive a certain degree of education and training at the beginning of their emerging adulthood, and their work experience prepares them for future job identities at this stage (Bachman & Schulenberg, 1993). In emerging adulthood, a conscious young person willfully tries a variety of courses and majors to prepare for the future. Halfon, N et al. (2018) In China, it is a widespread phenomenon for college students to change their work, even more than once. In this way, they feel the various possible career futures, abandon them, and pursue others. In addition, education above an undergraduate degree is becoming more and more common today. Master's and doctoral studies have once again provided opportunities for young people to change their careers.

Regarding worldview, psychologist William Perry (1999) found that worldview change is the core part of cognitive development in emerging adulthood. He pointed out that when young people in their emerging adulthood enter colleges and universities, they often carry the worldview they learned in childhood and adolescence. The education in colleges and universities will show them various worldviews. In the process, young people will find themselves questioning their thoughts in the past. When most young people graduate from college, they will find that they have acquired a different worldview from their past. At the same time, this worldview will continue to revise in the future. That self-exploration in emerging adulthood is not always pleasant. The exploration of love may end in disappointment, disillusionment, and rejection, or the exploration of work may fail to find the ideal job. The investigation of the worldview may bring about the subversion of childhood beliefs.

Age of Instability: At this stage, the individual's life status and role identity are unstable and chaotic. It is difficult to estimate other demographic dimensions from age alone. It may be married, it may not be, it may be still in school, or it may not be. This

unpredictability reflects the experimental characteristics of this stage. Psychologist Jeffrey Jensen Arnett cited the concept "the roleless role," proposed by another scholar, Talcott Parsons, in 1942 to describe a person's state of manifestation in emerging adulthood. At this stage, they are still less restricted by their role identities, such as husband/wife and father/mother. Moreover, this unrestricted state brings about the unpredictability of their living conditions.

Emerging adulthood is the stage of life when a person moves most frequently. Emerging adults start college life and choose a department. Over time, they are dissatisfied with the selected department; plans may change, such as shifting to jobs and occupations that generate more income. (Arnett, 2000) During this period, the individual develops a dream to live with her boyfriend or girlfriend and implements the plan. They want to live with these people in the future. However, they realized that they had no common destiny after a while. They reconsider their plans in this regard. In this case, they will likely end their relationship and make new friends. All these experiences make this period of change and instability (Arnett, 2000; 2004).

Age of Self-Focus: Childhood and adolescents are growing up under the guidance and supervision of parents. Parents will be involved in most decisions. Some specific norms and boundaries need to be observed in the family, and the space for autonomy is limited. After establishing a family and investing in a long-term and stable career in adulthood, people's freedom for autonomy is fixed by changing roles. They begin to assume the responsibilities of family and livelihood. They must compromise between themselves and their partners, children, and work. Only in emerging adulthood does young people's space for autonomy reach its peak. They are more independent of their parents and free from the responsibilities of adults. (Arnett 2000They pay more attention to their thoughts and feelings. Self-concern allows them to learn more about themselves and helps clarify their future direction. (Atak & Çok, 2010).

Age of Feeling in Between: Most young people will feel their identities' ambiguity, thinking they are no longer teenagers but have not yet entered adulthood. According to a study by Nelson and Chen (2007), 72% of young people in emerging adulthood believe that they are like adults in some respects, but not in some respects. Arnett believes that this feeling --in between -is related to the standards young people think adults need to meet. Nelson et al. (2007) found that being capable of taking responsibility for the consequences

of their actions, establishing an equal, adult relationship with parents, economic independence, and forming beliefs and values independent of parents is the most standard of adults recognized by people. These standards differ from marriage, having children 18 years or older, and other clear and directly attainable goals. However, they gradually accumulate and form through experience, so they feel that they are still in the process and move progressively towards emerging adulthood.

***Age of Possibility*:** In emerging adulthood, young people have high expectations for the future, believing that the lot is full of possibilities and opportunities to develop in various directions. (Atak &Çok, 2010) Most young people maintain an optimistic attitude, looking forward to the future, they will have a well-paid job and a happy family convinced that dreams will come true one day, and these [beautiful dreams] have not yet been tested by real life.

Young people usually leave home and develop independently in emerging adulthood. They have more autonomy to determine whom they want to be and what kind of life they have, and they shape their values differently from their parents. For young people whose family growth environment is relatively poor (for example, parents divorced, poverty), this period is an opportunity to change their destiny. (Arnett,2000; 2003; 2004). They are more powerful than in the past to heal the injuries received in their families—more opportunities to create a new life. The influence of the original family is bound to exist, but the possibility of transformation is limitless here. There are more choices in emerging adulthood than in children, adolescents, and future adulthood.

1.3.3 Emerging Adulthood in Turkiye

Turkiye has a primarily young population with a collectivist cultural structure and individualistic characteristics. Atak (2005) first examined emerging adulthood in Turkiye. His study used 15-34 years; the education level was high school, undergraduate, and graduate students. Found that the emerging adulthood period is between 19-26 in Turkiye. In addition, gender, economic status, place of residence, and marital status found significant relationships among variables such as status and childbearing during this period. In addition, compared with others, people who are female, single, childless, continuing education, and unemployed are more likely to feel trapped between adolescence and adulthood. According to the research conducted by Doğan and Cebiloğlu (2011), to

determine the characteristics of the emerging adulthood period, the emerging adulthood period covers the years between adolescence and adulthood between the ages of 18-25. It was stated that the characteristics of the emerging adulthood period are self-focus, search for identity, instability, endless possibilities, and a feeling of being in between. In addition, the main factors in emerging adulthood have been observed that changing economic structure, cultural structure, prolongation of education period, and prolongation of marriage age. Another study supporting emerging adulthood in Turkiye was conducted by Parmaksiz (2008), with students between 18 and 30 studying in undergraduate and graduate programs. According to the study results, similar to the previous study, it has been shown that individuals experience the characteristics of emerging adulthood and that these are related to demographic features (Atak & Çok, 2015).

In Atak and Taştan's (2012) studies, 700 emerging adulthood participants examined the relationship between the behavior of taking responsibility for their behavior and social-demographic characteristics such as age and educational status. It has been shown that there is a significant relationship between the behavior of taking responsibility and the individual's perception of adulthood, academic status, gender, and employment status. The same result in the study examining the effect of gender and life satisfaction on initiating romantic relationships of emerging adults (19-25) in Turkiye, the need for belonging and competence significantly predicted starting a romantic relationship (Eryılmaz & Ercan, 2010). In the study of Ergin (2015), it is seen that continuing higher education is an essential factor in terms of emerging adulthood characteristics. The study's findings indicated that students have more emerging adult characteristics than employees, women compared to men, and those living separately from their families compared to those living with their families.

Another study on emerging adulthood included the survey of Morsünbül (2013) compared 173 high school students,182 university students, and 154 people who were not educated in the same age group. It was found that high school students do not define themselves as adults, some university students see them as adults, but some university students do not define them as adults. Most individuals in the same age group who are not educated describe themselves as adults. When examined in terms of risk-taking behaviors, the result shows that the group that took the highest risk was university students, and the group that took the least risk was the working group. These results indicate that university

students are in the emerging adulthood period but do not reflect the characteristics of the period. Galioğlu (2014) examined family functions as a predictor of loneliness and hopelessness in emerging adults. As a result of the research, the average age of emerging adults was 21; it also shows that the variables predicting loneliness in emerging adults were mostly general functions and offered the necessary attention sub-dimensions.

According to studies from all fields, Yaban (2017) examined adolescents and emerging adults; It has been observed that positive sociability increases with age. It was considering the antecedents of social value orientation. The result was that prosaically value orientation was positively related to relatedness self-construable and low-income family perception. In the outcomes associated with the similarity of social value orientation between mother, father, and youth, the similarity between the emerging adults and his father was higher than the adolescents. Moreover, Karataş and Çelikkaleli (2018) examined the relationship between the probability of suicide in emerging adulthood and coping with stress and anger. The extent to which anger and stress coping skills predicted the likelihood of suicide was determined, and whether this probability differed according to gender was examined. According to the research results, it was observed that the possibility of suicide did not vary significantly according to gender. In addition, the case of suicide is related to anger and stress coping strategies. In the study of Parlak (2018), youth violence against partners and its prevention, a mixed-method study was conducted; It aims to determine the source, emotional and intellectual processes of emerging adulthood and develop a program to prevent partner violence in adolescents. In the study, it was seen that the triggers of violence against the partner were jealousy, trust, uncontrollable anger, and the desire to control the partner's life.

1.3.4 Emerging Adulthood in China

In China's first study on emerging adulthood, Wang (2008) found that the peer structure of emerging adulthood is different from the past. During this period necessary to develop interpersonal skills to integrate into society. Studies show that indirect relationship attacks tend to increase with age, presumably due to advanced age, more proficiency in the grasp of interpersonal connections, and more social experience. After in 2009, Liao examined the relationships between self-identity, self-defining memory, and happiness in emerging adulthood. The result shows that After full exploration, reflection, and

commitment, emerging adults who agree with achieving a remarkable transition in life will have a more active interpretation process, tend to give positive meaning to the experience, and have a better sense of happiness.

On the contrary, emerging adults who agree with the confusion will have a more positive interpretation of the experience. The explanation is that the journey is more damaging, and the happiness is lower. Understanding the attitude of the past will affect the present and thus affect future development. Therefore, the self-defined memory of young people can reflect essential issues related to self-development.

Furthermore, in 2004, the Nelson research team at the University of Birmingham Young used Arnett's adult standard questionnaire to survey university students in Beijing. The survey found that about 1/3 of young people are uncertain about their adult status (Nelson et al., 2004). Nelson's research provides a corresponding reference for the study in China in the early stage of adulthood, but it also has certain shortcomings. As a Western scholar, Nelson still copied Arnett's research model in the United States when conducting research and analysis in China, without fully considering China's social and cultural background, and his conclusions were not comprehensive.

In contrast, Li(2018) examines the cumulative effect of emerging adulthood and found that emerging adulthood has an essential impact on the overall life situation of the individual. The longer the duration of emerging adulthood, the higher the individual's socioeconomic status, marriage, and stable occupation. The longer the interval between, the more conducive to adult development in emerging adulthood. Furthermore, Cao (2018) uses grounded theory to study the use of digital media in family communication in emerging adulthood and the resulting changes in the relationship between parents and children and the privacy management of children. Emerging adulthood is an active user of Internet media and a new force in content production, and Digital media communication provides a more convenient and economical communication channel.

On the other hand, the privacy of family members has been reshaped, and contemporary Chinese family emotional models have also been reshaped, followed by changes. In addition to the above, Wang & Lei (2009) researched college students' psychological development and education in emerging adulthood. She believes that young adults in the early stage of adulthood face a complex environment and bear tremendous

pressure under social transformation. More significant is the gap between the optimism of young people, which has a negative psychological impact on young people. Therefore, it is necessary to strengthen the intervention of college students' mental health through psychological counseling, planning education, and value education based on the development characteristics of the early adult.

To sum up, emerging adulthood is a life stage that deserves attention. Under the influence of different social environments, young people's cognition, performance, and characteristics are also other. Unfortunately, there are few studies on emerging adulthood in China, and the academic circles seldom pay attention to emerging adulthood as an independent life stage.

1.3.5 Emerging Adulthood in Violence

In emerging adulthood, as the research (Arnett,2000), the exploration of self-identity is mainly completed in three aspects: love, work, and worldview. Self-ident formation involves trying various possibilities in these three aspects and gradually making decisions that will last longer (such as choosing a career path, choosing a longer-term partner, etc.).

In terms of love, exploring love becomes more severe and intimate at the beginning of adulthood. At this time, young people began to explore the possibility of emotional and physical intimacy with each other more. (Arnett,2000) Early adulthood is an excellent time to explore for those who desire many romantic and sexual experiences. At this time, parental surveillance has declined; this time, it has not yet reached the marriage age expected by society (Arnett, in press).

Those in emerging adulthood may also experience conflict with their romantic partner. University students in this period sometimes resolve disputes through violence (Aslan et al., 2008; Turan, 2018). University students who applied to Doğan's (2012)'s psychological counseling center. It has been determined that the student's problem areas are mostly the problems experienced during the dating period. In line with this information, individuals in emerging adulthood are more prone to risky behaviors.

1.4 Dating Violence

1.4.1 Definition of Dating Violence

Dating or dating partner violence is a threat or intent to commit or commit physical, sexual, or emotional violence between individuals in a relationship, including current or former partners. (Straus, 2004) The definition of romantic partner violence is formed and enriched with the continuous expansion of the research scope of ideological violence. (Sezer, 2008) In 1981, the American scholar Makepeace paid attention to dating violence for the first time (Makepeace, 1981). He found that 1/5 people experienced violence at least once during their relationship. In 1989, Sugarman and Hotaling's survey (Sugarman & Hotaling 1989) showed that 1/3 to 1/2 of college and 1/10 of high school students believed that they had experienced dating violence. Both of the above studies are limited to physical violence. Therefore, the early operational definition of dating violence is limited. The act of using or threatening to use physical punishment or restraint by one party in a romantic relationship to intentionally cause pain or harm to the other party (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989). Physical violence: One of the romantic relationships of threat or use of physical punishment or restraint, with intent to cause suffering or injury to the behavior of the other (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989).

In 1982, Koss and Oros proposed "dating rape" in a famous women's magazine. A survey of American college students found that 20%-25% of women had experienced sexual behavior against their will in their college career (Currie & MacLean, 1993). As a result, coercive sexual behaviors in love and dating have also begun to receive attention. The incidence of mental violence is even more common. More than 3/4 of the girls have suffered various forms of mental violence from their romantic partners. (Neufeld et al.,1999). After the researchers expanded the form of violence to sexual and mental violence, the scope of dating violence gradually expanded. Anderson and Danis (2007) proposed a more detailed definition of romantic violence: in a romantic relationship but not married, one partner threatens or uses physical, sexual, or verbal violence against the other partner. Physical violence refers to intentional beating, pushing, kicking, and throwing things at the partner. Mental violence often includes insults, belittling, criticizing the other party, threatening to break up, saying things that irritate or hurt the partner, etc. Sexual violence includes forcing the partner to have sex—or forcing the other party to have more

than the expected number of sexual acts. Although there are slight differences in specific behavior definitions, our current research on romantic violence belongs to these three aspects.

1.4.2 Theories of Dating Violence

Social Learning Theory: Bandura believes that most human behaviors come through learning. Individuals shape behavior patterns through observation and imitation (Bandura, 1973, 1977). Shen (1997) believes that in the socialization process, if an individual learns that "violence" is an appropriate response to pressure when the individual is in an angry or frustrated mood, the individual may use violence. Chen, (2004) explained that in imitation, individuals learn social and cognitive behaviors through pure observation and imitation. When the behavior of the imitation object was rewarded, learning was strengthened. The family is where each individual learns behaviors, gender identity, and values. In daily life, many behaviors are learned from parents or primary caregivers. Children experience domestic violence. Whether it is a victim experience or a long-term witness to domestic violence, it is easy to change violence is rationalized. When individuals grow up, they will use violence to deal with problems. Such learning effects make domestic violence transmitted between generations (Shen, 2001a; Sun & Li, 2009).

Considering the relationship between dating violence and social learning theory, individuals learn dating violence behaviors within social relations. The individual can learn violent behavior from interacting with his environment. If the individual is raised or lives in a social environment that supports violence, violence may exhibit behaviors, remain silent when exposed to violence, or support acts of violence.

