

**THE ROLE OF GENDER-RELATED CONSTRUCTS IN THE
TOLERANCE OF DATING VIOLENCE: A MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS**

By

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THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

In the
Department of Criminology
University of Ottawa

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Abstract

Using a purposive sampling technique, this study employed an online questionnaire to assess the relationship between attitudes towards gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, shared power in relationships, the acceptability of dating violence and perceived seriousness of dating violence) and the tolerance of dating violence among undergraduate students in the Faculty of Social Science at the University of Ottawa. Linear regression models were conducted to identify the most salient predictors of the tolerance of dating violence. A general/combined model was examined as well as three subtype-specific models (e.g. psychological, physical and sexual dating violence). A total of seven predictor variables were entered into each model in three blocks: sociodemographic variables were entered first, followed by sex and then gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, power in relationships, the acceptability and seriousness of dating violence). The results identify a number of variables that are associated with the tolerance of dating violence scales and some that led to a decrease in scores on these scales. Findings suggest that the link between gender-related constructs and the tolerance of dating violence is complex and multidimensional and warrants further research to explain the variation observed.

Acknowledgments

This thesis would not have been possible without the constant support, understanding and input of my professors, family, friends and fellow graduate students.

First, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, Professor Holly Johnson. Since we began working together, when I was but an eager undergraduate student, you have provided me with helpful advice, encouragement and given me space to vent my frustrations. Through our work together, you have nurtured me as both a researcher and a writer and I will carry these experiences with me into the next phase of my career. I sincerely thank you for your belief in me and this project and for always knowing exactly how to handle my type A personality. I feel extremely privileged to have had the opportunity to have collaborated with you on this project.

I would like to thank my reviewers, Professors David Joubert and Steven Bittle, for their insightful and constructive comments. The expertise you brought to this project was extremely helpful in making it a more thoughtful and complete thesis. I would also like to thank the professors who allowed me to recruit participants in their classes and the students who participated in this project. This project would not have been possible without you. I would also like to thank the University of Ottawa and the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council for generously providing the scholarships that funded my graduate studies.

I would also like to thank my parents for instilling me with the drive and ambition that has given me the stamina to complete this research project. Thank you for teaching me that with a little focus, determination and a lot of tea, you can achieve your goals. Annie, you have been there since the very beginning and have always helped me up when I've been knocked down.

You have always been there to provide perspective when I have needed it most. For this, I thank you.

Nick, I will never be able to thank you for all you have done me. Thank you for being my psychologist, my sounding board and my editor. Thank you especially for listening to my rants about statistics. I am sure you will have nightmares about skew and linear regression for years to come. You have contributed to this project in ways that you, and even I, will never fully understand. I could have never have done this without you.

Finally, I would like my friends, both near and far. To my fellow graduate students, thank you for the countless hours spent in the grad room ranting and blowing off steam; our shared suffering genuinely made this experience easier and more fun than I ever expected.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgments	iii
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework	4
Defining Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)	6
Dating Violence	9
Correlates of Intimate Partner Violence	11
Gender Role Attitudes and Gender Constructions	13
Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA)	15
Violence-Tolerant Beliefs about Partner Violence	18
Sociodemographic Characteristics	22
Age	22
Relationship Status	23
Employment and Academic Achievement	24
Alcohol Consumption	25
The Role of Attitudes in Predicting Dating Violence	28
The Link Between Attitudes and Violence against Women	30
Theoretical Framework: Masculinity Theory	34
Chapter 3: Methodology	43
Sampling and Survey Method	43
Research Questions	45
Hypotheses	45
Development of the Questionnaire	46
Strengths and Limitations of Online Questionnaires	47
Analytical Framework	50
Dependent Variable	50
Tolerance of Dating Violence	50

Predictor Variables.....	54
Gender-Related Constructs	54
Sociodemographic Variables	59
Analytical Procedure.....	63
Limitations of Measures	63
Summary	65
Chapter 4: Analysis and Results	66
General Findings	66
Univariate Analysis of Dependent Variables.....	66
General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence	66
Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence	67
Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence	67
Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence.....	68
Univariate Analysis of Predictor Variables	68
Sex Differences	72
Hypothesis Testing.....	74
General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence	76
Bivariate Hypothesis Testing.....	76
Multivariate Analysis.....	77
Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence	78
Bivariate Hypothesis Testing.....	78
Multivariate Analysis.....	79
Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence	80
Bivariate Hypothesis Testing.....	80
Multivariate Analysis.....	80
Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence.....	80
Bivariate Hypothesis Testing.....	80
Multivariate Analysis.....	81
Sequential Linear Regression Models	81
The Influence of Missing Cases.....	83
Multicollinearity.....	84

Summary	85
Chapter 5: Discussion	86
Gender-Related Constructs	86
Rape Myth Acceptance	86
Shared Power in Relationships	89
Acceptability of Dating Violence	90
Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence	91
Sociodemographic Variables	92
The Role of Gender Expectations	94
Limitations	96
Threats to Internal Validity	97
Threats to External Validity	99
Chapter 6: Conclusion	101
References	104
APPENDIX A – Tables and Figures	115
APPENDIX B - University of Ottawa Ethics Approval	149
APPENDIX C - Letter of Information	152
APPENDIX D - Questionnaire	156

List of Tables

Table 3.1	Response Rate	45
Table 3.2	Reliability Statistics for Attitudes towards Dating Violence	
	Subscales	54
Table 4.1	Results of Univariate Analysis – Categorical Variables	116
Table 4.2	Results of Univariate Analysis - Ratio-Level Variables	123
Table 4.3	Sex Differences among Gender-Related Constructs – Bivariate Analysis	125
Table 4.4	Results of Bivariate Hypothesis Testing	129
Table 4.5	Results of Multivariate Hypothesis Testing	131
Table 4.6	Results of Sequential Linear Regression Models	132
Table 4.7	Results of Univariate Testing – Categorical Data - Missing Cases	134
Table 4.8	Results of Univariate Analysis - Ratio-Level Variables – Missing	
	Cases	136
Table 4.9	Results of Bivariate Hypothesis Testing – Missing Cases	137
Table 4.10	Multivariate Hypothesis Testing with Missing Data Variable	139

List of Figures

Figure 2.1	Ecological Framework	12
Figure 4.1	Distribution of Rape Myth Acceptance Variable	140
Figure 4.2	Comparison of Original and Logged Shared Power Variable	141
Figure 4.3	Comparison of Original and Logged Acceptability of Dating Violence Variable	142
Figure 4.4	Comparison of Original and Logged Seriousness of Dating Violence Variable	143
Figure 4.5	Distribution of Age Variable	144
Figure 4.6	Comparison of Original and Logged General Attitudes towards Dating Violence Variable	145
Figure 4.7	Comparison of Original and Logged Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence Variable	146
Figure 4.8	Comparison of Original and Logged Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence Variable	147
Figure 4.9	Comparison of Original and Logged Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence Variable	148

Chapter 1: Introduction

Violence against women is a prominent social issue that has received much attention in the past four decades, both in the media and in academic research. However, violence occurring among dating and cohabitating partners continues to be under-researched (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). The Canadian Violence Against Women Survey (CVAWS), a nationally representative study that examined the incidence of violence against women among a random sample of Canadian women, estimated that in 1993 1.7 million Canadian women had experienced at least one physical or sexual assault by a date or a boyfriend since the age of 16 (Johnson, 1996). Other studies, using similar methodologies, have found comparable results. For instance, using a stratified random sample of 4,446 American college women, Fisher, Cullen and Turner (2000) found that 27.7 per 1,000 female students in their sample had experienced a rape since the start of the school year. Similarly, Smith, White and Holland (2003) found that among their college-aged sample, nearly half of all respondents had experienced some kind of physical or sexual abuse during the previous school year, with 13% of all respondents having experienced both forms of victimization. As these figures indicate, dating violence remains an important issue among university-aged populations.