Social Situation/Stress and Coping Theory: Social pressure exists in various forms, including environmental stress, life stress, interpersonal tension, work pressure, etc. When individuals cannot cope, internal anxiety and frustration will increase, making their emotions and behaviors lose control, and high feelings can easily pass-through violence. The form (spoken language and behavior) is vented (Zheng, 2004; Zheng &Wang., 2002). This theory believes that the richer the individual's resources, abilities, opportunities, and support systems, the higher the probability of successfully overcoming various pressures, and the less likely it is for individuals to lose control of these pressures and frustrations. Therefore, they are less likely to happen—violent behavior. On the contrary, if an

individual's resources, abilities, opportunities, and support systems are weaker or lacking, the probability of successfully responding to pressure is reduced, and the likelihood of violent behavior is relatively increased.

Conflict Perspective: The view of conflict theory extends the idea of resource theory, which is that Marx and Engles (1994) look at family relationships from the perspective of social conflict. Believed that the family is the same as other social systems, conflicts between family members are predictable, and the potential competition structure is part of the marriage and family system.

In the interaction between family relations and family members, there are often disputes and out-of-balance in the mutual relationship to compete for and control limited resources, such as the allocation of space in the family, the distribution of leisure and entertainment time and expenditure, and the allocation of care time, etc. As a result, there may be conflicts (Cai, 2004; Zheng, 2008). Therefore, if husbands and wives or couples cannot reach a consensus or communicate and negotiate under uneven resource allocation, conflicts will be triggered, the relationship will lose momentum, and the possibility of violence will increase (Lin, 2012).

Conflict theory provides an explanation at the level of relationship interaction, combined with resource theory. Still, it fails to provide a necessary factor that constitutes the cause of violence in intimate relationships. In the case of uneven resource allocation, conflicts between family members or partners can occur. Therefore, further exploration of intimate relationship violence from social interaction levels will be carried out.

1.4.3 Types of Dating Violence

The concept of violence changes with time, society, and culture and manifests itself in different forms. When defining violence in society, emphasize physical violence. However, defining violence as a single type causes the damage it causes to be ignored. For this reason, it is necessary to consider violence more comprehensively. In that case, we can consider all negative actions that affect the physical and psychological health of the individual according to the category of violence. (Aslan et al., 2008; Cinal, 2018).

Dating violence, one of the types of interpersonal violence, is the behavior of couples that includes physical, sexual, emotional, and verbal violence to each other during their

romantic relationship (Aslan et al., 2008). When the studies are examined, it is stated that social restrictions and emotional violence are types of dating violence. At this point, it can be said that there is more than one type of dating violence, so it is necessary to focus on psychological and emotional harm as well as physical violence. When we look at dating violence in general, it can be seen in romantic relationships; It shows in different forms such as physical, sexual, emotional, economic, social, digital, and persistent follow-up.

Physical Violence: Physical violence, which is easier to detect than other forms, leads to dangerous results such as murder and death if brute force is used to harm, intimidate, and dominate. Physical violence aiming to intentionally hurt the other party's body is the most common in societies (Uluocak et al., 2014). Punching, slapping, battering, kicking, twisting, tying, strangling, pulling his hair, wounding him with sharp or striking tools, burning him with boiling water or cedar, putting out cigarettes on his body, crushing his hands and feet, crippling him, forcing him to live in unsanitary conditions, Torture and causing bodily harm by preventing them from benefiting from health services are physical violence

In a study conducted by the World Health Organization (2012) with 24.000 female participants in 10 countries, 13-61% of women reported that they had been subjected to physical violence by their partners, and 40-49% said that they had experienced severe physical violence from their partners.

The research on the types of violence is mainly conducted on physical violence. According to a study conducted in 16 countries and 31 universities to determine the status of physical violence in relationships, 21 of 31 universities determined that female participants suffered more physical violence during dating than men (Straus, 2004). According to another study measuring the prevalence of sexual and physical violence in 10 countries and 15 settlements, the majority of physical violence was between 13% and 61% (Garcia et al., 2006).

Emotion/ Psychological Violence: The psychological or emotional dimension of violence is also referred to as psychological or emotional violence in the literature. Although current research focuses more on physical violence, the psychological form of violence can be at least as destructive as physical violence (Follingstad et al .1990).

Although physical violence is more familiar, psychological violence is also quite common. In the Follingstad et al. (1990) study, 99% of the participants experienced psychological violence. The high rate of psychological violence may be because the partners who use physical violence also apply psychological violence to their spouses (Follingstad et al., 1990). In a study conducted by the World Health Organization (2012), 20-75% of the participants stated that they had experienced psychological violence from their partners at some point in their lives. In summary, psychological violence and physical violence are intertwined. Because although physical violence decreases, psychological violence generally continues and manifests as a reminder of physical violence (Özcan, 2009).

Emotion/ psychological violence is a form of indirect violence, which is more difficult to detect than direct violence but is also more common. It often manifests in love's disrespect for the partner, lying, or pure manipulation. The violencer does not seem to be abusive. Still, his words and behavior will reveal blatant violence, such as verbal attacks, humiliation, sarcasm, derogation, movement restriction, slander, mockery, threats, intimidation, discrimination, exclusion, and other non-physical hostile treatment.

Sexual Violence: Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work. (Yıldırım, 2016) Sexual violence includes rape, sexual slavery, forced prostitution, forced pregnancy, sterilization, or other equivalent behaviors.

In the study of Garcia-Moreno et al. (2006), in which they investigated the prevalence of physical and sexual violence in dating violence, the lifetime prevalence of sexual violence ranged from 13% to 61%; The majority of exposure to both sexual and physical violence found to be between 15% and 71%.

Sexual violence, often combined with forms of physical and emotional violence, is implemented. Although it is seen that physical violence is used the most, the rate of sexual violence is as high as other types of violence (Yıldırım, 2016).

1.4.4 Dating Violence in China

There is very little literature on dating violence in China, and the research focuses on the prevalence of dating violence and related factors. In the research, Zheng, and Wang, (2002) report show that the perpetrators were males in China. In addition, they put forward a description of the psychological characteristics of the violence. They believe the violence may have excessive possessiveness, sexual jealousy, hostility, cognitive distortion, low self-esteem, weak impulse control, extreme performance behavior, Frustration, and other traits.

The research of Zhang, &Xu (1999) pointed out that the relationship between intimate relationship violence and relationship conflict does not come out of thin air. Still, a tipping point is formed by different conflict events and reasons in life, and violent behavior is used as a problem-solving method. Also, Zheng and Wang, (2002) pointed out native family members are accustomed to using violence to deal with conflicts. Therefore, the possibility of intimate violence and the risk of violence will increase.

Research by Sun and Li, (2009) shows that domestic violence experience directly affects dating violence, supporting and explaining the impact of behavioral learning. In addition, inter-generational and intimate relationship violence transmission have a direct predictive effect.

The above research found that the deterioration of the relationship caused by conflict is the cause of intimate relationship violence. The causes of wars are diverse, mainly related to allocating family or couple resources. The place consistent with the impulse theory in the previous section is that when a couple or a couple The inability to reach a consensus or communicate and negotiate on conflicts can easily cause the relationship to lose momentum and increase the possibility of violence (Lin, 2012).

1.4.5 Dating Violence in Turkiye

In Turkiye's prevalence of dating violence, according to the study conducted by Özcebe et al. (2002) with 148 students, it was stated that 8% of the young people were exposed to dating violence, and 6.8% of them used dating violence. Also Toplu-Demirtaş et al. (2013) explored dating violence victimization among 390 college women in Ankara and observed that 79.5% had been victimized at least once in the past year. More

specifically, 73.1% have been victimized by psychological violence, 34.6% by physical violence, and 27.4% by sexual violence. Different types of violence were likely to coexist, and dating violence was more prevalent in longer relationships.

Research investigating dating violence and risk factors has observed that women between the ages of 16-24 are at risk of being exposed to violence in a dating relationship. (Isiloglu, 2006). In addition, a study by Özgür et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between dating violence and gender and found that men are more aggressive than women, are more inclined to violence, and accept violent behavior.

The study by Kaya-Sakarya (2013) aimed to examine the acceptance level of dating violence in university students regarding class level, age group, and various demographic variables. It was observed that the student's acceptance of dating violence did not change according to the grade level. The same result with results of the study conducted by Kepir Savoly et al. (2014) to examine the level of acceptance of dating violence by gender, it was found that there was a significant difference between university students and the level of acceptance of dating violence.

To sum up, Cinal's (2018) study examining the relationship between dating violence, anxiety, and depression levels found a parallel relationship between individuals' dating violence attitude scores and their anxiety scores.

1.5 Coping Strategies

1.5.1 Theories of Coping

The Coping Theory: Coping originated from the focus on stress in the 1960s. It is a critical concept in the field of adaptation and health. The response is a process that changes with time and context (Lazarus, 1993).

Individuals will choose to use different response strategies based on the nature of the stressor, their evaluation of response resources, and situational factors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The measurement of response focuses on describing the thoughts and behaviors of individuals in the face of stress (Lazarus, 1993). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) believe that when people face problems or life pressures, their coping strategies can be summarized

into two types: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping—coping). Problem-focused coping involves changing or solving the problem through decision-making, effort, or action. Emotion-focused coping techniques use positive thinking, ignoring problems, denial, negative acceptance, withdrawal, blind confidence, and other strategies to adjust the emotions caused by pests. Recent scholars' classification of responses includes: active or passive, facing or avoiding, adaptive or non-adaptive, cognition or behavior, etc. (Skinner et al., 2003; Waldrop & Resick, 2004).

In addition, humans have different coping styles, but animals also have different ways of dealing with stress. A simulated cave laboratory study on rats found that rats also have different coping styles. In rats with social status as subordinates, there are two coping styles: stress coping group and non-stress coping group. Among them, the stress response group showed more defiant behaviors. At the same time, they lost relatively little weight, were less attacked, and had the opportunity to contact close females. The stressed non-responding group showed more passive defense strategy-related behaviors, including being motionless when dealing with or being held down. (Blanchard et al., 2001)

Another study found that there are also differences in cortical release levels in the stress response group and the stress non-response group. The cortical release of the stress response group was significantly higher than that of the non-stress response group (Blanchard et al., 1993).

The researchers also found that although the stress-coping style does not affect the social status of the rats, it will affect the results of the rats with a low social rate, and the positively-coping rats have more resistance behaviors (Gretha et al., 2017).

Personality-Oriented Theory: The personality-oriented theory was Proposed by Pines (1983), who believes that personality traits determine coping strategies. The influence mechanism includes genetic characteristics; individuals can choose methods that suit their characteristics to cope with pressure due to differences in race, intelligence, body type, and appearance.

The second is the characteristics of the environment. The factors formed by the individual affected by the environment, such as tension, anxiety, and different stress levels, will also affect the individual's choice of strategies when facing pressure. (Pines, .1983)

The third is distinctive social personality, the characteristics formed according to social and cultural background factors (such as making good use of communication) and then choosing strategies to respond to stress. The fourth is the educational characteristics, the features formed by being taught or trained. According to the elements, the response strategies suitable for the stress situation are selected. (Pines.1983)

Cognitive Appraisal Theory: Proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), it is argued that response is a dynamic process of cognitive appraisal, which consists of five steps: the first step is the occurrence of a potentially stressful event, that is, self-assessment of those environmental events that have threats and stimuli; The second is the primary appraisal of the incident, that is, whether the threat incident will cause harm; The third is the secondary appraisal of the incident, that is, assessing the scope and extent of possible damage from the threat event; The fourth is the choice of coping efforts, that is, to avoid harm, to choose a strategy that meets the characteristics of the event; the fifth is the adaptation outcomes, that is, the feelings and results of coping with the pressure itself. According to Han (2003), this model emphasizes cognitive evaluation. Subjective interpretation and perception of events are the keys to the response process. They can guide individuals to adopt appropriate strategies to respond to them to obtain adaptive feelings under pressure. Folkman and Lazarus (1988) also pointed out that plans are related to experience. When an individual adopts an approach to relieve stress effectively, he will adopt the same method to deal with the same problem next time.

1.5.2 Problem-Focused and Emotion-Focused Coping

Two main functions of coping were broadly studied in the literature:

(1) Problem-focused coping

This strategy aims to solve the problem situation that causes trouble. When individuals assess that the status can be changed, they adopt this response strategy. This strategy can be divided into two types: to eliminate stress or increase self-resource behavior and to change the internal psychological process.

(2) Emotion-focused coping

This strategy aims to adjust the emotional response caused by the problem. This strategy is most commonly used when the individual assesses the situation and is not easy to change with behavior; it can be divided into two types. One is to change the cognition of the event or the case if it cannot be changed. For example, the objective context of an event can change its meaning. The second is to isolate oneself from a stressful situation or use a defensive mechanism to forget specific experiences.

Connor-Smith (2000) believes that three coping styles range from positive to negative. Active coping is also called primary control coping, similar to problem-centered methods, and is committed to adopting various ways to control stressors in the situation. Negative coping is also called non-participation, identical to emotional strategies, mainly through denial and avoidance. The other methods ignore the problem and achieve emotional calmness; the secondary control coping method belongs to the intermediate level, the primary control coping, and the non-participation of the middle coping method.

1.5.3 Coping Strategies in China

Very little research in China explores people's coping strategies who suffer from dating violence. For example, one of the articles explored the subjective perceptions and behavioral strategies of four unmarried women who were victims of partner violence and their decision-making process in their partner relationships (Yang, 2008). Research results show that available women often interpret their boyfriends' high-pressure control and violence as caring for themselves, so they use rationalization, submission, patience, and neglect as strategies for self-protection and often use sex as a ritual to end the conflict.

Another essay explores the coping strategies of lesbians to violence in intimate relationships (Wen, 2007). The study found that lesbians mainly adopt personal-oriented responses, including silently crying, suicide or self-harm, trying to leave the scene of violence, fighting back with violence, trying to end the violent relationship, agreeing to stop using violence during the non-arguing period, and discussing How to deal with issues that cause conflicts.

Positive coping styles can improve the mental health of college students, but for those college students who often adopt negative coping techniques, their mental health is relatively low (Tong, 2004). Their moods will also change for individuals who frequently

use negative coping styles. The most obvious is depression, and positive coping styles were negatively correlated with depression. College students who adopt negative coping techniques are more likely to develop depression (Huang, 2006). In addition, a quantitative study (Wang & Chen , 2011) will investigate and study 16 practitioners at Taiwan University Business Counseling Center. The study results found that 57 universities and colleges have handled dating violence cases in the past two years, totaling 9 points. Violence is controlled by high pressure, the proportion of physical violence is relatively high, and there are multiple cycles of violence and violence. However, most practical workers in the college counseling center still need to strengthen their awareness of violence and deal with dating violence cases. The results of this study show that when college students suffer multiple violence or are in a violent cycle of intimacy, they may turn to the school's counseling center. Still, most practitioners need to strengthen relevant training (such as risk assessment, drafting The victim's safety plan, etc.) to respond to the needs of students seeking help.

1.5.4 Coping Strategies in Turkiye

According to the literature , 443 university students in Turkiye to understand the relationship between coping styles and dating violence result show that Dating violence correlated negatively with problem-oriented/effective coping techniques (self-confident and optimistic managing) except for seeking social support and positively with emotion-oriented/ineffective coping styles (helpless and submissive coping) at significant levels. Also, optimistic and submissive coping predicted psychological dating violence perpetration. While helpless coping predicted psychological dating violence victimization. (Ipek, 2021)

Similarly, Odacı and Çıkrıkçı (2012) examined the relationships between coping with stress, life satisfaction, and subjective well-being in university students. Eight hundred fifty-two students participated in the research. A positive relationship was found between problem-focused coping and seeking social help. A positive relationship was found between avoidant coping and subjective well-being regarding coping with stress. Problem-focused coping was an essential determinant of life satisfaction and emotional well-being.