Within the context of this study, dating violence is considered a form of intimate partner violence, which generally refers to “physical and non-physical abuse experienced by women at the hands of male current or former partners” (Johnson & Dawson, 2011, p.65). Unlike other concepts, such as spousal, familial, or domestic violence, the term intimate partner violence allows for an appreciation of the unique type of victimization that occurs between intimates. Moreover, it allows for the inclusion of a broader range of relationships such as dating, cohabitating and same sex unions. Previous research identifies a number of important risk

factors, both in terms of victimization and perpetration. Among the numerous variables identified, this study focuses in particular on gender-related predictors of dating violence, specifically rape myth acceptance, the endorsement of shared power in relationships, the acceptability of dating violence and the perceived seriousness of dating violence.

Sociodemographic variables, such as sex, age, and sexual orientation, which were identified as salient in the intimate partner violence literature, were also included.

This research focuses on the role of gender-related constructs in the tolerance of male-on-female dating violence. In particular, this study explores the following two research questions:

1. How are gender-related constructs (e.g. shared power in relationships, acceptability of violence, perceived seriousness of violence, and rape myth acceptance) associated with tolerance of dating violence?
2. Are sociodemographic variables important, net of the effect of gender-related constructs, in the prediction of the tolerance of dating violence?

In order to explore these research questions, a quantitative survey of undergraduate students in the Faculty of Social Science was conducted. Statistical analysis using SPSS was then used to explore the univariate characteristics of the variables of interest as well as conduct subsequent bivariate and multivariate hypothesis testing.

This thesis is organized as follows. The literature examined in Chapter 2 includes prevalence studies of dating violence, a review of the correlates of dating violence, the attitudinal research as it relates to violence against women, and masculinity theory as an explanation for dating violence. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used to conduct the study, including a detailed description of each of the measures used to assess the variables of interest. Chapter 4 presents the results of this study and their contribution to the existing research is further

discussed in Chapter 5. The discussion in Chapter 5 also includes an assessment of the applicability of masculinity to the tolerance of dating violence as well as limitations of the study. Finally, Chapter 6 provides a summary of the conclusions drawn from this research study as well as directions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

The second wave of the women's movement, beginning in the 1970s, sought to shed light on gender inequalities in cultural and legal institutions (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). As a result, important social and political changes occurred for women in subsequent decades and violence against women, which was once thought of as an individual-level problem, is now understood as the result of a complex relationship among individual-, cultural-, and societal-level factors (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Canada has witnessed significant changes that have served to benefit women, such as: the establishment of emergency shelters and transition homes for women escaping violent relationships; pro-charging and pro-prosecution policies designed to increase the likelihood that violent partners will be arrested and prosecuted; the establishment of domestic violence courts which are specialized to deal with intimate partner violence cases in ways that help ensure victims receive support and offenders are held accountable; and, the implementation of Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner programs that aim to reduce the psychological distress associated with reporting a sexual assault and improve the quality of evidence collected thereby increasing the likelihood that offenders will face prosecution (Johnson & Dawson, 2011).

In 1993, the United Nations released the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, the first international document of its kind, which conceptualizes violence against women as a human rights violation. According to this document, violence against women is:

Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life (UN General Assembly, 1993).

While important progress has been made, this issue continues to be a significant social problem. For instance, intimate partner violence continues to be the most prevalent form of family violence in Canada, with violent incidents among spouses accounting for 15% of all violent crimes reported to police, with women representing 83% of victims (Ogrodnik, 2008). However, victimization surveys reveal that the dark figure of crime, that is crime that goes either undetected or unreported, is enormous in relation to violence against women, with only 30% of female victims of spousal abuse (Sinha, 2013) and less than 10% of sexual assault victims reporting the incident to police (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Therefore, while women also use violence against their male intimate partners, “the overwhelming burden of partner violence is borne by women at the hands of men” (Krug et al., 2002, p. 89). Further support for this assertion is offered by Ansara and Hindin (2011) who also found in their analysis of Statistics Canada’s General Social Survey (2004) that the psychosocial consequences of experiences of partner violence are much more severe for women than for men. In their sample, only 10.6% of women who had experienced some form of partner violence reported that the experiences had “no effect” on them compared to 31.3% of men who had similar experiences (Ansara & Hindin, 2011). Similarly, women are more likely than their male counterparts to experience severe and chronic patterns of abuse which include highly controlling and threatening behaviour (Ansara & Hindin, 2010). As such, while male victims of partner violence do exist, the impact of prolonged or even sporadic assaults or abusive incidents are more likely to affect women than men.

Prior to the women’s liberation movement of the early 1960s and 1970s, very little research focused on the causes and consequences of intimate partner violence as these were seen as private matters (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Since this time, substantial efforts on the part of feminist activists and allies have highlighted not only the prevalence of intimate partner violence

but also the far-reaching impacts it has on both victims and society at large (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Additionally, they have called attention to the importance of patriarchal and relational power imbalances that engender violence against women in general, and intimate partner violence in particular (Johnson & Dawson, 2011).

This chapter will present the existing literature on the prevalence of intimate partner violence, focusing in particular on dating violence studies, review the correlates of partner violence, explore the role of attitudes, and examine masculinity theory as an explanation for dating violence.

Defining Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)

While significant gains have been made, an issue of contention that persists is how to define intimate partner violence and the acts that should be included therein, as there is no specific section in the Criminal Code of Canada that pertains to intimate partner violence (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). As a result, a wide variety of criminal offenses are applied under this umbrella, including “common assault, assault with a weapon, assault uttering threats, mischief, intimidation, forcible confinement, and homicide” (Johnson & Dawson, 2011, p.65). Given this, there is an ongoing debate within research literature as to exactly what types of abuse should be included in the operationalization of intimate partner violence. These distinctions are crucial to any study examining intimate partner violence as definitions determine what kind of data is collected, how it is collected, and, as a result, the services abused women have access to in the community (DeKeseredy, 2000). Consequently, some researchers have opted to take a more legalistic approach, defining intimate partner violence as physical and/or sexual abuse as written into the Criminal Code of Canada (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). These studies have historically excluded non-physical forms of abuse such as verbal, emotional, psychological and

financial forms of victimization (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). As such a clarification must be made here that a spectrum of behaviours are included in any definition of intimate partner violence. That is, it can include an array of behaviours including psychological violence, such as yelling at or criticizing one's partner; physical violence, which includes behaviours such as slapping, punching and choking; and, sexually violent acts, including rape and attempted rape. However, some researchers claim that including psychological abuse, such as yelling (as surely every couple will have heated arguments) dilutes the concept of partner violence to the point where nearly everyone could fall into the victim category. For instance, Bonnie Fox (1993), has argued that "by combining what is debatably abusive with what everyone agrees to be seriously abusive" we stand to trivialize more serious forms of victimization (such as rape). However, qualitative studies of survivors' experiences of partner violence indicate that in the lived experiences of women, the impact of psychological violence is cannot be overestimated. This becomes especially clear when we consider the construct of coercive control in which women are controlled through the use of non-violent tactics, such as isolation from friends and family and the denial of basic necessities. In fact, women who experience this form of psychological violence have reported that it can be even more devastating than physical abuse (Stark 2007). This form of victimization deprives them of their personhood, their ability to make independent choices and their dignity. As such, the argument can be made that while a definition of dating violence that also includes psychological abuse expands its definition and that, consequently, more women will fall into the victim/survivor category, this reflects the lived realities of women.