In addition to the above, 645 university students participated in the study by Boysan (2012). The study tested the relationships between early maladaptive schemas, subjective well-being, and coping styles. The structural model's latent variable of subjective well-being's predictive effect on cognitive schema domains was not statistically significant. Again, the development of early maladaptive schemas on the latent variable of coping styles was not found at a considerable level. In the model, coping styles were the primary determinant in increasing subjective well-being.

In a summary of the above, Dursun (2012) examined the role of the meaning of life, optimism, hope, and the contribution of coping styles with stress on predicting subjective well-being. In the regression analysis, the first analysis revealed that both subscales of the optimism and hope scale positively and significantly predicted positive affect. The results show that variance increased significantly when instrumental and emotional support coping styles were added to the model. The second analysis found that both subscales of the meaning of life questionnaire, optimism, hope only the goal motivation sub-dimension, significantly predicted life satisfaction. When instrumental and emotional support coping styles were added to the model, there was a significant increase in the explained variance.

1.6 Attachment

1.6.1 Theories of Attachment

The Attachment Theory: Many researchers have conducted extensive research on attachment in various fields, and it has become a very active research field in many sciences, such as developmental psychology, personality psychology, and social psychology. From the biological perspective, people need to have intimate contact with other individuals. People rely on each other to support, protect individuals, and make individuals feel safe. That is to say, human needs can establish an emotional connection between individuals, and the survival and reproduction of human beings cannot do without attachment. Bowlby puts forward the main characteristics of attachment based on biological evolution. People have a basic characteristic: Establish a strong and long-term stable emotional connection with a specific object and establish closeness and attachment behavior. (1969, 1973, 1982) After that, Bowlby continued to research this field,

combining cognitive and psychoanalytic theories with its research theories. At the same time, many psychology researchers began to research this field (1982).

The term Attachment was proposed by John Bowlby in 1969. He observed the interaction between the baby and the primary caregiver from an evolutionary perspective. He found that the baby would use particular active behaviors to win the primary caregiver's attention, such as crying, shouting, etc., To obtain the needed response and care. In this interaction process, the baby will form a solid and continuous emotional connection with the primary caregiver, "attachment," The baby's behavior to attract the primary caregiver is called "dependency behavior." Since babies do not have sufficient survival ability when they are born, they must develop a strong connection with caregivers who can cope with changes in the outside world, namely, establish a dependency relationship to ensure survival (Bowlby, 2005).

The core principle of attachment theory is that people will develop a set of mental representations about themselves, essential others, and their relationship, or an internal working model. The internal working model of operation includes specific content about the dependent object and oneself stored in the representation structure, including knowledge about the details of personal experience (such as what happened, where it happened, to whom), and emotions (such as happiness, fear, anger)). The internal working model of operation also affects what people focus on, how they interpret what is happening in their world, what they remember, and what priority emerges in their consciousness (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000).

The internal working model of oneself is formed in the interaction with significant others, mainly how important others accept themselves and whether essential others respond to us emotionally. If the dependent object is available, responsive, and reliable, the child is more likely to develop an accepting and valuable self-representation; if the dependent is inconsistent and non-responsive, the child Is more likely to see themselves as unworthy or worthless. More precisely, it does not depend on the physical accessibility of the object and the presence or absence of a response but on emotional availability and emotional response that determine the child's beliefs about himself and others (Collins & Read, 1990). The internal operating mode of others is a series of expectations, including who may become dependent objects, how acceptable these dependent objects may be, and how they will respond when needed (Pietromonaco & Barrett, 2000).

Social Learning Theory: The learning theory Attachment view plays a vital role in attachment. They believe that children's attachment is a behavior with a secondary reinforcement. Social learning theory suggests that the mechanism underlying the continuity of violence is observational learning, in which violenced children learn to repeat abusive or neglectful modeled behavior (Begle, Dumas & Hanson, 2010). According to the attachment theory, children who experience acute care will, over time, internalize the attachment image as responsive and usable, as well as their value; these children are described as developing a safe self and another Internal working mode. (O'Connor et al., 2013)

Cognitive Theory: The cognitive attachment theory proposes that it is indispensable in the formation process of attachment: First, children's ability to distinguish between different people in the environment is essential. Children's attachment to specific objects will not be indispensable if this ability is missing. It will happen, and at the same time, cowardice will not appear. (Baldwin et al., 1996)

1.6.2 Caregiver Bonding

According to the theoretical perspective of lifelong development, family is the first place of individual development, and adolescent mental health is closely related to parenting bonding. Paren bonding refers to a combination of parenting concepts, parenting behaviors, and their emotional expressions toward children (Valentine et al.,2011).

Parental style was divided by Parker (1983) into four types, identifiable by differing degrees of care and protection. The first, "Optimal Par- enting" was defined by high care and low protection. In this style there was parental affection and closeness coupled with promotion of the child's independence and autonomy. The second type was called "Affectionless Control" and was distinguished by a reduction in care (toward emotional coldness) and high parental protection (intrusion, prevention of independent behavior). The third was associated with high care (emotional sensitivity) and high protection (intrusion, prevention of independent behavior) and is called "Affectionate Constraint." The fourth, "Neglectful Parenting" was associated with low care (emotional coldness) and low protection (promotion of independence and autonomy).

In terms of attachment theory, if the interaction between the infant and the caregiver is reliable, stable, and responsive, then the infant can obtain a strong sense of security and love from the emotional connection formed by the caregiver and use the caregiver as a Safe base explore outwards and create social interactions, which means that attachment objects are regarded as "safe base." (Bowlby, 2005)

Secure attachment children approach their caregivers directly and positively, knowing that their distress and distress will be noticed and answered with absolute comfort and understanding. Insecurely attached children, trust in others, and the value of cooperative behavior develop quickly (Howe et al., 1999). Children who find themselves in relationships with parents who care for them as adequately caring, caring, compliant, consistent, appropriate, and accepting develop secure attachments. Parents of securely attached children are concerned with their children's physical needs and mental states. They are eager to understand and be understood by their children. This presents the possibility of developing a cooperative and collaborative relationship (Howe, 2005).

Anxious-ambivalent attachment. In this type of attachment, the individual is uncertain whether his parents will be available, responsive, or helpful when they apply. Because of this uncertainty, the individual is always prone to separation anxiety and clinging and is anxious about exploring the world. This conflict-pronounced attachment style is supported by a parent who is available and helpful in some situations but not in others. In addition, this attachment style is backed by separations and threats of abandonment used as a control tool (Bowlby, 2012).

Children with avoidant attachment see their parents as rejecting, intrusive and controlling. When these children behave restlessly, it provokes and angers the caregiver. As a result, the caregiver denies the child's attachment behavior or acts aggressively to control the child. In children with avoidant attachment, demonstrating attachment behavior (distress, crying, clinging, following, or demanding) is the opposite of designing security and intimacy with the attachment figure(Mikulincer & Florian,2003). As a result, the child's best defensive strategy seems to minimize attachment behavior and affect. In this case, children do not report or deny their distress. Strong emotions are defensively excluded. Emotional self-preservation occurs. This ensures proper proximity to the attachment figure without causing discomfort, thus reducing the likelihood of rejection. In

these children, trivializing emotions and expressions of strain can be defined as an escape from the display of attachment needs (Howe et al., 1999).

The fourth type of attachment is disorganized attachment. Children who cannot organize their behavior or develop defense mechanisms to seek security or intimacy find their distress and arousal increase and become disorganized. These children have difficulty maintaining functional and developmentally positive relationships with their caregivers. This is often when the attachment figure is the real cause of the initial distress. (Solomon & George, 2011)

1.6.3 Caregiver Bonding in China

Studies in China have found that the higher the level of trust in the attachment relationship between adolescents and their parents, the more attitudes toward getting along with the opposite sex are more optimistic, respect each other, and tend toward equality between the sexes (Huang, 2007). Similarly, Liu et al (2009) studied married men and women (engineers or teachers, with an average age of 28.6 years) towards marriage. The relationship between married men and women and their father/mother became more positive attachment and a positive attitude towards marriage. The higher the individual's trust in the father, the better the quality of communication, and the higher the faith in the mother, the better the quality of communication, and the less emotional alienation an individual has, the more positive the individual's view of marriage and the more critical it is. The more look forward to marriage, the higher the degree of dedication that is willing to sacrifice personal freedom for marriage; conversely, the worse the attachment relationship between the subject and the parent/mother, the more negative and hostile attitude toward marriage. From the results of these studies, having a good attachment relationship with parents seems to help individuals develop love or marriage relationships.

In addition, Huang (2007) found that if the attachment relationship between adolescents and their parents is more alienated, the more they fall in love, the more open their attitudes towards premarital sexual behavior are. On the contrary, Liu et al.(2009) also found that men and women who feel more alienated in their parent/mother attachment relationship have a more positive view of marriage and a higher ability to act on marriage. Adolescents or young men and women with low-quality attachment relationships with their parents may feel more emotionally deprived. Therefore, they are more eager to get

nourishment and connection from another emotion to avoid conflict with their parents. At the same time, it also satisfies the feeling of care or belonging that one cannot get from parents.

In addition to the above, Bai (2009) found that single men and women aged 25 to 55 who are more able to have a secure attachment relationship with others can express unhappiness, empathize with others, and share inner feelings and thoughts with others. In addition, the ability to deal with interpersonal conflicts is also better.

1.6.4 Caregiver Bonding Study in Turkiye

In Turkiye's studies, Terzi and Cihangir-Çankaya (2009) investigated whether attachment styles predict subjective well-being and coping with stress. In this research, 341 students studying at Gazi University participated. The findings obtained from the research show that secure attachment style, self-esteem, and stress coping attitudes include operational planning, seeking outside help, taking refuge in religion, and acceptance/cognitive restructuring. On the other hand, obsessive attachment style is a significant predictor of life satisfaction. In addition, it was observed that the fearful attachment style predicted the avoidance/abstraction coping style, and the dismissive attachment style predicted the operational planning coping style. At the same time, Özer (2009) examined the effects of need satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and attachment styles on university students' subjective well-being within the framework of self-determination theory. Six hundred thirty-eight university students participated in the study. According to the study's findings, there is a positive relationship between secure attachment and subjective well-being. Which are sub-dimensions of attachment styles; A significant negative correlation was found with dismissive, fearful, and preoccupied attachment, and only secure attachment was important in explaining subjective well-being.

To examine the role of secure attachment style and coping methods with stress on the self-recovery power of university students. Two hundred twenty-five university students participated in the research. According to the findings of the study, operational planning, escape/biochemical, and acceptance/cognitive restructuring, which are among the coping methods with secure attachment style, significantly predicted self-recovery scores. Terzi (2013). Furthermore, Yazıcıoğlu (2011) examined the relationships between university students' attachment styles and coping methods. The research sample group consists of 391

students, 196 girls, and 195 boys. The study's findings showed a significant relationship between the attachment anxiety dimension and the avoidance method and between the attachment avoidance dimension and the process of seeking social support.

Similarly, Altundağ (2011) examined the relationship between university students' attachment styles, their attitudes towards coping with stress, and their levels of perception of stress. The sample of the study consisted of 396 people. As a result of the research, it was seen that attachment styles affect the attitudes toward coping with stress and the perception of stress.

On the contrary, Kankotan (2008) examined the role of attachment dimensions, relationship status, and gender on positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction dimensions of subjective well-being. 389 (288 female, 101 male) students from the Middle East Technical University Faculty of Education participated in the research. The study showed that attachment anxiety, avoidance dimensions, and gender predict life satisfaction. In addition, the avoidance dimension of attachment; showed that the anxiety attachment predicted negative emotion.

1.7 Literature Findings on the Relationship Between Research Variables

1.7.1 Dating violence and Coping Strategies

Responding to Dating Violence The research on the coping strategies of intimate relationship violence mainly focuses on married or cohabiting violent women. Few studies have focused solely on the coping methods of unmarried youth who have suffered violence. Therefore, this article first discusses the coping strategies of available young people who have suffered violence.

Studies have shown (Gryl et al., 1991) that college students' most common coping strategies in violent relationships are confrontation and avoidance. The study also found that college students have gender differences in coping strategies when facing relationship conflicts. (Including violent and non-violent clashes): Female college students most often use "seeking social support"; male college students' Strategies of self-control and avoidance are most often used.

Another study shows that after the violence, the actions taken by young victims include: breaking up with the other partner or threatening to break up, fighting back, inaction, seeking formal (professional) help, and seeking informal (relatives and friends) help (Watson et al., 2001).

The violent youth's interpretation of violent behavior will affect how they respond. For example, suppose the violent child interprets their partner's violence as an expression of love or expected behavior. In that case, the victim usually does not use problem-oriented response methods to stop or leave the violent relationship (Bird et al., 1991). The reason why young couples regard violence in intimate relationships as "normal" behavior may be because violence occurs too often and is mistaken for a manifestation of love. Alternatively, because it is normal for violence to happen, they do not think there is any problem with dating violence or intolerable.

Furthermore, young partners may believe that violence is the "effect" of other issues rather than the "cause," so as long as the cause (e.g., jealousy) is resolved, the problem of violence will automatically disappear (Levy, 1998). Waldrop and Resick (2004) synthesized research and found that the coping strategies used by battered women were diverse and changed over time and with changes in intimate relationships. Victims who stay with their perpetrators use more passive coping strategies to deal with the violence. However, when the violence became more frequent and severe, the battered women used a proactive coping approach to leave the perpetrator. In addition, cultural factors may also influence the response strategies of women who are victims of violence. For example, Eastern cultures, which emphasize the virtues of submission and peace as a woman's virtue, may discourage battered women from seeking external help (Yoshihama, 2002).

1.7.2 Caregiver Bonding and Dating violence

Numerous studies have shown that attachment plays a vital role in intimate relationships. (Ainsworth,1970) Bowlby first proposed the attachment theory in the late 1960s (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment is the emotional connection between infants and young children and their primary caregivers. Hazan and Shaver proposed the theory that romantic love can also be conceptualized as an attachment in 1987 and demonstrated the similarities between infant attachment and adult romantic love (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Attachment theory focuses on regulating the emotional experience and intimate behaviors in

interpersonal relationships, so it can help people understand the causes of love violence. (Contreras, 2000), Many studies have shown that the quality of the parent-child relationship impacts adolescents' romantic relationships. (Overbeek et al.,2003) For example, when boys enter adolescence, the continuous development of their interpersonal skills still mainly depends on the quality of the attachment relationship between them and their mothers (Rubin et al.,2004). Hostile parenting styles in the family tend to cause young people to have in-depth sexual behaviors such as direct stroking and sexual intercourse prematurely in romantic relationships. (Williams et al.,2008).

1.7.3 Caregiver Bonding and Coping Strategies

As a result of the caregiver's regulatory capacity, children begin to form consistent responses that they will use to cope with their ability to adapt, especially by immediately assessing the stressful situations in the social environment. As a result of the effect of this capacity, the child's ability to tolerate, learn new information, and adapt to more complex situations develops (Schore, 2001). In development, infants display a behavioral repertoire that includes crying, clinging, and clinging, which signals external threats by seeking support from their primary caregivers. Bowlby argues that at the end of the first year of life, the attachment relationship that provides a sense of security for the baby in the event of stress and external threats is produced between the baby and the caregiver. Moreover, this relationship significantly affects the child's later adaptation to various developmental difficulties and coping with problems (Calkins, 2004). In this context, it can be said that the baby's behaviors are in the early stages of life. Such as turning to the attachment figure when he wants and needs it, searching for it, crying, and holding on to it, are the first coping behaviors aimed at eliminating the baby's existing distress in life. According to Kochanska et al. (2000), children learn to control their emotions in the first few years of life, using purposeful methods that will enable them to cope better in the later years of life.

Additionally, Bowlby states that the connection between distress stimuli and attachment system activation is caused by the basic emotions created around attachment experiences. For example, activation of the attachment system often goes hand in hand with anger and anxiety; wherein there are adaptive signals that something is wrong and some coping action needs to be taken (Bowlby, 1973). Also, when coping with boredom after this system is disabled, positive emotions can occur and relief. However, failure to

cope with difficulties, anxiety, and anger can become chronic, leading to helplessness and detachment. In addition, attachment relationships themselves can also be a source of distress (Bowlby, 1973, 1988).

According to Schore (2001), there are direct relationships between mental health in adulthood and childhood mental health. While coping with psychobiological stressors encountered in the previous life cycle stages is a psychological resilience factor. The inability to cope is a risk factor for interrupting later developmental processes and subsequent psychopathology and vulnerability.

Children have to develop coping skills to relate to the social world successfully. These skills and abilities begin to be learned in the preschool period. Thus, children can successfully adapt to their own culture at this age by learning to control their emotions and behaviors appropriately (Macklem, 2008). According to Compas et al (1992), parents and other family members represent important coping patterns throughout childhood and adolescence. According to Aldwin (2007), adolescents' good relations with their parents help them cope with the numerous problems they face. On the other hand, the relationship between attachment and coping was at the same level in adolescence and adulthood. Still, there is also a reciprocal causal relationship, meaning that individuals with dysfunctional coping styles in youth are more likely to have insecure attachments in adulthood.

2. METHOD

2.1 Participant

The research used the convenience sampling method of nonrandom sampling approaches as a sampling method. Participants were ages 19 and 26 years (X=23.66, SD=3.66), unmarried emerging adulthood Turkish 171 participants (72.5% women, 24% men, 3.5% prefer not to say), Chinese170 participants (71.8% women, 21.8% men, 6.5% prefer not to say). All participants had been in a relationship for more than six months.

2.2 Materials

2.2.1 Informed Consent Form

The researcher prepared the informed consent form (see appendix A). It further informed participants about the purpose and the voluntary nature of the study, confidentiality, and anonymity of results, reminded them of their rights as a participant and indicated that the researcher would answer any questions about the study.

2.2.2 Demographics

Demographic information such as age, gender, duration of the relationship, education level, working situation, relationship status, family status, parents' education level, and employment status was collected via a demographic information form （see appendix B）

2.2.3 The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

The scales were developed by (Straus et al., 1972) and renewed in 1996. identify the attitudes of men and women against physical, psychological, and sexual violence during dating (Price & Byers, 1999). The scale separated all scales into five dimensions, negotiation, physical assault, injury, psychological aggression, and sexual coercion. These studies remove the negotiation dimension. The Original form of the scale's internal consistency reliability range between 0.79 - 0.95. The Turkish validity and reliability study of the scale was conducted by Aba and Kulakaç (2016) (see appendix C). Moreover, the

Turkish version of CTS2 Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found to be .92, and the Cronbach Alpha, internal consistency coefficient of the sub-dimensions varied between .76-.88. The Chinese version of CTS2, was conducted by Chen (1992). The Chinese version of the scale's CTS2 Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient was found to be .95. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the sub-dimensions, varied between .69 to.88 (Chen,1992). In this study, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the sub-dimensions for Turkish participants ranged from .82 to.89. and For Chinese participants ranged between .89 to.95(see appendix C)

2.2.4 The Cope Inventory

Carver et al. (1989) evaluated individuals' coping styles in stressful situations. Carver (1989) separated all scales into four dimensions, Problem-focused coping, avoidant-coping,social-support coping, and emotion-focus coping. Cronbach's alpha for the four scales of original COPE ranged from .37 to .93. Turkish version of COPE was adopted by Ağargün et al.(2005) (see appendix D). The total internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found to be 0.79. The correlation coefficients of the scale with the total scores of the four subscales vary between 0.29 and 0.76. The Chinese version of COPE (Hu& Hu.,2011). In this study, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the sub-dimensions for Turkish participants varied between .43 to.92. and For Chinese participants varied between .61 to.91(see appendix D)

2.2.5 The Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI)

The scale was developed by Parker et al. (1979). It was adapted into Turkish by Kapçı and Küçüker (2006) and is one of the first scales based on Bowlby's (1969, 1973) attachment theory. The scale evaluates the relationship pattern established with the parents or caregivers of the individual retrospectively with its perception. The individual makes two separate evaluations for parents. Not all items are scored in the same direction. Care scales items is 1,5,6,11,12,17 is coded in reverse (3-0), also 2,4,14,16,18,24 are coded in reverse (0-3); In the scoring of the overprotection scale, items 3,7,15,21,22,25 are coded in reverse (0-3), items 8, 9, 10, 13, 19, 20 and 23 are coded in reverse (3-0). Test-retest reliability of PBI for the whole scale is 0,90. 0.91 for the care sub-dimension, and it was

found to be 0.78 for the overprotection sub-dimension (Kapçı & Küçüker, 2006). The Chinese version of the parental Bonding Instrument was adopted by Liu et al. (2011). This scale, the same as the original form, has two dimensions (care and overprotection). The internal consistency coefficient of care is 0.84, and overprotection is 0.80 (Liu et al.,2011). In this study, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the sub-dimensions for Turkish participants varied between .68 to.76. and For Chinese participants varied between .76 to.86 (see appendix E)

2.3 Analysis

Before data collection, the study procedure was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University (see appendix F) after using Qualtrics to make a Turkish questionnaire for the Chinese questionnaire using Wen Juan Xing Application. Then distribute, online questionnaires, and six weeks to collect data. Data were analyzed using SPSS software. G power was using the calculated sample size. First, the current study results were reached by analyzing the data using the 24th edition of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows and JAMOVI. The frequency and percentage of relevant indicators were calculated and used to describe dating violence. Firstly, it looked at the frequencies looking at missing values. First, the missing values were changed to prepare the data for analysis. Then relationship duration was divided into three categories (short, intermediate, and long). Later compute variables were applied to newly created subscales (psychological aggression, physical assault, sexual coercion, and physical injury). At the same time, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each subscale of the questionnaires. Before analyzing the data, basic assumptions of statistics, normality, linearity, and the homogeneity of sample variances (homoscedasticity) and multicollinearity were tested (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), and outliers were sought. Mahalanobis distance ($p < .001$) and univariate extreme values were evaluated according to the z distribution ($z \geqslant 3.30$), and no participants with excessive scores in the data were seen. According to Hair et al. (2013), when checking normality results, kurtosis and skewness values of the data are seen to be between +1 and -1. Thus, the data were accepted as being normally distributed. The results were reported according to the sequence of research questions created in the first chapter. Before that, the descriptive statistics regarding participants were presented according to the demographic information form.

To calculate the characteristic of the participant, descriptive statistics were used. The t-test calculated differences between China and Turkiye in dating violence. After doing a split field, nationality used a t-test to compare gender differences in dating violence.

Multiple linear regression analysis was applied to test whether caregiver bonding caused dating violence, victimization and perpetration. Lastly, to examine the relationship between dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding among unmarried emerging adults, a moderator analysis was performed with Jamovi.

3. RESULTS

This section presents statistical analysis results of the data obtained from the Demographic Information Form, The Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI), The revised conflict tactics scales (CTS2), and The COPE inventory to the hypothesis identified in the research.

3.1 Characteristics of Participants

Participants were ages 19 and 26 years (X=23.66, SD=3.66), unmarried emerging adults Turkish 171 participants (72.5% women, 24% men, 3.5% prefer not to say), Chinese 170 participants (71.8% women, 21.8% men, 6.5% prefer not to say). All participants had been in a relationship for more than six months. It is set at six months because it is thought that a relationship shorter than six months does not fully reflect the problems in a romantic relationship.

As seen in table 1. for Turkish participants, 77.8% were flirting, and 22.2% were engaged.1.2% of participants had a primary school, 2.3% of participants had a middle school education, 9.9% had a high school education, and 45% were undergraduate,41.5% were graduates. Furthermore, 12.3% were unemployed, 10.5% worked part-time, 28.7% worked full-time, and 43.3% were students. Regarding Family statuses, 80.7% of parents were married, 8.2% of parents were divorced, 2.3% were separated, and 8.8% were widowed. Also, according to participants' mother education level, 7%illiteracy, 29.2% had a primary school, 40.4% had a middle/high school education, and 23.4% were undergraduate. For mother employment status, 65.5% were unemployed 34.5% were employed. According to participants, Father's education level was 1.2%illiteracy, 27.5% had a primary school, 39.8% had a middle/high school education, and 31.6% were undergraduate. For Father employment status, 30.4% were unemployed 69.6% were employed.

For Chinese participants, 84.7% were flirting, and 15.3% were engaged.2.4% of participants had a primary school, 4.1% had a middle school education, 15.9% had a high school education, and 56.6% were undergraduate,21.2% were graduates. Furthermore, 3.5% were unemployed, 5.5% worked part-time, 24.7% worked full-time, and 65.9% were

students. Regarding family statuses, 67.1% of parents were married, 19.4% of parents were divorced, 5.9% were separate and 7.6% were widowed. Also, according to the participant's mother's education level, 4.1 % were illiterate, 20.6% had a primary school, 40.6% had a middle/high school education, and 34.7% were undergraduates. For mother employment status, 37.1% were unemployed 62.9% were employed. According to participants, Father's education level was 5.9%illiteracy, 13.5% had a primary school, 45.3% had a middle/high school education, and 35.3% were undergraduate. For Father employment status, 25.9% were unemployed 74.1% were employed.

Table 3.1. *Demographic Information*

		Turkiye		China	
		N	%	N	%
Gender	Male	41	24	37	21.8
	Female	124	72.5	122	71.8
	Prefer not to say	6	3.5	11	6.4
	Total	171	100	170	100
Relationship status	Flirting	133	77.8	144	84.7
	Engaged	38	22.2	26	15.3
	Total	171	100	170	100
Education level	Primary school	2	1.2	4	2.4
	Middle school	4	2.3	7	4.1
	High school	17	9.9	27	15.9
	Undergraduate	77	45	96	56.6
	Graduates	71	41.5	36	21.2
	Total	171	100	170	100
Work status	Unemployed	21	12.3	6	3.5
	Work as part time	18	10.5	10	5.9
	Work as full time	49	28.7	42	24.7
	Student	74	43.3	112	65.9
	Total	171	100	170	100
Family status	Married	138	80.7	114	67.1
	Divorced	14	8.2	33	19.4
	Separated	4	2.3	10	5.9
	Widowed	15	8.8	13	7.6
	Total	171	100	170	100
Mother Education level	Illiteracy	12	7	7	4.1
	Primary school	50	29.2	35	20.6
	Middle/ High school	69	40.4	69	40.6
	Undergraduate	40	23.4	59	34.7
	Total	171	100	170	100
Mother employment status	Unemployed	112	65.5	63	37.1
	Employment	59	34.5	107	62.9

	Total	171	100	170	100

Table 3.1. *(continue) Demographic Information*

Father Education level	Illiteracy	2	1.2	10	5.9
	Primary school	47	27.5	23	13.5
	Middle/ High school	68	39.8	77	45.3
	University grade	54	31.6	60	35.3
	Total	171	100	170	100
Father employment status	Unemployment	52	30.4	44	25.9
	Employment	119	69.6	126	74.1
	Total	171	100	170	100

3.2 Dating Violence (Victimization/Perpetration) Differences in China and Turkiye

The effect of nationality on dating violence (physical assault, injury, psychological aggression, sexual coercion) was examined with the independent samples t-Test. Table 3.2 shows no significant difference between China and Turkiye in terms of victimization and perpetration of psychological aggression. However, there is a significant difference between China and Turkiye in terms of Physical assault victimization. [t (341) = -2.82, p < .05], China (X= 17.1, SD =11.8) has more physical assault victimization than Turkiye (X= 14.2, SD =6.38). Also, there are significant differences between China and Turkiye in injury victimization. *[*t (341) = 3.40, p < .05], China (X= 8.16, SD =5.93) had more injury victimization than Turkiye (X= 6.60, SD =1.77). Moreover, there is a significant difference between China and Turkiye regarding sexual coercion victimization. [t (341) = -1.75, p < .05], China (X= 10.2, SD =7.25) had more sexual coercion victimization than Turkiye (X= 9.15, SD =4.14)

For the perpetration part, there is a significant difference between China and Turkiye in terms of Physical assault perpetration. [t (341) = -3.11, p < .05], China (X= 17.1, SD =11.3) had more physical assault perpetration than Turkiye (X= 14.1, SD =4.96). Also, there are significant differences between China and Turkiye in injury perpetration. [t (341) = -3.29, p < .05], China (X= 8.15, SD =5.98) had more injury perpetration than Turkiye *(*X= 6.74, SD =2.27). Moreover, there is a significant difference between China and

Turkiye regarding sexual coercion perpetration. [t (341) = -3.11, p < .05], China (X= 9.84, SD =6.90) had more sexual coercion perpetration than Turkiye (X= 8.04, SD =2.83)

Table 3.2. *Result of t-Test and Descriptive Statistics for Dating Violence (Victimization/Perpetration) in China and Turkiye*

Dating violence	Type	Nationality	N	X	Sd	T	P
Physical assault	Victimization	Turkish	171	14.2	6.38	-2.82	.000*
		Chinese	170	17.1	11.8		
	Perpetration	Turkish	171	14.1	4.96	-3.11	.000*
		Chinese	170	17.1	11.3		
Psychological aggression	Victimization	Turkish	171	17.7	8.36	4.04	.605
		Chinese	170	13.1	9.42		
	Perpetration	Turkish	171	16.7	7.54	3.40	.987
		Chinese	170	13.7	8.58		
Injury	Victimization	Turkish	171	6.60	1.77	-3.29	.000*
		Chinese	170	8.16	5.93		
	Perpetration	Turkish	171	6.74	7.58	-2.89	.000*
		Chinese	170	8.15	2.27		
Sexual coercion	Victimization	Turkish	171	9.15	5.98	-1.75	.000*
		Chinese	170	10.2	7.25		
	Perpetration	Turkish	171	8.04	2.83	-3.11	.000*
		Chinese	170	9.84	6.90		

*. p< 0.05

3.3 Differences in Dating Violence by Gender in China and Turkiye

To test whether there were statistically significant differences in dating violence by gender, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare dating violence in Turkiye and China participant conditions.

In Turkiye, Table 3.3 shows that there was a significant difference between the scores for males (*M*=8.82, *SD*= 3.90) and females (*M*=7.69, *SD*=1.83) on sexual coercion perpetration [*t* (171) = -2.51, *p* < .05], the male had ore sexual coercion than female. Also, there significant differences between gender on physical assault perpetration *t* (171) = -1.71, *p* < .05] male (*M*=15.0, *SD*=6.24) had more physical assault perpetration than female (*M*=13.7, *SD*=3.73). Moreover, for physical assault victimization [*t* (171) = -2.03, *p* < .05] there is significant differences between male (*M*=.7.07, *SD*=2.39) and female (*M*=6.42, *SD*=1.49), male had more physical assault victimization than female. Also, there significant differences between gender on injury victimization [*t* (171) = -2.74, *p* < .05] male (*M*=16.4, *SD*=11.1) had more injury victimization than female (*M*=13.4, *SD*=2.89). however, there is no significant between men and women in the victimization of psychological aggression, victimization of sexual coercion, and perpetration of injury, perpetration of psychological aggression.