Others have argued that physical, sexual and psychological violence are three distinct phenomena and not simply three subtypes of a single concept. However, Krebs et al. (2011) found significant overlap between women's experiences of physical, sexual, and psychological

victimization, which calls into question the likelihood that these constructs represent three distinct phenomena; further research is needed to clarify this issue.

Additionally, not only have definitions of intimate partner violence varied over time, so have the terms used to describe violence committed against women by their intimate partners. These terms include domestic violence, family violence, spousal abuse, and wife assault, to name a few (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Johnson and Dawson (2011) claim that terms such as “domestic violence” and “family violence” are inadequate to describe the violence experienced by women at the hands of their intimate partners as they can refer to a multitude of abusive behaviours that occur within the familial context. This is not exclusive to spousal relationships as it can include violence committed by parents, children and siblings, and the roots of these types of violent incidents are often fundamentally different from those involving intimate partners (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). In contrast, while the terms “spousal violence” and “wife assault” do consider the distinct motivations involved in violence that occurs in the context of intimate relationships, they do not allow for a consideration of intimate relationships beyond that of the marital context, including violence between dating partners, in cohabitating relationships, or between same-sex partners (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). There are also those who prefer the term “woman abuse” to allow for an appreciation of the gendered nature of partner violence and to highlight the interconnections and similarities among forms of male violence against women (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993). Others still advocate for the use of the term “intimate partner violence” as it allows for an appreciation not only of the qualitative differences that exist between violence experienced by partners and the violence occurring in the context of other familial relationships, but it also allows for the consideration of diverse intimate relationships that have been historically discounted (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Therefore, dating violence,

the overarching focus of this research project, should be understood not as distinct from intimate partner violence but, instead, as just one form of violence occurring under this umbrella and as including physical, psychological and sexual components.

Dating Violence

Violence occurring among dating and cohabitating partners is under-researched (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). According to Statistics Canada, in 2008 violence among dating partners accounted for 28% of all police-reported incidents of intimate partner violence (Hotton Mahony, 2010). Studies estimate that as many as one in three college-aged couples will experience at least one violent incident during the course of their relationship (Jackson, 1999; Lewis & Fremouw, 2001). One of the most comprehensive sources for Canadian data pertaining to violence against women is the Canadian Violence Against Women Survey (CVAWS) as it used a large, nationally representative random sample and asked a variety of detailed questions pertaining to different aspects of violence experienced in the context of intimate relationships, including the trauma experienced by victims, their reactions to the violence, and the consequences they experienced as a result of their victimization (Johnson, 1996; Johnson & Dawson, 2011). In addition, it is one of the only large-scale victimization surveys to examine lifetime rates of partner violence (Johnson, 1996). The CVAWS estimated that 1.7 million Canadian women have experienced at least one physical or sexual assault by a date or a boyfriend since the age of 16 (Johnson, 1996). It is important to note that this estimate does not include women who began dating before the age of 16 and experienced violence within those relationships, nor does it include instances of unwanted sexual touching that did not also include outright violence and, therefore, estimates are likely to be much higher than indicated (Johnson, 1996). Moreover, the CVAWS estimates that approximately 25% of all women who were attending college or

university in the year preceding the survey had experienced physical and/or sexual violence by a boyfriend or date (Johnson, 1996).

Similar empirical support has been found by Testa, Vanzile-Tamsen, Livingston and Koss (2004) in the United States. Their study made use of the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES; Koss et al., 1987), a 10-items measure intended to minimize the use of legalistic jargon and avoid stigmatization through the use of behaviourally specific questions regarding unwanted sexual experiences (Testa et al., 2004; Koss et al., 2007). This measure is designed to increase the likelihood of recalling experiences of unwanted sexual contact, coercion, attempted rape and rape and allow for the consideration of experiences that respondents would not necessarily classify as rape, even though they frequently meet its legal definition (Testa et al., 2004). In their three-wave prospective study of women aged 18-30 in the Buffalo, New York area, Testa et al. (2004) found that of their total sample of 1,014 female respondents, 37.8% had reported that they at least one unwanted sexual experience, as measured by the SES, since the age of 14. In addition, of those who were victims of sexual aggression, 63% responded positively to two or more incidents on the SES (Testa et al., 2004). Of their total sample, Testa et al (2004) found that 17.5% of respondents reported rape as the most serious experience, 4.7% reported attempted rape, 9.8% reported sexual coercion, 6.6% reported sexual contact, and 61.4% reported no aggression.

Additionally, using a similar methodology, DeKeseredy and Kelly (1993) found comparable results among Canadian university students with large proportions of female respondents indicating that since leaving high school they had been sexually, physically, and psychological victimized by a dating partner at a rate of 45.1%, 35%, and 86.2%, respectively. This was further demonstrated by Fisher et al. (2000) who, through the use of a stratified random

sample of 4,446 college women conducted in conjunction with the National Institute of Justice, found that 27.7 per 1,000 female students in their sample indicated that they had experienced an assault that met the legal definition of rape since the start of the school year. Similarly, Smith et al. (2003) found that among their college-aged sample, nearly half of all respondents had experienced some kind of physical or sexual abuse during the previous school year, with 13% of all respondents having experienced both forms of victimization. These findings demonstrate that physical and sexual victimization continues to be an issue that affects university-aged students, with women representing the large majority of victims.

Correlates of Intimate Partner Violence

This section summarizes the risk factors of intimate partner violence. Given that dating violence is understood not as a distinct phenomenon but, instead, as a particular subtype of intimate partner violence, the dynamics and risk factors for all types of intimate partner violence will be considered here. Empirical research demonstrates that not everyone shares the same likelihood of perpetrating partner violence. In particular, individuals who endorse traditional forms of masculinity and femininity, rape myths and attitudes tolerant of violence are more likely to perpetrate violent incidents. Heise's (1998) ecological model conceptualizes violence against women, which includes but is not limited to partner/dating violence, as the result of a number of factors in four interconnected domains, which are represented as four concentric circles in the graphic below:

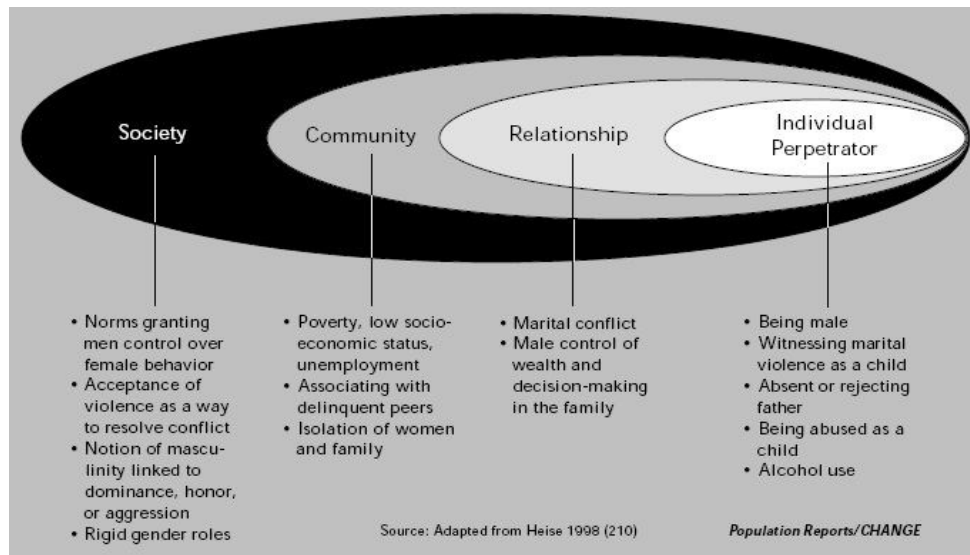


Figure 2.1 Ecological Framework (Heise et al., 1999)

Heise (1998) argues that factors within each level or “system” contribute to partner violence:

1. Personal history factors, such as witnessing marital violence as a child, being the victim of child abuse, and/or having an absent or rejecting father;
2. Microsystem factors, such as male dominance in the family, male control of financial resources, alcohol abuse, and marital or verbal conflict;
3. Exosystem factors, such as low socio-economic status, unemployment, isolation of the woman and the family, and delinquent peer associations; and
4. Macrosystem factors, such as male entitlement or ownership of women, masculinity linked to aggression and dominance, rigid gender roles, and the acceptance of interpersonal violence and physical chastisement (p.265).