Table 3.3. *Result of t-Test for Dating Violence (Victimization/Perpetration) on Gender Differences in Turkiye*

	Gender	N	X	Sd	T	P
Sexual coercion Perpetration	Female	124	7.69	1.83	-2.51	.000*
	Male	41	8.82	3.90		
Physical assault Perpetration	Female	124	13.7	3.73	-1.71	.007*
	Male	41	15.0	6.24		
Physical assault victimization	Female	124	6.42	1.49	-2.03	.002*
	Male	141	7.07	2.39		
Injury Victimization	Female	124	13.4	2.89	-2.74	.000*
	Male	141	16.4	11.1		

*. $p< 0.05$

In China, there is no significant between men and women in terms of victimization and perpetration of dating violence (physical assault, injury, psychological aggression, sexual coercion).

3.4 Correlation Analysis with Research Variables

Pearson correlation analyses were performed to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Table 3.4 results show that dating violence victimization and perpetration subscales (physical assault, injury, sexual coercion) were correlated with coping strategies subscales of avoidant coping. Also, caregiver bonding

subscales of care were correlated with dating violence subscales (physical assault perpetration, psychology aggression victimization, psychology aggression perpetration, sexual coercion victimization, and sexual coercion perpetration). Overprotection was correlated with all scales.

Table 3.4. *Pearson Correlation Results Between Research Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.victimization physical assault	1													
2.perpetration physical assault	.906**	1												
3.perpetration injury	.841**	.850**	1											
4.victimization injury	.866**	.885**	.911**	1										
5.perpetration psychological aggressin	.653**	.686**	.512**	.588**	1									
6.victimization psychological aggressin	.634**	.634**	.493**	.564**	.861**	1								
7.perpetration sexual coercion	.873**	.852**	.800**	.870**	.635**	.592**	1							
8.victimization sexual coercion	.853**	.885**	.775**	.839**	.675**	.677**	.827*	1						
9.Problem-focused coping	-.051	-.043	-.016	-.016	.029	.036	-.033	-.011	1					
10.avoidance-coping	.169**	.165**	.184**	.184**	.058	.030	.142**	.131*	.243**	1				
11.social-support coping	-.032	-.032	-.034	-.034	.067	.086	-.037	-.015	.650**	.390**	1			
12emotion-focus coping	.042	.040	.050	.050	.078	.076	.039	.036	.776**	.520**	.695**	1		
13.care	-.137	-.124*	-.095	-.095	-.349**	-.311**	-.118*	-.153**	.059	.072	.040	.035	1	
14.over protection	.246**	.243**	.263**	.263**	.136*	.143**	.260**	.199**	.169**	.063*	-.161**	-.108*	-.229**	1

Note. *. $p< 0.05$, **. $p<0.01$,

3.5 Regression Analysis

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to test whether caregiver bonding caused dating violence victimization and perpetration. To determine which variables can be used in regression analysis, correlations are checked between independent and

dependent variables. (see Table 3.4) The results showed that all dating violence subscales were correlated significantly with Overprotection. However, care did not predict substantially victimization, physical assault, victimization, or perpetration injury. Thus, multiple linear regression analysis was performed for all significantly correlated variables.

Table 3.5. *Regression Results of Dating Violence and Caregivers Bonding in China*

Dependent	*Predictor*	*R*	*R ²*	*F*	*β*	*t*
Perpetration		.406	.165	16.4		
Psychological	Over protection				.269	3.04*
Aggression	Care				-.184	-2.08
Victimization		.361	.131	12.5		
Psychological	Over protection				.239	2.66*
Aggression	Care				-.163	-1.81
Victimization		.337	.113	21.4		
Physical Assault	Over protection				.337	4.63*
Perpetration		.388	.151	14.7		
Physical Assault	Over protection				.268	3.01*
	Care				-.163	-1.83
Perpetration		.347	.121	11.4		
Injury	Over protection				.248	2.73*
Victimization		.350	.123	11.6		
Injury	Over protection				.233	2.57*
Perpetration		.352	.124	11.8		
Sexual Coercion	Over protection				.258	2.86*
	Care				-.131	-1.45
Victimization		.364	.133	12.7		
Sexual Coercion	Over protection				.226	2.52*
	Care				-.180	-2.00

Multiple linear regression was calculated to predict dating violence victimization and perpetration based on caregiver bonding with Chinese participants (see Table 3.5).

For psychological aggression (victimization, perpetration) A significant regression equation was found between psychological aggression perpetration and caregiver bonding [F (2,167) = 16.4, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.165$], over protection significantly and positively predicted psychological aggression perpetration ($\beta = 0.269$, t =3.04, $p < 0.05$), however care not significantly predict psychological aggression perpetration. Also a significant regression equation was found between psychological aggression victimization and caregiver attachment [F (2,167) = 12.5, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.131$]. Over protection significantly and positively predicted psychological aggression victimization ($\beta = 0.269$, t =3.04, $p < 0.05$), however care not significantly predict psychological aggression victimization.

For physical assault (perpetration, victimization) a significant regression equation was found between physical assault perpetration and caregiver bonding [F (2,167) = 11.4, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.121$], over protection significantly and positively predicted psychological aggression perpetration ($\beta = 0.248$, $t = 2.73$, $p < 0.05$), however care not significantly predict physical assault perpetration. Also, a significant regression equation was found between physical assault victimization and over-protection. [F (2,167) = 21.4, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.113$]. Overprotection significantly and positively predicted physical assault victimization ($\beta = 0.337$, $t = 4.63$, $p < 0.05$).

For injury (perpetration, victimization) a significant regression equation was found between injury perpetration and over protection [F (2,167) = 11.4, $p < 0.05$, $R2 = 0.121$], over protection significantly and positively predicted injury perpetration ($\beta = 0.248$, $t = 2.73$, $p < 0.05$). Also, a significant regression equation was found between injury victimization and over-protection. [F (2,167) = 11.6, $p < 0.05$, $R2 = 0.123$]. Overprotection significantly and positively predicted injury victimization ($\beta = 0.233$, $t = 2.57$, $p < 0.05$).

For sexual coercion (victimization, perpetration) A significant regression equation was found between sexual coercion perpetration and caregiver bonding [F (2,167) = 11.8, $p < 0.05$, $R2 = 0.124$], over protection significantly and positively predicted sexual coercion perpetration ($\beta = 0.258$, $t = 2.86$, $p < 0.05$), however care not significantly predict sexual coercion perpetration. Also, a significant regression equation was found between sexual coercion victimization and caregiver bonding [F (2,167) = 12.7, $p < 0.05$, $R2 = 0.133$]. Overprotection significantly and positively predicted sexual coercion victimization ($\beta = 0.226$, $t = 2.52$, $p < 0.05$), however, care did not significantly predict sexual coercion victimization.

Table 3.6. *Regression Results of Dating Violence and Caregiver Bonding in Turkiye*

Dependent	Predictor	R	R^2	F	β	t
Perpetration Psychological Aggressiono		.269	.073	6.50		
Perpetration Sexual Coercion	Over protection				-.245	-3.28
	Care				-.245	-3.28*
	Over protection	.211	.044	3.88	.004	.059
	Care				-.211	-2.78*

Multiple linear regression was calculated to predict dating violence victimization and perpetration based on caregiver bonding with Turkish participants (see Table 3.6).

A significant regression equation was found between psychological aggression perpetration and caregiver bonding [F (2,168) = 6.50, p < 0.05, $R2$ = 0.073], care significantly and negatively predicted psychological aggression perpetration (β =-0.245, t = -3.28, p < 0.05), however over protection not significantly predict psychological aggression perpetration

A significant regression equation was found between sexual coercion perpetration and caregiver bonding [F (2,167) = 11.8, p < 0.05, $R2$ = 0.124], over protection significantly and positively predicted sexual coercion perpetration (β = 0.258, t =2.86, p < 0.05), however care not significantly predict sexual coercion perpetration.

3.6 Moderation Analysis

Examining the dating violence and coping strategies of the participant's relationship through caregiver bonding moderation analysis was performed using the Jamovi. Significance was tested using the bootstrapping method with bias-corrected confidence estimates (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The outcome variable for analysis was dating violence, and the predictor variable for the analysis was coping strategies. The moderator variable evaluated for the analysis was parent attachment. Before the analysis, the mean-centered scores of each variable and moderator were calculated.

Furthermore, the moderation analysis was conducted separately for each outcome. The result part shows the significant moderation model in the blow. For Turkiye, three moderation models are significant. For China, just one moderation model is significant.

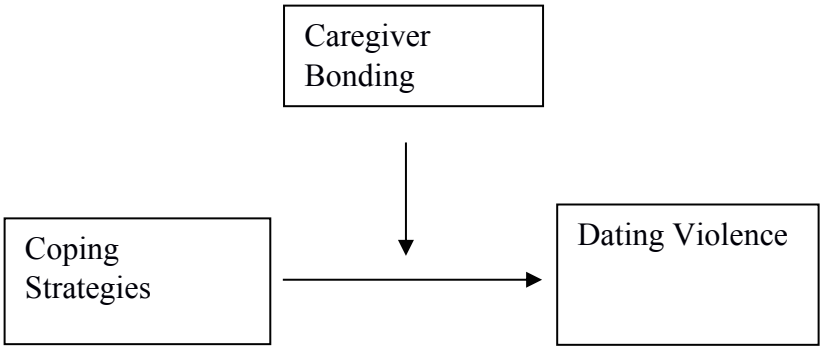


Figure 3.1. *Moderation Model of Dating Violence, Parent Attachment, and Coping Strategies*

3.6.1 In China Moderator Role of The Over Protection on The Relationship between Psychology Aggression Perpetration and Avoidance Coping

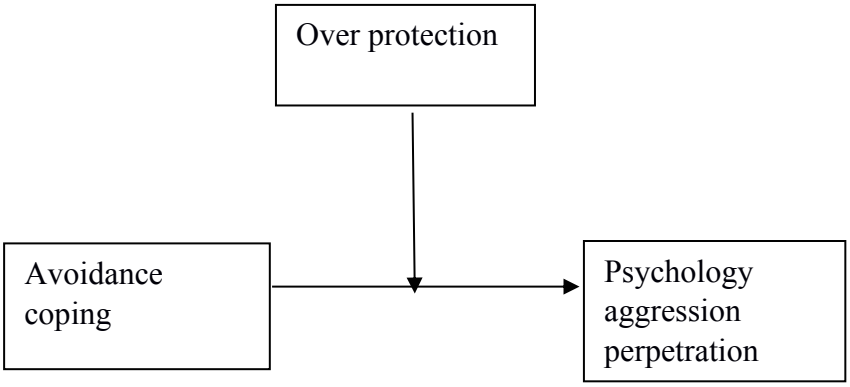


Figure 3.2. *Moderator Role of Over Protection on Psychology Aggression Perpetration and Avoidance*

The moderator's role of over-protection in the relationship between psychological aggression perpetration and avoidance coping was analyzed (See Figure 3.2). The results showed that coping avoidance strategies significantly predicted psychology aggression perpetration (β= 0.20, *SE*= 0.072,95%*CI* [0.05, 0.36], $p < .01$), meaning that participants with higher avoidance coping strategies had higher psychology aggression perpetration levels than those who had lower avoidance coping strategies. level of the participants psychology aggression perpetration was significantly predicted by over protection (β= 0.24, *SE*= 0.04 *,95%CI* [0.15, 0.34], $p <.001$). Moreover, the interaction between avoidance coping and over protection was significant (β = 0.01, *SE* = 0.006 ,95% *CI* [0.003, 0.028], $p < .05$). (See Table 3.7)

According to the Table 3.8 , the effect of avoidance coping strategies on predicting psychological aggression perpetration was positively significant when parent over protection is average (β = 0.20, 95% *CI* [0.04, 0.36], $p < .05$), and the effect was positively significant when parent over protection is high (β = 0.40, 95% *CI* [0.19, 0.61], $p < .05$). However, the effect of avoidance coping strategies to predict psychology aggression perpetration was not significant when caregiver over protection is low (see Figure 3.3)

Table 3.7. *Moderation Estimates of Over Protection on Psychology Aggression Perpetration and Avoidance*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	Z	p
Avoidance	0.2065	0.07896	0.05175	0.3613	2.62	0.009
Over protection	0.2496	0.04754	0.15647	0.3428	5.25	< .001
Avoidance ∗ over protection	0.0159	0.00632	0.00347	0.0283	2.51	0.012

Table 3.8. *Simple Slope Estimates of Over Protection on Psychology Aggression Perpetration and Avoidance*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	Z	p
Average	0.2065	0.0804	0.0490	0.364	2.5697	0.010
Low (-1SD)	0.0117	0.1177	-0.2189	0.242	0.0998	0.920
High (+1SD)	0.4013	0.1065	0.1925	0.610	3.7670	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (avoidance) on the dependent variable (psychological aggression perpetration) at different levels of the moderator (over protection)

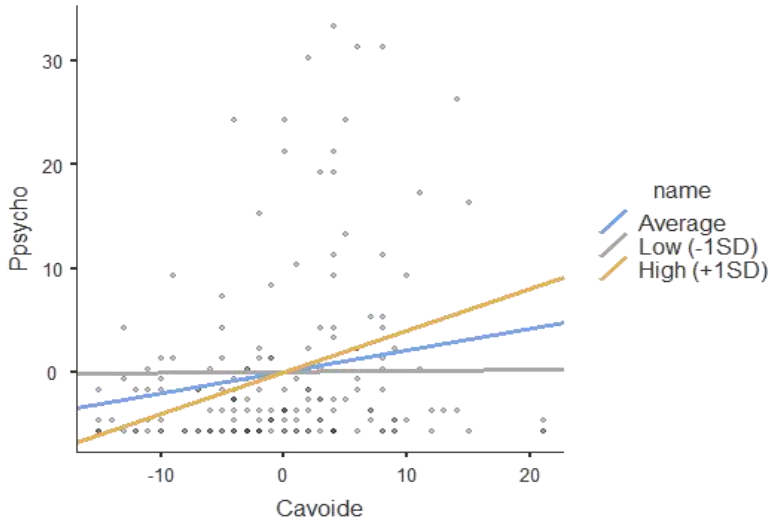


Figure 3.3. *Jamovi Moderator Role of Over Protection on Psychology Aggression Perpetration and Avoidance*

3.6.2 In Turkiye Moderator Role of The Care on The Relationship between Injury Victimization and Avoidance Coping

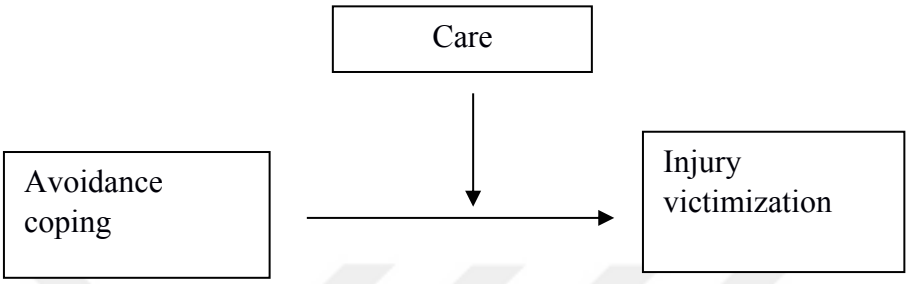


Figure 3.4. *Moderation Model of The Care on The Relationship Between Injury Victimization and Avoidance*

The moderator role of care on the relationship between injury victimization and avoidance coping was analyzed. (See Figure 3.4) The results showed that coping avoidance strategies significantly predicted injury victimization (β= 0.05, *SE*= 0.01,95%*CI* [0.02, 0.08, p < .01), meaning that participants with higher avoidance coping strategies had higher injury victimization levels than those who had lower avoidance coping strategies. level of the participant's injury victimization was not significantly predicted by care. (β= -0.007, *SE*= 0.018 ,95%*CI* [-0.04, 0.02], p >.05). Moreover, the interaction between avoidance coping and care was significant (β = 0.005, *SE* = 0.002, 95%*CI* [0.001, 0.009], p < .05). (See Table 3.9)