While this project focuses on macrosystem factors and how they play out at the individual level, namely the importance of gender role construction, this model demonstrates how both individual- and societal-level factors are linked to individual attitudes toward partner violence (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). The factors that appear most prominently in the research literature on partner violence are gender role attitudes and gender constructions, rape myth

acceptance, violence-tolerant beliefs surrounding dating violence and sociodemographic characteristics.

Gender Role Attitudes and Gender Constructions

Gender role constructions have been found to be significant predictors of various forms of intimate partner violence, including dating violence (Jenkins & Aubé, 2002; Mahlstedt & Welsh, 2005). In their meta-analytic review, Flood and Pease (2009) consistently found a positive association between endorsing traditional gender roles and the perpetration of intimate partner violence and argue that there is a causal connection between the two. In western societies, gender role expectations for male and female behaviour reflect male-dominated perceptions of how men and women ought to behave and frequently attribute greater status to the roles of men than to those of women (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Feminist explanatory models put forth the argument that the link between male violence and gender roles is that violence against women is not the result of a single violent and deviant impulse of an individual man against an individual woman, rather it is the result of over-conforming to traditional gender roles (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). In a society in which masculinity is associated with dominance and femininity is associated with passivity and compliance, anything that comes to be defined as feminine is a threat to this masculine ideal (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). This conception of masculinity and its instability can create a fragile gender identity for men who, in turn, may seek to protect it at all costs (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). This can result an exaggerated masculinity, leading to hostile and negative attitudes toward women, a need to dominate women, and displays of violence towards women (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). As such, men are more likely to accept or excuse violence against women if they believe men should be dominant in their intimate relationship and have the right to ensure that dominance through physical

aggression (Flood, 2010).

Given this, constructions of masculinity play an important role in predicting violence against women. Studies have shown that men who adhere to sexist, patriarchal or hostile attitudes towards women are more likely to also use violence against women (Anderson & Umberson, 2001; Archer & Graham-Kevan, 2003; Brownridge, 2002; DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). These violence-supportive attitudes may serve to “justify, excuse, minimize, or hide physical or sexual violence against women” (Flood, 2010, p. 15). For instance, Brownridge (2002) found that men who endorse traditional gender roles, as demonstrated by acts such as limiting a partner’s access to income and controlling or socially isolating a partner, were found to be more likely to physically victimize their intimate partners than their more egalitarian counterparts. Men who endorse more rigid gender role expectations for men and women are also more likely to be accepting of male violence against women.

In contrast, men who endorse more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to view violence against women as unacceptable, to define a wider array of acts as violence against women, to show empathy towards victims of violence, and to recommend stronger penalties for offenders (Flood & Pease, 2009). For instance, Taylor and Mouzos (2006) found that higher support for gender equality was the strongest predictor of violence-intolerant attitudes. This is consistent with previous cross-cultural research which has linked female physical victimization to lower levels of gender equality at the societal level (Archer, 2000). However, it is important to note that attitudes towards gender roles only address one facet of intimate partner violence and cannot wholly account for its occurrence. For instance, in their examination of the predictors of sexual aggression, Murnen, Wright and Kaluzny (2002) argue that “one would need to be

accepting of violence in relationships, believe that women deserve violence (hostility towards women), and think that it is men's place to be dominant (e.g., dominance/power ideology)" (p.370). That is, the compound effect of these attitudes may be more powerful than the influence of any one variable separately.

While the majority of the research literature focuses on the link between gender role expectations and *male* violence against women, there is also evidence that women who are hostile toward or generally distrustful of other women are also more likely to endorse traditional, and therefore rigid, gender role expectations for women (Forbes, Adams-Curtis & White, 2004). Therefore, it is possible that these gendered expectations serve different purposes for men and women. For instance, Bohner, Siebler and Schmelcher (2009) found that while these attitudes may serve to justify men's sexually violent behaviour, for women these attitudes may allow them to distance themselves from the threat of sexual violence. This, in turn, may increase the likelihood that these women will also endorse other attitudes that are harmful to women and contribute to a culture that legitimizes violence against women. Moreover, in their longitudinal study of 1,291 adolescents from North Carolina, Foshee, Benefield, Ennett, Bauman and Suchindran (2004) found that girls' endorsement of traditional gender role expectations was associated with past sexual victimization.

Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA)

Similarly, beliefs about victims and perpetrators of sexual assault have also been found to be predictors of dating violence. Rape myths refer to "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p. 134). This concept highlights that sexual assault occurs within, and is a consequence of, an inherently sexist society (Forbes &

Adams-Curtis, 2001). Rape myths are beliefs involving the nature of sexual coercion and address such questions as (1) what is rape, (2) what are the causes of rape, and (3) who are the legitimate victims of rape (Forbes, Adams-Curtis & White, 2004). Women who do not act according to the behaviour espoused through the various rape myths are deemed, by those who hold such views, to not be “real” victims (Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). Rape myths serve to intimidate and control women thus perpetuating rape culture, and the prominence of rape myths makes it extremely difficult to separate these false beliefs from what is considered to be “normal” sexual relations (Hockett et al., 2009). These negative and stereotypical attitudes towards women typically fall into four distinct rape myth categories:

1. Women are to blame for rape;
2. Most reports of rape are false;
3. Perpetrators should be exonerated; and,
4. Only certain types of women are raped (Bohner et al., 2009, p.19).

These beliefs are so prevalent that they go largely unchallenged; for instance, approximately one-quarter of Australians agreed that women make false claims about rape and 38% agreed that rape occurs because men cannot control their sexual impulses or desires (VicHealth, 2009). However, very few men, approximately 1 in 20, believe that women are “asking” to be raped (Flood, 2010). Instead, they are more likely to agree that “women often say ‘no’ when they mean ‘yes,’” that they are “playing hard to get,” or that women “are acting as dishonest sexual gatekeepers” (Flood, 2010, p. 17). Similarly, in a recent study, the Canadian Women’s Foundation (2013) found that as many as 19% of respondents reported that when a woman is drunk, she may provoke or encourage sexual assault. The general acceptance of these types of stereotypes leads individuals to believe that there is only one stereotypical rape experience and that behaviours that do not fit into this very narrow definition of sexual assault are simply normative aspects of

intimate relationships (Pease & Flood, 2008). Consequently, women have a difficult time naming or labeling abusive experiences as sexual assault when they experience them. Rape myths serve a functional role in that they are part of a self-supporting system in which the lack of conviction via the criminal justice system legitimizes the myth that women make false claims about rape which, in turn, allows men's sexually aggressive behaviour to continue (Burgess, 2007; Horvath & Brown, 2009).