According to the Table 3.10, the effect of avoidance coping strategies to predict injury victimization was positively significant when parent care was average (β = 0.05, 95% *CI* [0.019, 0.089], p < .05), and the effect was positively significant when parent care is high (β = 0.09, 95% *CI* [0.045, 0.143], p< .05). However, the effect of avoidance coping strategies to predict injury victimization was not significant when caregiver care is low (see Figure 3.5)

Table 3.9. *Moderation Estimates of The Care on The Relationship Between Injury Victimization and Avoidance Coping*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	**SE**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Z**	**p**
Avoidance	0.05481	0.01759	0.02034	0.08928	3.117	0.002
Care	-0.00714	0.01824	-0.04289	0.02861	-0.391	0.695
Avoidance ✻ Care	0.00562	0.00219	0.00132	0.00992	2.560	0.010

Table 3.10. *Simple Slope Estimates of The Care on The Relationship Between Injury Victimization and Avoidance Coping*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	**SE**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Z**	**p**
Average	0.0548	0.0178	0.0198	0.0898	3.071	0.002
Low (-1SD)	0.0149	0.0225	-0.0292	0.0591	0.663	0.507
High (+1SD)	0.0947	0.0250	0.0457	0.1437	3.789	< .001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (avoidance) on the dependent variable (injury victimization) at different levels of the moderator (care)

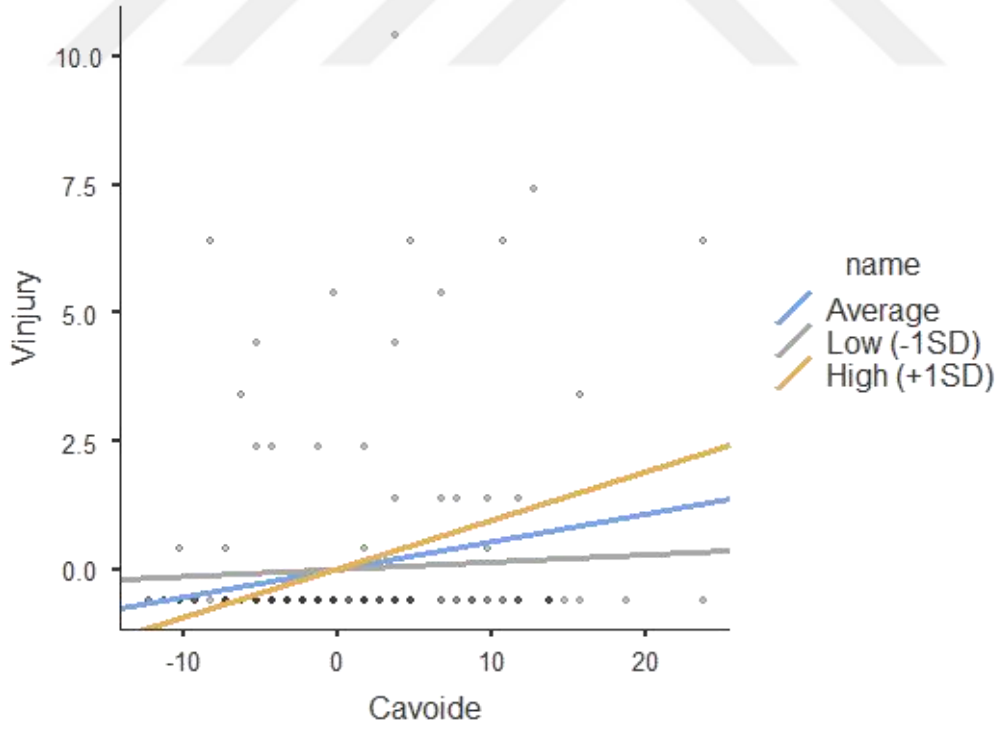


Figure 3.5. *Jamovi Moderation Model of The Care on The Relationship between Injury Victimization and Avoidance Coping*

3.6.3 Moderator Role of the Over Protection on the Relationship between Injury Victimization and Social Support Coping In Turkiye

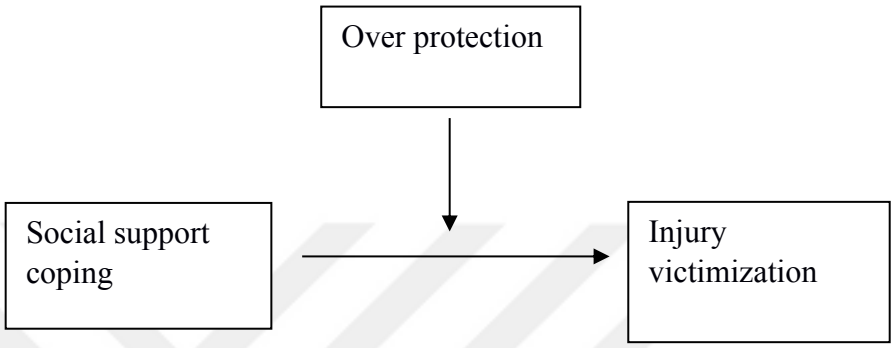


Figure 3.6. *Moderation of The Over Protection on The Relationship Between Injury Victimization and Social Support Coping*

The moderator's role of over-protection in the relationship between injury victimization and social support coping was analyzed. (See Figure 3.6) The results shown that social support coping strategies was not significantly predicted injury victimization, (β= -0.006, *SE*= 0.017 ,95%*CI* [-0.040, 0.026], $p > .01$). level of the participant's injury victimization was not significantly predicted by over protection (β= 0.004, *SE*= 0.012 ,95%*CI* [-0.020, 0.029], $p > .05$). Moreover, the interaction between social support coping and over protection was significant (β = 0.004, *SE* = 0.001, 95%*CI* [7.69, 0.007], $p < .05$). (See Table 3.11).

According to Table 3.12, result, the effect of social support coping strategies to predict injury victimization was negatively significant when parent over protection is low (β = -0.036, 95% *CI* [-0.100, =4.08], $p < .05$). However, the effect was not significant when caregiver over protection is average and high (see Figure 3.7)

Table 3.11. *Moderation Estimates of The Over Protection on The Relationship Between Injury Victimization and Social Support Coping*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	Z	p

Social support	-0.00689	0.01713	-0.0405	0.02670	-0.402	0.688
Over protection	0.00421	0.01273	-0.0207	0.02916	0.331	0.741
Social support * Over protection	0.00416	0.00173	7.69e-4	0.00756	2.404	0.016

Table 3.12. *Simple Slope Estimates of The Over Protection on The Relationship between Injury Victimization and Social Support Coping*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	Z	p
Average	-0.00689	0.0175	-0.0411	0.0273	-0.395	0.693
Low (-1SD)	-0.05030	0.0255	-0.1002	-4.08e−4	-1.976	0.048
High (+1SD)	0.03653	0.0250	-0.0125	0.0855	1.461	0.144

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (social support) on the dependent variable (injury victimization) at different levels of the moderator (over protection)

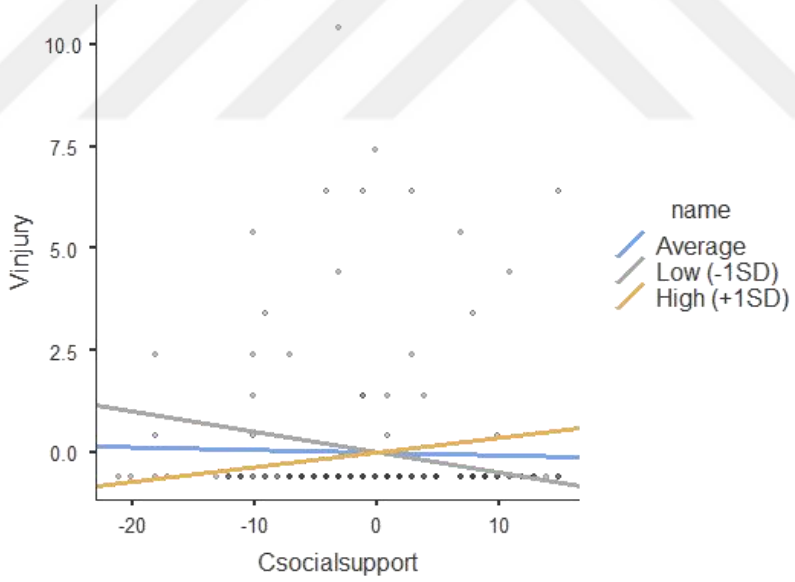


Figure 3.7. *Jamovi Moderation of The Over Protection on The Relationship Between Injury Victimization and Social Support Coping*

3.6.4 Moderator Role of the Care on The Relationship between Sexual Coercion Perpetration and Avoidance Coping In Turkiye

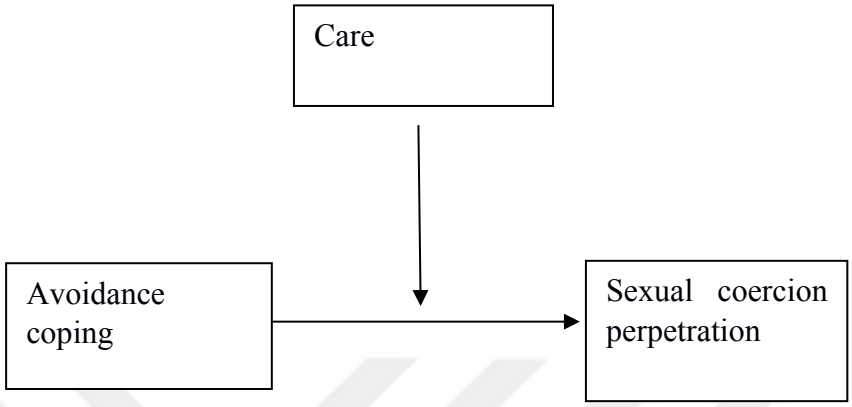


Figure 3.8. *Moderation of The Care on The Relationship Between Sexual Coercion Perpetration and Avoidance Coping*

The moderator role of care on the relationship between sexual coercion perpetration and avoidance coping was analyzed. (see Figure 3.8) The results shown that avoidance coping strategies was not significantly predicted sexual coercion perpetration (β= 0.025, *SE*= 0.028 ,*95%CI* [-0.02, 0.08], $p > .01$) level of the participants sexual coercion perpetration was significantly predicted by care (β= -0.085, *SE*= 0.029 ,*95%CI* [-0.142, -0.027], $p > .05$). Moreover, the interaction between avoidance coping and care was significant (β = 0.007, *SE* = 0.003, *95%CI* [4.32e-4, 0.0143], $p < .05$). (See Table 3.13).

According to Table 3.14, the effect of avoidance coping strategies to predict sexual coercion perpetration was positively significant when parent over protection is high (β = 0.078, *95% CI* [-3.64, 0.156], $p < .05$). However, the effect was not significant when caregiver over protection is average and low (see Figure 3.9).

Table 3.13. *Moderation Estimates of The Care on The Relationship Between Sexual Coercion Perpetration and Avoidance Coping*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	Z	p
Avoidance	0.02592	0.02828	-0.0295	0.0813	0.917	0.359
Care	-0.08536	0.02931	-0.1428	-0.0279	-2.913	0.004
Avoidance ✻ care	0.00734	0.00353	4.32e-4	0.0143	2.083	0.037

Table 3.14. *Simple Slope Estimates of The Care on The Relationship Between Sexual Coercion Perpetration and Avoidance Coping*

			95% Confidence Interval			
	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	Z	p
Average	0.0259	0.0286	-0.0301	0.0819	0.907	0.365
Low (-1SD)	-0.0264	0.0361	-0.0971	0.0444	-0.731	0.465
High (+1SD)	0.0782	0.0401	-3.64e−4	0.1567	1.951	0.051

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (avoidance) on the dependent variable (sexual coercion perpetration) at different levels of the moderator (care)

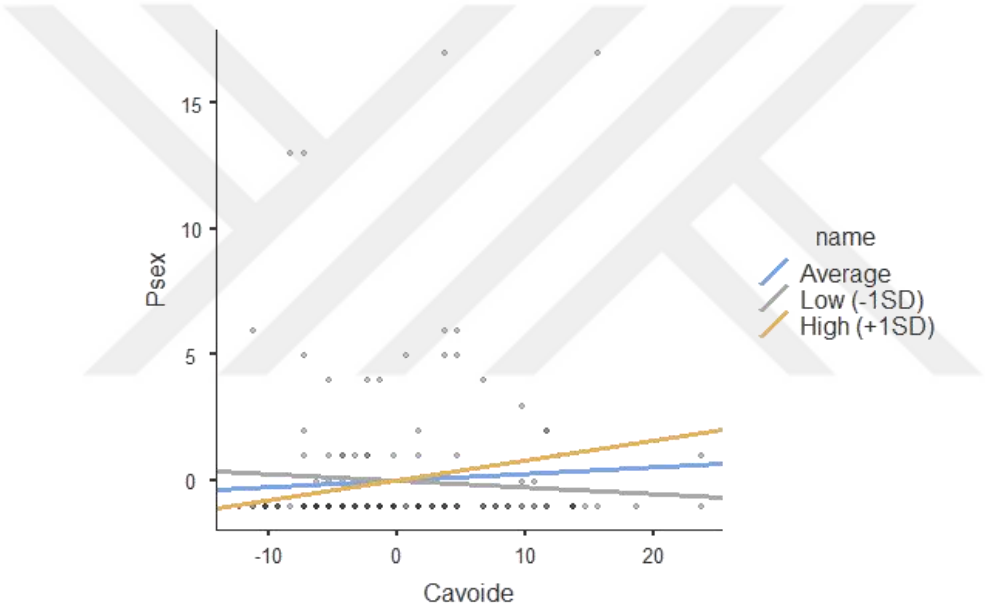


Figure 3.9. *Moderation of The Care on The Relationship Between Sexual Coercion Perpetration and Avoidance Coping*

4. DISCUSSION

The study results were reviewed and discussed in this part of the study. The findings were compared with similar studies and different studies when interpreting. Finally, the results were discussed according to the sequence of research questions.

4.1 Dating violence Differences Between Turkiye and China

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the differences between dating violence in Turkiye and China. The result shows significant differences between China and Turkiye in dating violence (physical assault, injury, sexual coercion). However, there is no significant difference between China and Turkiye regarding psychological aggression. The number of Chinese perpetrators of dating violence (physical assault, injury, sexual coercion) is higher than that of Turkish. Also, in The Chinese, the victimization of dating violence (physical assault, injury, sexual coercion) is higher than in the Turkish.

First of all, as predicted, there are significant differences between China and Turkiye in dating violence. Dating violence occurs in all countries, regardless of the social, economic, religious, or cultural group. In the World Report on Violence and Health, the first comprehensive review of many types of violence worldwide, 10% to 70% of women reported having violence experienced by a male partner in their lifetime. (Krug et al., 2002).

The changing socio-cultural characteristics in the globalizing world have caused a rapid increase in the rate of young people dating in Turkiye. Although studies on dating violence have been conducted in the last few decades, it has received more attention as a public health problem (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989; Vagi et al., 2015). Similar to our studies, a previous study demonstrated that among university students, 31.6% of women and 24.4% of men had been subjected to physical violence in the last year (Straus, 2008). Additionally, in the study of Açıkgöz et al. (2018) in Turkiye, 14.7% of the students with dating experience were exposed to physical violence, 75% to emotional violence, and 13.2% to sexual violence. This is probably because young people have a traditional perspective on gender equality and patriarchal cultural norms. The perception of gender effectively perpetrates violence and accepts violent behavior; adolescent women with a

high gender inequality perspective are more likely to be exposed to physical dating violence. Physical and Although the possibility of psychological dating violence is higher, it is stated that partners can be both victims and perpetrators in a dating relationship (Özdere et al., 2018).