Empirical research shows that certain groups endorse these negative stereotypes of women more than others; for instance, men have been found to be more likely than women to endorse such beliefs, especially those who endorse traditional gender role expectations (Flood & Pease, 2009). Similarly, a meta-analytic review examining attitudes towards rape revealed that “men, older people, traditional gender role beliefs, adversarial sexual beliefs, conservative political beliefs, and aggressiveness” emerged as predictors of the tolerance of sexually coercive behaviour (Anderson et al., 1997; as cited in Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). While men have consistently been shown to be more likely to endorse rape myths than women, some women believe them too (Cowan, 2000). These attitudes influence how victims, their loved ones, bystanders, and the criminal justice system respond to instances of sexual assault. As discussed earlier, individuals who endorse rape myths may be less likely to offer emotional support to victims and may recommend more lenient penalties for perpetrators (Flood & Pease, 2009).

Similarly, men who hold these hostile attitudes towards women may be more likely to engage in sexually violent behaviours themselves. Research has shown that rape myths may serve as a psychological “time out” in which men can ignore social values and conventions and use violence to force women to submit to sexual relations (Bohner et al., 2006). Similarly, Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994; 1995) have found rape myth acceptance to be significantly

related to the likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion. In one of the only longitudinal studies demonstrating the association between rape myth acceptance and the subsequent perpetration of sexual assault among junior high and high school students, Lanier (2001) found that male respondents in North Carolina who endorsed rape myths were 1.9 times more likely to engage in sexually coercive acts in the subsequent 12 months. These studies demonstrate that it is not psychological factors residing within individual perpetrators, but cultural factors that influence the incidence and nature of sexual assault (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001).

However, a significant number of sexual assault prevention programs targeting attitudes have demonstrated only a short-term impact on participants (Anderson & Whiston, 2005; Flores & Hartlaub, 1998) which may indicate that individual attitudes are strongly influenced by the wider society. Interestingly, Forbes, Adams-Curtis and White (2004) found that “correlations between measures of sexism, acceptance of rape myths, or adversarial sexual beliefs and measures of verbal aggression or sexual coercion were eliminated when a measure of hostility towards women was used as a covariate” (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004, p.104). As such, endorsement of rape myths, without the accompanying affective dimension of hostility, may not, on its own, increase rape proclivity (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004; White et al., 1995).

Violence-Tolerant Beliefs about Partner Violence

While few studies have examined participant definitions of dating violence, there is much literature that examines this issue in regards to domestic violence. In 2006, the Victorian Health Promotion Foundation (VicHealth) conducted the Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006), which examined contemporary attitudes of residents of the state of Victoria in Australia. The survey sought to examine not only overall community attitudes but also indicators of attitude change since the previous survey, conducted in 1995. A

total of 2,800 participants were sampled: 2000 were randomly selected from the community and 800 represented members of oversampled cultural and linguistic groups (Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek). Results of this study show that greater belief in gender equality was associated with the extent to which participants defined behaviours as “always” domestic violence (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). The relationship was also linear in that those who did not support gender equality were less likely to define behaviours as “always” domestic violence (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). While the majority of respondents agreed that domestic violence is made up of both physical and non-physical components, results showed that both male and female respondents were less certain non-physical forms of abuse can be counted as domestic violence (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). For instance, while 98% of respondents agreed that slapping or pushing one’s partner to cause harm or fear was a form of domestic violence, only 69% agreed that controlling one’s partner by denying them financial resources was a form of domestic violence (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006).

Similarly, in their qualitative study of Canadian high school students, Sears, Byers, Whelan, Saint-Pierre, and The Dating Violence Research Team (2006) found that respondents only named behaviours as violent within particular contexts. That is:

Although girls and boys were able to list behaviours that may be physically or psychologically abusive, they emphasized that it is the situation, not the behaviour, that determines whether a behaviour is abusive (Sears et al., 2006, p.1200).

This suggests that violence, even physical violence which is often deemed the most serious form, is seen as acceptable or justifiable in certain circumstances (Sears et al., 2006). For instance, male respondents claimed that violence is excusable in cases where one does not intend to harm the other person whereas female respondents argued that behaviours are only abusive if they cause harm or fear (Sears et al., 2006). Similar research shows that young women understand

dating violence as an individualized experience that is more about “choosing the wrong boyfriend” than the result of cultural factors (Chung, 2007). This mirrors findings in the domestic violence literatures in which female victims have a tendency to “minimize their male partner’s violence and justify his actions” (Chung, 2007, p.1293).

Although it is difficult to determine changes in attitudes towards violence against women over time due to methodological differences among studies, one can assume that increased attention in the media and public education campaigns have led to inclusion of a wider range behaviours under the domestic violence umbrella (Carlson & Worden, 2005). There is some empirical evidence to support this from a study in the United States: Johnson and Seigler (2000) assessed the perceptions of respondents over three periods of time in the 1990s and found that by the end of the 1990s, the majority of respondents considered physical abuse to be a form of domestic violence (as cited in Carlson & Worden, 2005). Additionally, over time there was an increase in the number of respondents that considered wife abuse a felony (Johnson & Seigler, 2000; as cited in Carlson & Worden, 2005).

Similarly, few studies examine the acceptability or tolerance of dating violence. Early studies investigating this issue found that 20% of those surveyed agreed that a man could slap his wife (Dibble & Straus 1990; as cited in Carlson & Worden, 2005) and some studies have replicated these results (Sigler, 1989; as cited in Carlson & Worden, 2005). However, more recent studies that examine situations in which respondents find violence against women to be justifiable or excusable find greater rates of tolerance with some studies finding that as many as 60% of male respondents agree that male violence is acceptable in certain situations (Carlson & Worden, 2005). Relationship to the abuser has been found to be significant in excusing and justifying male violence against women; there is some empirical evidence that respondents are

more likely to excuse violence committed by a married man, compared to situations in which the perpetrator and the victim were acquaintances, as the married man may be viewed as justified in exerting familial discipline (Willis et al., 1996; as cited in Yamawaki et al., 2012).

Research examining the link between gender and attitudes tolerant of domestic violence suggests significant differences between the beliefs of men and women. In 2009, a subsequent survey conducted was conducted by VicHealth further examining community attitudes towards violence against women. The 2009 survey took place in three phases: first, 10,000 telephone interviews were conducted with people across Australia regarding attitudes towards violence against women; second, oversampling was done with 2,500 first- or second-generation members of either Italian, Greek, Chinese or Vietnamese decent; and, third, face-to-face interviews were conducted with 400 native Australians in nine metropolitan areas across the country (VicHealth, 2009). While this study found that the majority of male respondents did not approve of the use of physical force against a partner, the highest proportion of respondents agreed that it was excusable or justifiable when one's partner admits to having sex with another man (VicHealth, 2009). Conversely, empirical evidence suggests that women define partner violence more broadly and are more likely to include non-physical forms of violence in these definitions, rate physical violence more seriously than their male counterparts, and are less willing to accept excuses or justifications for male violence against women (Carlson & Worden, 2005). Interestingly, men are more likely to excuse partner violence under certain circumstance rather than justify it outright. For instance, 20% of male respondents reported that domestic violence could be excused if it results from extreme anger leading to a loss of control, and 38% of male respondents reported that rape results when men are unable to control their need of sex (VicHealth, 2009).

Similarly, in both VicHealth surveys men were less likely to see non-physical forms of violence including yelling at, criticizing or controlling one's partner as "very serious" (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006; VicHealth, 2009). As was the case with the definition of domestic violence, these studies also found that belief in gender equality was associated with the extent to which participants perceived behaviours to be serious in nature compared to those who showed weak support for gender equality (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006; VicHealth, 2009).

Sociodemographic Characteristics

Empirical research also suggests that sociodemographic characteristics may also influence the risk of partner violence, both in terms of victimization and perpetration. That is, those who are younger, cohabitating, unemployed, academically less successful, and who abuse alcohol are more likely to be involved in situations of intimate partner violence.

Age

Age is a significant factor in predicting intimate partner violence both in terms of victimization and offending (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Krahé et al., 2005). Empirical research shows that Canadian couples under 25 years of age are at higher risk for intimate partner violence than older couples, with couples 45 years of age and older at the lowest risk for victimization and offending (Romans et al., 2007; as cited in Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Similar data has been found in the United States, for instance, Smith et al. (2003) found that 88% of their college-aged sample had experienced at least one incident of dating violence. Additionally, Jezl, Molitor and White (1996) found among their high school sample 96% had experienced psychological abuse, 59% had experienced physical abuse, and 15% had been sexually victimized in the context of a dating relationship. Young women's increased vulnerability may be attributed to their association with men under 25 years of age who are more likely to be

violent *in general* compared to older men (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Similarly, young men are also more likely to endorse attitudes that are tolerant of violence *in general* and more likely to view violence in relationships as an acceptable or normative conflict resolution strategy (Flood & Pease, 2009).

Relationship Status

Cohabitation has been identified as a risk factor for partner violence. However, as cohabitation becomes more common and is no longer reserved for uneducated or lower income couples, rates of violence within these unions are gaining parity with legal marriages (Brownridge, 2008). Despite this, research conducted both in the United States and in Canada has found that the rate of partner violence continues to be higher among couples who are cohabitating than among those who are married and the severity of violence among these unions is also greater, with common-law unions at the greatest risk of femicide (Brownridge, 2008). In order to assess whether circumstances and characteristics vary according to relationship type, Dawson and Gartner (1998) examined 703 cases of femicide occurring in Ontario from 1974 to 1994. In this study they found that perpetrators of femicides among common-law and dating partners were younger, more likely to be unemployed and have a criminal record and less likely to have children (as cited in Johnson & Hotton 2003). Additionally, perpetrators of femicide against dating partners were also more likely to have been under the influence of drugs or alcohol at the time of the incident, to be motivated by jealousy and to sexually assault their victims (Dawson & Gartner, 1998, as cited in Johnson & Hotton, 2003). In trying to account for this, researchers have pointed to individuals who choose to cohabitate as having different relationship values than couples who marry (Brownridge, 2008). For instance, couples who marry have been found to lead less separate lives than couples who cohabitate (Brownridge,

2008). Similarly, cohabitating couples have been found to be less secure in their relationships which may result in “more compensatory domineering behaviour, more sexually proprietary behaviour, greater social isolation, a higher probability of depression, more heavy alcohol consumption, and a reduced likelihood of having children” (Brownridge, 2008, p.811). These factors may lead to more conflict or disagreements which have the possibility of developing into violent confrontations (Brownridge, 2008). It is possible that the same selection/relationship factors that predispose cohabitating couples to violence also reflect differing attitudes towards violence in relationships.

Employment and Academic Achievement

Although it may seem like an outdated concept, a division of labour in which men work outside the home and women work inside the home is still central to the male gender role identity (Connell, 1995). Consequently, conceptions of what it means to be masculine are still largely informed by the role of the breadwinner and the ability to provide for one’s family (Connell, 1995). However, MacMillan and Gartner (1999) argue that it is impossible to understand the symbolic importance of male employment without also taking into consideration female employment status. As such, they found that intimate partner violence is highest when the female partner is employed but the male partner is not (MacMillan & Gartner, 1999). This is due to the fact that through employment women usurp the dominant role considered to rightfully belong to men in the family and the male partner may use violence to reassert his power and authority over his female partner (MacMillan & Gartner, 1999). Moreover, a similar argument can be made that academic achievement, or lack thereof, in a sample of young adults will have a similar effect on men in this age group. That is to say that achievement carries a symbolic importance as a means of success or status. In cases where young men do not or cannot achieve

this indicator of success, it is possible that they may exert their masculinity in more aggressive ways.

Alcohol Consumption

The relationship between alcohol consumption and sexual violence is well-documented; for instance, a national study of college women in the United States found that 1 in 21 women who were sexually assaulted reported that they were intoxicated at the time of the incident and, therefore, unable to give consent (Mohler-Kuo et al., 2004). Peer relationships are crucial in explaining the link between alcohol and sexual violence as they influence perceptions relating to both risk and responsibility in the presence of alcohol (Fisher et al., 2000; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). Moreover, alcohol is considered to be the number one weapon used in sexual assault cases which tend to occur within the context of social events and, therefore, in situations where the perpetrator is known to the victim (Testa et al., 2007). For instance, in their study of women seeking sexual assault treatment services in Ontario, Du Mont et al. (2009) found that two-thirds of women had consumed alcohol before the incident and that 21% had been drugged. Similarly, Abbey et al. (1998; 2004) found that between 30% and 75% of perpetrators and almost 50% of female victims were drinking immediately preceding the sexual assault. Alcohol is often used as a means of disinhibiting female victims and this is especially true within a male peer environment that supports or encourages sexual violence (Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997).

Alcohol is not only an important factor in the occurrence of sexual violence but is also a risk factor for intimate partner violence. It has been estimated that male perpetrators are intoxicated in approximately 40% of all instances of intimate partner violence and 70% of all intimate partner homicides (Murphy et al., 2001). Similarly, in a family-practice sample, Coker,

Hall Smith, McKeown and King (2000) found that alcohol abuse among either member of a couple increased the likelihood of intimate partner violence within that relationship. As such, excessive alcohol consumption has been linked to both the incidence and severity of intimate partner violence. In a household probability sample of married and cohabitating couples, it was found that the problems associated with alcohol consumption, such as lack of control or restraint can also be related to both moderate and severe forms of domestic abuse (Cunradi et al., 2002).

Despite the number of incidents of sexual and partner violence that occur within the context of alcohol consumption, studies generally caution against drawing a causal connection between these two variables. Evidence shows the likelihood of violence is increased not by the frequency of drinking but, instead, by problem or heavy drinking at a single occasion (Johnson et al, 2008). There are two explanatory models regarding the link between intimate partner violence and alcohol consumption that currently dominate the social science literature: first, the linear understanding suggests that increases in alcohol consumption result in increases in risk of relationship aggression; the threshold conceptualization claims that in order for an appreciable increase in the risk of intimate partner violence, a certain level of alcohol intake is necessary (O’Leary & Schumacher, 2003). That is to say, the risk of relational aggression is relatively low below a certain level of alcohol consumption and beyond this threshold, the risk of partner violence increases (O’Leary & Schumacher, 2003). It has also been suggested that partners’ joint pattern of alcohol consumption may be an important relationship-level factor in predicting risk of partner violence as it allows for an explanation that goes beyond the predictive power of individual’s alcohol consumption level in accounting for variance in rates of partner violence (cited in Leadley et al., 2000). While all couples who drank experienced a higher incidence of intimate partner violence than those couples who abstained from drinking, violence was highest

among couples where discrepancies in drinking habits were high (Leadley et al., 2000).