Not only is dating violence prevalent in Western countries, but it is also prominent across nations in the East. For example, several studies on dating violence have been conducted in China (Hsieh et al., 2009; Parish et al., 2004). Similarly, to our study's result, among the 1.222 respondents aged 15 to 25, 15.4% of Hong Kong people said they knew a friend who had experienced violence or controlling behavior during a relationship or breakup. Those reports are consistent with our findings. In addition, research shows that about 35% of Chinese college students report having committed physical violence, and 27% of college students report that they have suffered physical violence (Chan et al., 2008).

Additionally, the study of personal assault among Chinese college students showed that about 35% of students reported being assaulted in a dating relationship, and 27% said they were the victim of an assault (Chan et al., 2008), the same as our result. On the other hand, Scholars compared 1,469 Chinese and 4,162 American college students. Chinese female college students were more likely to attack their partners (Luo,2018). Also, Contrary to our conclusion, studies on 27 Chinese prevalence studies of sexual violence confirmed that pooled rates for women for contact and penetrative sexual violence (9.5% and 1.0%) were significantly lower than comparable international estimates （Finkelhor &Dunne, 2013). In addition, other comparative studies have also pointed to low rates among Asians (Meston et al., 1999.; Hall et al., 1998; Zhai & Gao, 2009).

Sociocultural factors may explain these differences. Violence is a human behavior across cultures, races, and genders. The definition of violence is a sociocultural construct (Özgür et al., 2011). Also,of the one-child policy may explain the results . This has led to a structural and conceptual change in the Chinese view of intimacy. Chinese participants are primarily only-children. The only child has no siblings, and there are fewer opportunities to play with children of the same age—self-centered, weak awareness of intimacy, and not good at handling their intimacy when they grow up. The only child has accelerated the indifference to intimacy, and the relationship view is more inclined towards independence.

Turkiye is located in a particular geographical region between Europe and Asia and combines Eastern and Western cultures. On the other hand, China is located in the eastern part of Asia and has a long history of oriental culture. It is believed that the possible reasons for this difference are as follows.

Different cultures have different evaluations, judgment standards, and norms for violent aggression, so it is necessary to consider the relationship between different cultural backgrounds and violent behavior in dating violence-related research (Starus et al., 1996). In addition to the different national conditions and life pressures of China and Turkiye, the differences in the types of violence among college students in China and Turkiye may also be the different ideological concepts of adults in the East and the West. Chinese college students will suppress their destructive emotions when they encounter difficulties.

4.2 Gender Differences in Dating violence in China and Turkiye

The results of the current research found that in Turkiye, there was a significant difference between males and females in sexual coercion perpetration, physical assault perpetration, physical assault victimization, and injury victimization. However, there is no significant between men and women in the victimization of psychological aggression, victimization of sexual coercion, and perpetration of injury, perpetration of psychological aggression. In China, there is no significant between men and women in terms of victimization and perpetration of dating violence (physical assault, injury, psychological aggression, sexual coercion).

Many studies have analyzed such gender differences, but the results vary (Borrajo et al., 2015). Our result is consistent with a nationally representative study, which found that 34% of women and 18% of men reported being hit in their current relationship, which resulted in bleeding, bruising, swelling, or severe pain and injury. Strike incidence was 12% in women and 5% in men (Parish et al., 2004). O'Keefe and Treister (1998)revealed similar findings. Studies on 939 students (385 boys and 554 girls), men were more exposed to physical violence (ye, 2004). According to Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1973), both men and women who witness or experience domestic violence learn domestic violence, including the justification and practice of using violence to solve problems.

Conversely, some research shows that women are more likely to experience dating violence (Harned, 2001). Prior findings suggested that women are more likely than men to report dating violence victimization, and women have experienced both physical and sexual violence than men (Rice et al.,2001). Straus (1998) pointed out that women suffer far more than physical injuries when encountering partner violence, and their psychological, emotional, and financial harm is generally more significant than men.

It is not difficult to understand because the current gender culture constructs that women generally care more about family and interpersonal relationships than men, and the economic resources (such as employment opportunities, salary, benefits, etc.) occupied by women are inferior to those of men. As a result, women in partner violence are likely to be hurt more.

The norms of gender roles in a patriarchal society highlight the differences in sociocultural perspectives in gender interpretation of violence in intimate relationships. Especially in the patriarchal society of traditional culture, gender role expectations and values include men being nobler than women. For example, Colema and Straus (1990) showed that power-holders between husband and wife have more violent aggression than power balance between husband and wife in high conflict situations. Straus (1990) also found that violent aggression increases when husbands have greater decision-making power; therefore, those less resourceful in intimate relationships are more likely to use violence to restore their power and control a feeling.

Turkish parents have significantly higher requirements and expectations for men than women. Therefore, they are more severe and harsh in their parenting style, forcing men to be self-reliant and self-improvement, teaching men not to shed tears and not to be weak. Moreover, raising women in a way that they listen to their fathers when they are young, listen to their husbands when they get married and are used to holding back results in women's low self-esteem and lack of initiative. In a Chinese family because the participants are only children. The requirements and expectations are uniform for both men and women.

To sum up, “it is more men or women who use violence” must not be taken lightly but must consider: 1) the type of violence under investigation; 2) the harm caused by violence, especially to males. The vulnerability of women in terms of resources, emotions,

psychology, etc., is caused by the society with the characteristics of the power system; 3) investigation method; 4) national culture, etc.

4.3 Caregiver Bonding inflation on Dating violence in China and Turkiye

The regression result shows that in China, overprotection positively predicts all variables of dating violence (perpetrations and victimizations). Also, in Turkiye, care negatively predicts psychological aggression perpetration and sexual coercion perpetration.

The caregiver relationship is the essential theme in the emerging adulthood period. During the emerging adulthood period, the partner gradually replaces the caregiver as the primary source of emotional support for the emerging adulthood. Compared to childhood, emerging adulthood perceives the positive nature of their relationship with their caregiver has decreased compared to childhood (Nickerson & Nagle, 2005). Another possible explanation is that, although the importance of partners becomes more pronounced during the emerging adulthood period, interpersonal interactions and the various activities they engage in the shift from a parental focus to a partner focus (Laursen & Williams, 1997),

Our findings also confirm Wilkinson (2004) that the quality of attachment relationships between emerging adulthood and parents affects the quality of relationships formed with peers. Weak attachment can lead to poor communication between individuals and others, negative expectations of others, and problems with their social functioning (Cassidy, et al. 1996; Dodge, 1993), which is reflected in this paper in the context of dating violence.

Another possible explanation is that in China, due to being an only child, caregiver put all their energy and expectations on their children on both sides, strictly demanding them from an early age and controlling them in the name of love. As a result, Chinese children rarely have their own space, resulting in them growing up and becoming cold with their caregivers and allowing their romantic relationships to enter into problems.

In Turkiye, because there are usually more than three children in each family, caregivers have less control over their children than Chinese parents, and children are more willing to express their emotions in front of their caring parents, and are more active in seeking help from their parents when they encounter unfavorable situations, which will reduce violence.

Therefore, to prevent and intervene in emerging adulthood dating violence, we should increase the positive interaction between caregivers in our lives and improve caregiver attachment. Also, establish an excellent parental attachment relationship. Good family functioning and a secure and good attachment relationship with caregivers can reduce problem behaviors; however, a poor attachment relationship can increase the emergence of problem behaviors.

4.4 Caregiver Bonding Moderation Effect on Dating violence and Coping Strategies in China and Turkiye

Examining the dating violence and coping strategies of the caregiver's relationship through caregiver bonding moderation analysis was performed. The result shows that protection moderates psychological aggression perpetration and avoidance coping in China. In Turkiye, care for moderate injury victimization and avoidance coping, over protection moderate injury victimization and social support coping, and also for moderate sexual coercion perpetration and avoidance coping.

When the literature is examined, almost no study has been found investigating the moderation role of caregiver attachment on dating violence and coping strategies aged 18-29 who have never been married. However, this situation makes the study critical. Considering the results obtained, the scarcity of studies on these variables in the literature causes difficulties in evaluating the results. However, the study results were assessed through other variables related to the study variables.

This study shows that many couples still use avoidance to deal with conflicts. This result is consistent with Gryl et al. (1991), the most common coping strategies college students use in violent relationships are confrontation and avoidance. This issue needs to be discussed from two perspectives. First, this may be related to the immaturity of the understanding of intimacy and the inability to mature in the face of relationship conflicts. When dealing with problems properly, they will also take evasive ways to deal with them; for conflict situations in romantic relationships, not all destructive coping methods are harmful. It may not be a helpful coping method for oneself. Otherwise, it is likely to lead to an escalation of the conflict.

According to the learning theory, we initially learn how to respond to problems based on our caregivers, and this gradually influences our lives as we grow up, responding to the problems we face in the way we learned to respond, which of course includes dating violence. (Bandura,1977) same as our conclusion, Intimacy is a type of interpersonal relationship. Our interpersonal relationship originated in the family. Researchers believe that our first contact and knowing the relationship is through caregivers marriage relationship connection (Huang,2010). As their children grow up, in later intimate relationships and even marriages, parents are affecting their children's interactions. (Cui&Fincham, 2010) The quality of intimacy is learned. Chinese and Turkish caregivers believe that children do not know anything when they are young, but the older they are, the more attention they should be paid. Therefore, when children are young, they are not intimate, but when they grow up, they behave intimately, making it difficult to handle the relationship between love and freedom. Childhood is a critical period of vulnerability, and poor guidance at this stage can easily lead to psychological problems in the future. The younger the child, the more parental care is needed. Chinese parents rarely express their love to their children when they grow up in words. They are not used to hugging and kissing their children to express intimacy, all of which affect the quality of their children's intimate relationships as adults.

In the results, caregiver bonding moderates the relationship between coping strategies and dating violence, which may be explained by the fact that our ways of coping with problems are learned, and people are influenced by their parents when they face problems. Therefore, problem-solving is permanently fixed, and each person has his or her fixed solution, which leads to a habit of using solutions to problems. However, sometimes these solutions become the justification for the injured or abusive person. The quality of the attachment between parents can regulate this state.

From this result, we should recognize that a good caregiver-child bonding relationship can reduce the occurrence of problem behaviors. With the changing family structure, both parents have to balance work and family simultaneously, and the status and time of caregiver caring for their children are becoming equal. On the other hand, caregiver-child relationships can also influence problem behaviors by influencing coping styles. Suitable parent-child attachment can improve coping techniques and thus reduce the

occurrence of problem behaviors. Therefore, improving caregiver-child bonding and developing coping styles is especially important.

The results of this paper are somewhat similar to and slightly different from those in the previous literature. These mixed results indicate the need for further exploration. Many other factors, such as alcohol, drug violence, and pathological problems, may be the reasons for these differences. In addition, diverse factors such as the study environment and the applied measurement scales may also affect the results.

4.5 Limitations and Future Directions

This study is a comparative study on the relationship between China and Turkiye regarding relational dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding. However, due to objective and practical reasons, the sample sampling of this study has certain limitations. Firstly, if conditions permit, the method of stratified random sampling should be used to expand the sample of the subjects; secondly, regarding gender imbalance in the study, further studies may use a larger sample size to increase validity. Lastly, Few questionnaires can be used in Turkiye and China, and it is rarely possible to find a corresponding questionnaire, so developing a questionnaire next time is recommended.

At present, relational dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding. have not yet formed a systematic and complete theoretical system., which should be used as one of the themes of follow-up research development and attention. Due to my limited practical experience, theoretical foundation, and knowledge reserve, it is not enough to conduct comprehensive, complete, profound, and thorough research on relational dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding. In China and Turkiye, the current exploration is not comprehensive enough. Therefore, future research can explore this in depth.

4.6 Conclusions

This thesis examined the relationship between dating violence, coping strategies, and caregiver bonding in unmarried emerging adult in China and Turkiye. The differences in dating violence were also examined by gender and nation. Current results have found that dating violence significantly differs between China and Turkiye. Moreover, it was found that there were differences in dating violence to gender. There are also show that caregiver

bonding can moderate some sub scales of dating violence and sub-scales of coping strategies.

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6. APPENDICS

APPENDIX-1. INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, , Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Genel Psikoloji öğrencisi Zubaidan Yushan tarfından **Doç. Dr. Hüdayar Cihan danışmanlığında yapılan bir yükseklisans çalışmasıdır.** Bu araştırmanın amacı Çin ve Türkiye'de yaşayan beliren yetişkinlik dönemindeki bireylerin, ebeveyne bağlanma biçimleri, flört ilişkilerde yaşanılan şiddet ve baş etme stratejileri arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak ve kültürlerarası bir fark olup olmadığına bakmaktır.

Anketlerde isminiz sorulmamakta ya da kimliğinizi ortaya çıkaran herhangi bir soru yer almamaktadır. Bu çalışmada vereceğiniz her tür bilgi gizli tutulacak olup, araştırma amaçlı bilgilerin kullanılması dışında başka bir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Bu araştırmada sizin ilişkinizde yalnızca şu anda değil, genel olarak neler olduğuyla ya da neler yaşadığınızla ilgilenmekteyiz. Çalışmaya en az 6aylık flört ilişkisi olan 18-26 yaş arası kişiler katılabilir. Araştırmanın objektif olması ve elde edilecek sonuçların güvenirliği açısından soruları içtenlikle yanıtlamanız; sizi ve birlikte olduğunuz kişi ile yaşadığınız ilişkiyi tam olarak yansıtacak şekilde doldurmanız çok önemlidir.

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Şayet, cevaplamak istemediğiniz sorularla karşılaşırsanız bunları atlayabilir veya anketi doldurmayı bırakabilirsiniz. Ancak, yarım kalmış ya da çoğu soruların cevapsız bırakıldığı anketlerden elde edilen verilerin kullanılması mümkün olmadığından, anketi mümkün olduğunca boş bırakmadan tamamlamanız çok önemlidir.

Araştırma ile ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz olursa bana zubaida.yusan@gmail.com adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz. Yanıtlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim

çalışmaya katılmayı onaylıyorum.

Evet Hayir

知情同意书

亲爱的参与者,

这项研究由安卡拉耶尔德勒姆贝亚兹特大学、社会科学研究所普通心理学学生祖拜丹玉山、这是在 Hüdayar Cihan 的顾问下进行的研究生学习。本研究的目的是调查在中国和土耳其生活在成年期的父母依恋风格、约会关系中的暴力和个体应对策略之间的关系，并检验是否存在跨文化差异。调查中没有询问您的姓名，或者没有任何问题可以透露您的身份。您在本研究中提供的任何信息都将被保密，不会用于除将信息用于研究目的之外的任何目的。在这项研究中，我们对正在发生的事情或您在一般关系中正在经历的事情感兴趣，而不仅仅是现在。18-26 岁之间有至少 6 个月约会关系的人可以参加这项研究。就研究的客观性和所得结果的

可靠性，诚实地回答问题；填写时要充分反映您以及您与身边人的关系，这一点非常重要。

参与研究完全是自愿的。如果您遇到不想回答的问题，您可以跳过它们或停止完成调查。但是，完成调查时不要留下任何空白非常重要，因为无法使用从不完整或大多数问题未回答的调查中获得的数据。

如果您对研究有任何疑问，可以通过 zubaida.yusan@gmail.com 与我联系。预先感谢您的回答。

我同意参加这项研究。

是 否

APPENDIX-2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Demografik Bilgi Formu

1. Yaşınız.....

2. Cinsiyetiniz - Kadın- Erkek

3. Egtim duzeyi

   a) İlkokul
   b) Ortaokul
   c) Lise
   d) Üniversite
   e) Yüksek lisans/Doktora

4. Mesleginiz .....

   a) öğrenci
   b) çalışmıyor
   c) part tıme çalışıyor
   d) full tıme çalışıyor

5. Medeni Durumunuz

   a) Bir İlişkim Var
   b) Sözlü/Nişanlı

6. Şu ana kadar (süregiden ilişkiniz dahil olmak üzere) kaç farklı romantik ilişkiniz oldu?

   a) Sadece bu ilişki
   b) Birden fazla

7. Şu anda devam etmekte olan romantik ilişkiniz ne kadar süredir devam ediyor? (Lütfen ay olarak belirtiniz.)