Moreover, some researchers argue that the relationship between alcohol consumption and partner violence is spurious and is simply the result of mediating characteristics that covary with both alcohol consumption and the incidence of partner violence, such as age (cited in Foran & O'Leary, 2008).

One factor that has been found to intervene in the relationship between alcohol consumption and sexual violence is a culture that condones negative and hostile attitudes towards women (Jewkes et al., 2002). These social norms are connected to alcohol in important and complex ways: for instance, alcohol use is related not only to myths surrounding sexual violence and negative attitudes towards women but also to expectations of the effects of alcohol which makes it difficult to ascertain the unique contribution of each of these factors (Abbey et al., 2004). It is possible that "men's expectations about alcohol's effects can combine with their already existing misconceptions about women's sexual expectations and intentions" which may serve to justify their sexually predatory behaviour (Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). Similarly, intoxication has been found to interact with existing personality traits, such as aggressiveness, which can reduce inhibitions, affect decision-making abilities, and result in distortions regarding consent (Abbey et al., 2004). There is also evidence to suggest that intimate partner violence occurs when the effects of alcohol interact with the male need for power and control (Collins et al., 1997). Johnson (2001) found that alcohol consumption was indeed a predictor of intimate partner violence but when entered into a model that included male control and emotional abuse of female partners, the association disappeared. So while alcohol consumption does have a role to play in explaining partner violence, the role of gender-related attitudes and beliefs may be

much more significant predictors. However, this study also serves to illuminate why the majority of partner violence occur without the influence of alcohol.

The Role of Attitudes in Predicting Dating Violence

As can be seen from the discussion above, attitudes consistently emerge as one of the most important predictors of partner violence. Attitudes, as measured by constructions of gender, hostility toward women, rape myth acceptance and attitudes tolerant of dating violence, are repeatedly found to be associated with intimate partner violence.

In order to understand the role of attitudes in predicting dating violence, we must first consider what attitudes consist of and how they, as social and psychological constructs, influence behaviour. Attitudinal research, historically, has been conceptualized as a domain of social psychology (Pease & Flood, 2008). In fact, since its inception, social psychology has been defined as the “scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another” (Myers & Spencer, 2004, p. 3). This typically involves an examination of factors influencing the formation and development of attitudes as well as how they serve to motivate and influence behaviour (Albarracin et al., 2005). Despite the volume of research examining attitudes, there is no agreed-upon understanding of what they entail (see Fabrigar et al., 2005 for review). However, certain characteristics of attitudes are consistently emphasized in the research literature, including: (1) attitudes focus on the evaluation of a person or object on a continuum ranging from positive to negative; (2) attitudes are understood as distinct from beliefs; and, (3) attitudes are typically viewed as stable dispositions (Pease & Flood 2008, p.551). In contrast, beliefs are typically based on objective knowledge and, as such, can be changed in light of new

and contradictory information (Eagly & Chaiken 1993; as cited in Pease & Flood, 2008). Attitudes cannot be proven to be either true or false regardless of the factual or objective information presented and therefore may be resistant to change (Eagly & Chaiken 1993; as cited in Pease & Flood, 2008). For instance, given the attention given to sexual violence in the media in recent years, individual men and women often objectively know that women do not invite rape; however, in the aftermath of sexual violence survivors are often asked what they were wearing or how they behaved to incite the incident. Attitudes allow us to evaluate individuals, objects, and circumstances and, in this way, they structure our social environments (Wood et al., 2005). They also enable us to process social information and influence our behaviour as well as the social judgements we make on a day-to-day basis (Wood et al., 2005). Attitudes are often acquired through first-hand experiences with individuals, objects, and situations but they may also be acquired through the vicarious experiences of others or through the influence of the media (Wood et al., 2005).

Difficulties can arise in determining the influence attitudes have on behaviours as both behaviour and attitudes are subject to outside influences and attitudes do not necessarily link to action (Myers & Spencer, 2004). In particular, there is evidence that attitudes are contextual and contingent (Pease & Flood, 2008). While the majority of attitudinal research assumes that individual attitudes reside within respondents, others have argued that attitudes are “temporary constructions created at the time people are asked to make attitudinal judgments” (Fabrigar et al., 2005, p. 80). That is, individual attitudes can easily change from one occasion to the next and factors such as respondent’s mood have been found to influence attitudinal judgments (Pease & Flood, 2008; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). What this suggests is that, if we are trying to predict a specific behaviour by measuring a general attitude, the likelihood that we will find a significant

correlation between the two is minimal (Myers & Spencer, 2004). For instance, if we are using attitudes towards women (a general attitude) to predict whether or not respondents are willing to help a woman in distress (a very specific behaviour), it is likely that correlations between these two variables will be low or insignificant (Myers & Spencer, 2004). However, the likelihood of attitudes predicting behaviour increases when the attitude being measured is specific and relevant to the behaviour in question; for instance, attitudes towards safe sex practices are highly correlated with contraceptive use (Myers & Spencer, 2004). As such, the relationship between attitudes and the resulting behaviours is both complex and partial as there is evidence that respondents might “say one thing and do another” (Pease & Flood, 2008, p. 552). This highlights the importance of peer groups in the development of violence-tolerant attitudes. That is, individual’s perceptions of peer norms have been found to influence men’s self-reported willingness to commit acts of partner violence (Flood & Pease, 2009). Consequently, attitudinal data must be interpreted with caution, with an understanding that attitudes alone cannot wholly account for complex social phenomena (Pease & Flood, 2008).

The Link Between Attitudes and Violence against Women

In the past three decades, many quantitative scales have been developed to measure attitudes towards violence against women (Pease & Flood, 2008). The scales have sought to assess issues such as the tolerance of physical or sexual violence, victim-blaming, rape proclivity, rape myth acceptance, and the perpetration of intimate partner violence to name a few (Pease & Flood, 2008). Through the use of these scales, the evidence suggests that there is a consistent relationship between violence-tolerant attitudes and the direct perpetration of violence against women both at the individual- and societal-level (Pease & Flood, 2008; 2009). There is much support for this assertion: for instance, O’Neil and Harway (1997) found that men with

traditional and restrictive gender role attitudes were more likely to engage in intimate partner violence. Moreover, while the majority of those with negative attitudes towards women do not use violence, these individuals contribute to an environment of misogyny in which women are seen as legitimate targets of male violence. Similarly, in a qualitative examination of the causes of domestic violence, Russell and Hulson (1992) found that “the main reason that husbands are abusive is that they believe that it is acceptable” (p.472). General population studies have historically found a statistically significant relationship between attitudes that are tolerant of violence and the use of male violence against female partners (Archer & Graham-Kevan, 2003; Archer & Haigh, 1997; Kaufman Kantor et al., 1994; Price et al., 1999). For example, Anderson, Simpson-Taylor and Hermann (2004) found that young men who endorse rape myths are more likely to be sexually coercive than men who do not endorse these beliefs. In a meta-analytic review of studies examining the link between masculinity and sexual aggression, Murnen et al. (2002) found that all but one of the measures of masculinity included were significantly related to the perpetration of sexual assault.

Similarly, research studies utilizing both feminist and sociocultural perspectives have consistently found a strong relationship between attitudes tolerant of intimate partner violence and the direct perpetration of violence against one’s partner (Kane et al., 2000; Flood & Pease, 2009). Mosher and Sirkin (1984), for instance, found that attitudes described as hypermasculine were associated with negative attitudes towards women and that men who endorsed these attitudes were more likely to have engaged in acts of sexual violence. Similarly, in an anonymous sample of 336 undergraduate students, Thompson (1991) found a statistically significant relationship between male use of violence in intimate relationships and scores on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI), a self-report scale used to measure masculinity, femininity, and

androgyny. That is to say, men who had used violence against their intimate partners were found to have higher masculinity scores than their non-violent counterparts (Thompson, 1991).