8. Aile durumunuz aşağıdakilerden hangisine uymaktadır?

   a) Anne-baba evli
   b) Anne-baba boşanmış
   c) Anne ve/veya Baba vefat

9. Anne-babanız boşandıktan/ayrıldıktan sonra siz en uzun kiminle yaşadınız?

   a) Annemle
   b) Babamla

10. Annenizin öğrenim durumu nedir?

a) Okuma yazma bilmiyor

b) ilkokul mezunu

c) ortaokul veya lise

d) Yüksekokul mezunu(üniversite)

11. Anneniz çalışıyor mu?

A) Evet B)Hayır

12. Babanızın öğrenim durumu nedir?

a) Okuma yazma bilmiyor

b) ilkokul mezunu

c) ortaokul veya lise

d) Yüksekokul mezunu(üniversite)

13. Babanız çalışıyor mu?

A) Evet B) Hayır

14. Şu an kiminle birlikte yaşıyorsunuz?

a) Yalnız

b) partnerimle

c) Ailemle birlikte

d) Arkadaşlarımla

e) Diğer (Belirtiniz): .....

15. Kardeşiniz var mı?

a) Evet Hayır

16. Varsa kaç kardeşiniz var? .....

17. Kaçıncı Çocuksunuz? .....

基本信息

1.你的年龄是.....

2.您的性别

a)女

b）男

3.教育水平

a）小学

b）中学

c）高中

d）大学

e）硕士/博士学位

4.您的职业.....

a)学生

b）没有工作

c）兼职

d）全职工作

5.您的婚姻状况

a）我有恋爱关系

b）订婚

6.到目前为止，您有过多少个不同的恋爱关系（包括持续的恋爱关系）？

a）仅此关系

b）不止一个

7.您目前的恋爱关系持续了多长时间？ （请以月为单位。）

8。您是以下哪个家庭身份?

a）父母已婚

b）父母离婚

c)父亲/母亲 去世

9.您在父母离婚后，您跟谁生活的?

a. 母亲

b.父亲

10. 您母亲的学历是什么?

a）文盲

b）小学毕业

c）初中或高中毕业

d）大学毕业生（大学）

11.您妈妈在工作吗?

A）是 B）否

12。您父亲的学历是什么?

a）文盲

b）小学毕业

c）初中或高中毕业

d）大学毕业生（大学）

13.你父亲工作吗?

A）是 B）否

14.你现在和谁住在一起?

a) 一个人

b) 与我的伴侣

c) 与我的家人

d) 和我的朋友们

e) 其他（请说明）： .....

15. 你有兄弟姐妹吗?

a) 是 否

16. 如果有，你有几个兄弟姐妹？ .....

17. 你是第几个孩子？ .....

APPENDIX-3. THE REVISED CONFLICT TACTICS SCALES (CTS2)

Örnek:

Bu sorular ilişkinizde olabilecek bazı olaylar hakkındadır. Her bir soru için sizin durumunuza uyan daireyi işaretleyiniz..

a:1 Kez ,b:2 Kez,c:3-5 Kez,d:d6-10 Kez ,e:11-20 Kez, f:20'den fazla, g: Son Bir Yıldan Daha Önce, h: Hiç

1. Erkek/Kız arkadaşımla görüş ayrılığımız olmasına karşın ona ilgi gösterdim

2. Erkek/Kız arkadaşımla görüş ayrılığımız olsa bile bana ilgi gösterdi.

3. Erkek/Kız arkadaşımla anlaşamadığımız konularda beni rahatsız eden durumu ona açıkladım.

4. Erkek/Kız arkadaşım da bana açıkladı.

5. Erkek/Kız arkadaşıma hakaret ya da küfür ettim.

The revised conflict tactics scales (CTS2) Chinese version examples

無論夫妻相處的多融洽，難免會有意見不合時。以下各題想瞭解當您與配 偶意見不合時，您所採取的解決方法。請就您實際情況勾選一個適合的選項，發生頻率對照如下： (配偶亦可指您的同居人或親密伴侶)

0=從未發生 4=過去一年曾發生過 6-10 次

1=過去一年曾發生過一次 5=過去一年曾發生過 11-20 次

2=過去一年曾發生過兩次 6=過去一年曾發生過 20 次以上

3=過去一年曾發生過 3-5 次 7=過去一年沒有發生，但以前曾經發生過。

1. 縱使意見不同，我仍會對配偶表達關心 ……....1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

2. 縱使意見不同，配偶仍會對我表達關心 ……....1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

3. 我會對配偶解釋我的不同意見 ....…… ….……....1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

4. 我的配偶會對我解釋不同意見 ..…….. ..……...…….....1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

5. 我會侮辱或咒罵配偶 ...…..……..…….....1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0

APPENDIX-4. THE COPE INVENTORY

Örnek:

Başa Çıkma Tutumlarını Değerlendirme Ölçeği (COPE) Sayın Katılımcı, Sizden ölçekteki maddeleri dikkatli bir şekilde okuyarak maddelerden görüşlerinize en uygun seçeneği ("Asla Böyle Yapmam" için 1´i, "Çok Az Böyle Yaparım" için 2´yi, "Böyle Yaparım" için 3´ü, "Çoğunlukla Böyle Yaparım" için 4´ü) işaretlemeniz ve tüm maddeleri eksiksiz doldurmanız istenmektedir. İşaretlediğiniz seçeneğin doğruluğu ya da yanlışlığı söz konusu değildir.

1.Sorunla karşılaştığımda daha önceki tecrübelerden yararlanıp sorunun üstesinden gelmeye çalışırım.

2.Sorun olan şeyleri aklımdan atmak için bir şeyler yapmaya ya da başka turlu meşguliyetlere yönelirim. 3.Sorunla karşılaştığımda moralim bozulur ve duygularımı dışarıya yansıtırım.

4.Başkalarından bu tur sorunlarda ne yaptıkları konusunda tavsiyeler almaya çalışırım.

5.Sorunla basa çıkma konusunda kendimi konsantre ederim.

The Cope Inventory *Chinese Version Examples*

本問卷的目的在了解人們是如何面對以及因應生活中的壓力事件。我們知道有很多種的方式可以處裡壓力，我們想了解當您遇到壓力事件時，您是如何面對及處裡。很顯然的，不同的事件會引發不同的反應；但是，請試想當您承受壓力時，您通常是如何處理的。

量表數字意義如下：

1 = 我通常不會這樣做 2 = 我偶爾會這樣做 3 = 我經常會這樣做 4= 我最常這樣做

1. 我試圖從這次經驗學習成長..... 1 2 3 4

2. 我轉向工作或其它替代性的活動，來讓自己不要去想這些事……1 2 3 4

3. 我難過而且會把我的情緒表現出來..... 1 2 3 4

4. 我試圖從別人那裡得到應該怎麼做的建議..... 1 2 3 4

5. 我努力想辦法解決這件事..... 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX-5. THE PARENTAL BONDING INSTRUMENT (PBI)

Örnek:

BABAYA İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLER ÖLÇEĞİ-I

Aşağıda, ana-babanızın çeşitli tutum ve davranışlarına ilişkin ifadeler yer almaktadır. 16 yaşınıza kadar olan dönemde **annenizi yada anne yerine koydugunuz kisiyi** hatırlamaya çalışarak, her bir ifadede en uygun seçeneğin karşısındaki paranteze X işareti koyunuz.

1.Benimle yumuşak ve arkadaşça bir tarzda konuşurdu.	( )	( )	( )	( )
2.İhtiyaç duyduğum kadar yardım etmezdi.	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Hoşlandığım şeyleri yapmama izin verirdi.	( )	( )	( )	( )
4.Duygusal olarak bana karşı soğuk görünürdü.	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Sorunlarımı ve endişelerimi anlıyor görünürdü.	( )	( )	( )	( )

BABAYA İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLER ÖLÇEĞİ-II

Aşağıda, ana-babanızın çeşitli tutum ve davranışlarına ilişkin ifadeler yer almaktadır. 16 yaşınıza kadar olan dönemde **babanızıyada baba yerine koydugunuz kisiyi** hatırlamaya çalışarak, her bir ifadede en uygun seçeneğin karşısındaki paranteze X işareti koyunuz

1.Benimle yumuşak ve arkadaşça bir tarzda konuşurdu.	( )	( )	( )	( )
2.İhtiyaç duyduğum kadar yardım etmezdi.	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Hoşlandığım şeyleri yapmama izin verirdi.	( )	( )	( )	( )
4.Duygusal olarak bana karşı soğuk görünürdü.	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Sorunlarımı ve endişelerimi anlıyor görünürdü.	( )	( )	( )	( )

The Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) *Chinese version Examples*

父母教养方式问卷

以下列出了父母可能存在的各种态度和行为。请回忆你 16 岁之前母亲或父亲的表现，在每一栏目最符合的数字上打“√”：4 分：非常不符合，3 分：比较不符合，2 分：比较符合，1 分：非常符合

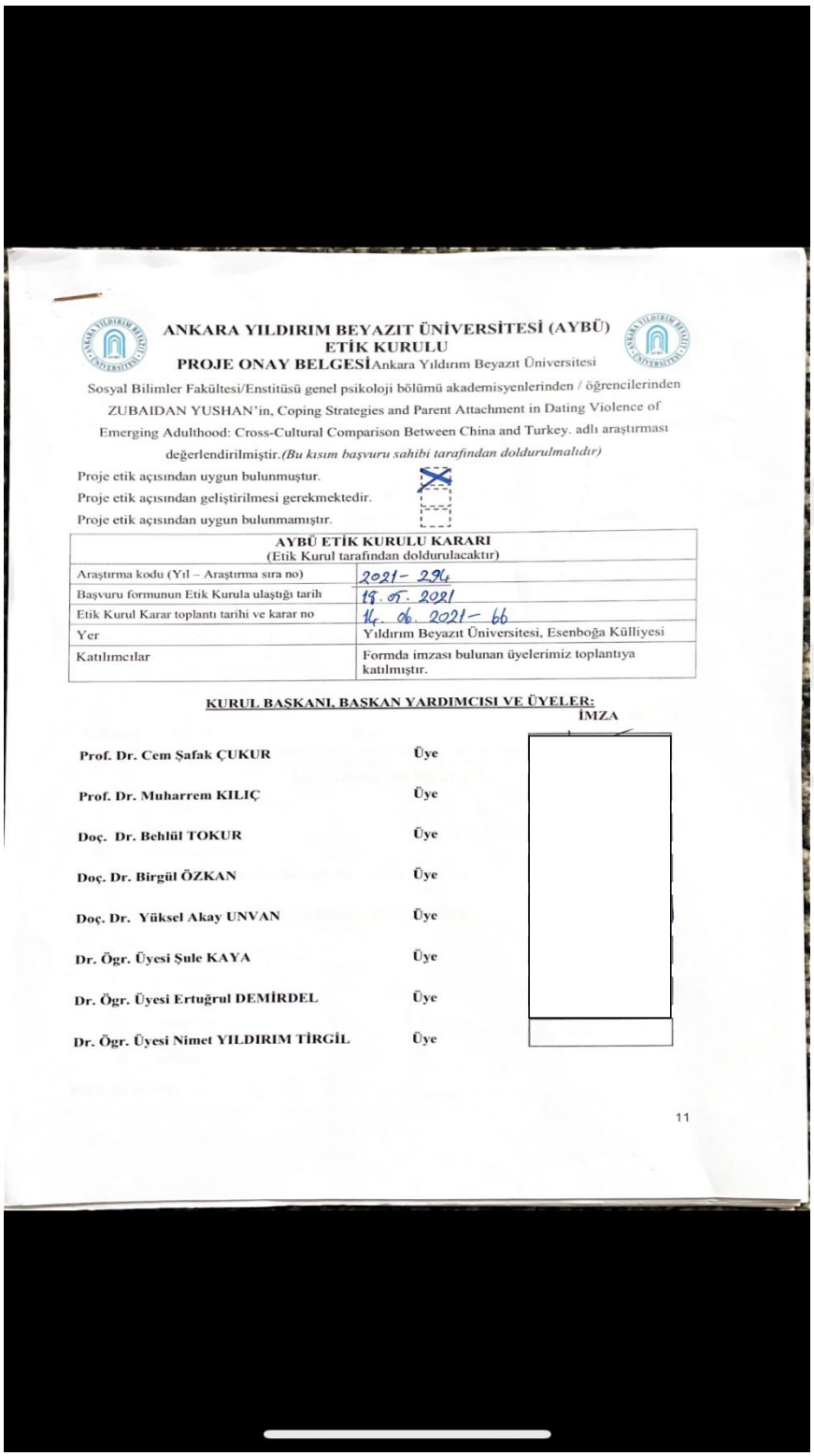
在我 16 岁前，我的母亲 ：

1. 用温和友好的语气与我说话
2. 没有给我足够的帮助
3. 允许我做自己喜欢的事情
4. 情感上显得对我冷淡
5. 了解我的问题与担忧

在我 16 岁前，我的父亲 ：

1. 用温和友好的语气与我说话
2. 没有给我足够的帮助
3. 允许我做自己喜欢的事情
4. 情感上显得对我冷淡
5. 了解我的问题与担忧

APPENDIX-6. ETHICAL APPROVAL



ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT ÜNİVERSİTESİ (AYBÜ)
ETİK KURULU
PROJE ONAY BELGESİ Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi

Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi/Enstitüsü genel psikoloji bölümü akademisyenlerinden / öğrencilerinden ZUBAIDAN YUSHAN'in, Coping Strategies and Parent Attachment in Dating Violence of Emerging Adulthood: Cross-Cultural Comparison Between China and Turkey. adlı araştırması değerlendirilmiştir. *(Bu kısım başvuru sahibi tarafından doldurulmalıdır)*

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmuştur. [X]
Proje etik açısından geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir. [ ]
Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmamıştır. [ ]

AYBÜ ETİK KURULU KARARI (Etik Kurul tarafından doldurulacaktır)	
Araştırma kodu (Yıl – Araştırma sıra no)	2021- 294
Başvuru formunun Etik Kurula ulaştığı tarih	19.05.2021
Etik Kurul Karar toplantı tarihi ve karar no	14.06.2021- 66
Yer	Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, Esenboğa Külliyesi
Katılımcılar	Formda imzası bulunan üyelerimiz toplantıya katılmıştır.

KURUL BAŞKANI, BAŞKAN YARDIMCISI VE ÜYELER:

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Prof. Dr. Cem Şafak ÇUKUR	**Üye**	
Prof. Dr. Muharrem KILIÇ	**Üye**	
Doç. Dr. Behlül TOKUR	**Üye**	
Doç. Dr. Birgül ÖZKAN	**Üye**	
Doç. Dr. Yüksel Akay UNVAN	**Üye**	
Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Şule KAYA	**Üye**	
Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Ertuğrul DEMİRDEL	**Üye**	
Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Nimet YILDIRIM TİRGİL	**Üye**	

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