Additionally, in his study of heterosexual men, homosexual men, and lesbian women, Próspero (2008) found that those who scored high on measures of masculinity, regardless of their biological sex, were more likely to engage in acts of domestic violence than were those who did not score as high on measures of masculinity.

Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss and Tanaka's (1991) concept of hostile masculinity offers another example of how attitudinal factors interact to influence perpetration of male violence against women. Hostile masculinity describes men who not only have a need to control and dominate women but who are also extremely distrustful of women in general; these two characteristics then interact to increase the risk of sexual violence (Malamuth et al., 1991). These two characteristics create two distinct possible pathways to sexual violence: first, men with this hostile personality may be more likely to endorse rape myths and adopt adversarial attitudes towards sexuality; and second, because these men are generally distrustful of women, they are more likely to be sexually promiscuous, which, when paired with hostility, has been associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in sexual violence (Malamuth 1991). Moreover, Malamuth, Linz, Heavey, Barnes, and Acker (1995) also found evidence that the relationship between hostile masculinity and sexual violence is relatively stable over time with a strong association between the two variables at the time of the initial study and at a ten-year follow-up.

While the majority of research has examined the link between male attitudes towards violence and subsequent violent behaviour, there is also evidence to suggest that these attitudes also condition women's responses to their own victimization as well as the victimization of other women (Pease & Flood, 2008; 2009). While these attitudes do not increase the likelihood that

they will be victimized, their attitudes may influence the likelihood they will blame themselves for their own victimization, report the violence to police or seek help through non-legal means, and experience harmful long-term physical and emotional consequences after the assault has taken place (Anderson et al., 2004; Pease & Flood, 2008; 2009). For instance, Harris, Firestone & Vega (2005) found that women who endorse more traditional gender role expectations are less likely to report incidents of intimate partner violence. In addition, traditional attitudes surrounding heterosexual scripts may lead some women to believe that violence in certain circumstances is justified or that aggression is a normative aspect of romantic relationships (Vézina & Hebert, 2007; Fanslow et al., 2010). Moreover, women who have narrow definitions of intimate partner violence are less likely to recognize and name their experiences as violence. A major reason that women do not report experiences that meet the legal definition of sexual assault to police is that they do not fit within the common understanding of “real rape” – it was not committed by a stranger, they were not threatened with a weapon, and they did not endure serious physical injury (Lievore, 2003 as cited in Pease & Flood, 2008).

Additionally, attitudes towards violence also influence how friends and family members respond to the victimization of a loved one (Pease & Flood, 2008). Those who endorse negative attitudes towards women, rape myths, or beliefs that violence can be justified or excused are less likely to show empathy and support to victims of violence (Pease & Flood, 2008). For instance, Pavlou and Knowles (2001) found that respondents who held violence-tolerant attitudes were less likely to report the violent incident to police and more likely to recommend lenient penalties for perpetrators. These kinds of social norms also influence formal responses to acts of violence against women by the criminal justice system. These formal and informal responses have

significant impacts on the victims of violence as their ability to recover psychologically after an incident and their ability to leave a violent relationship is dependent on the material and emotional support they receive from others (Goodkind et al., 2003; as cited in Pease & Flood, 2008). Moreover, societal-level attitudes play a role in either sustaining or preventing violence against women. Given that violence against women occurs within a social and community context, failure to sanction these forms of abuse can legitimize and promote its occurrence (Pease & Flood, 2008).

Theoretical Framework: Masculinity Theory

The correlates of partner violence, as described earlier, are useful for examining the factors that increase the likelihood of dating violence, in terms of both victimization and perpetration; however, they are unable to account for the causes of dating violence and, consequently, numerous theories have emerged to fill this explanatory gap (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). There is general agreement that violence against women cannot be attributed to a single cause, that it is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon with many interconnected components at both the individual- and societal-level (Heise, 1998; Johnson & Dawson, 2011). A theoretical framework that is supported by empirical research selected for this research study is masculinity theory.

The development of masculinity theory as an explanatory model of violence against women is indebted to both gender role theory and feminist theory. An important contribution of these two perspectives to masculinity theory is their distinction between “sex” and “gender,” which were often used interchangeably to account for behavioural differences that were the result of culturally-defined gender norms, not inherent biological differences (Johnson &

Dawson, 2011). In challenging these taken-for-granted assumptions, gender roles came to be understood as socially ascribed normative behaviour expectations that are learned during the socialization process and are not the result of the chromosomal differences between men and women (West & Zimmerman, 1987; Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Similarly, feminists highlighted that, in androcentric societies, gender roles often reflect male-dominated understandings of what behaviours are appropriate for men and women, with male gender roles ascribed a greater value than female gender roles (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). These gendered messages, which we are exposed to beginning in childhood, may lead young men to believe that they are entitled to power and privilege simply on the basis of their sex (Totten, 2000).

Similarly, early feminists such as Diana Russell, Catherine MacKinnon, and Andrea Dworkin illuminated the role of power in gender relations, focusing on the importance of sexuality, aggression, and violence as the basis of masculinity (cited in Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Through this conceptualization of power, male dominance and privilege came to be understood as the foundation of all forms of inequality. In the 1960s and 1970s, critiques of radical feminism emerged in which black theorists and critical race theorists problematized the homogenous experiences articulated by hegemonic white, middle-class feminism. During this time, the construct of intersectionality emerged which accounts for how experiences of oppression are influenced not only by gender but also by other social characteristics such as class, race, ethnicity, disability, and sexual orientation (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). These characteristics then have an additive effect in terms of experiences of oppression. Sherene Razack (1996) uses the term “interlocking” to account for these experiences of intersecting oppressions as it is impossible to separate these oppressions into distinct categories. That is, social characteristics such as gender simultaneously structure other forms of oppression and

privilege, for instance, those relating to class and race. These interlocking oppressions not only affect women's experiences of violence but also the way they respond to violence, the resources available to them in the aftermath as well as how others respond to them. This is particularly important when we consider criminal justice responses to intimate partner violence. While significant progress has been made in Canada, it is important to understand and acknowledge that not all women benefit equally from these policies.

Masculinity theory emerges out of this understanding of interlocking oppressions. That is, while men, as a group, may be afforded particular advantages due to their gender, individual men may simultaneously experience oppression due to their race, sexual orientation, gender identity, or ability-status (Hearn, 2010; Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Instead, power should be understood as a significant and ubiquitous aspect of men's lives; while some men are more powerful than others, men as a group benefit from the superiority over women accorded to them in the social hierarchy (Hearn, 2010).

The centrality of power and dominance to masculinity features prominently in feminist explanations of violence against women; for instance, the perpetration of sexual assault is considered to be the result of over-conforming to masculine gender role expectations (Russell, 1984). This stance is echoed by Dobash and Dobash (1979) who argue that "men who assault their wives are actually living up to cultural prescriptions that are cherished in Western Society – aggressiveness, male dominance, female subordination – and they use physical force to enforce that domination" (p. 24). This gender binary, in which masculinity values "aggression, force, power, strength, toughness, and dominance" increases the likelihood that men will be sexually violent whereas traits that are typically associated with femininity, such as "submissiveness, passivity, and dependence" increase the likelihood that women will be victimized (Johnson &

Dawson, 2011, p. 17). That is, when men are unable to live up to these masculine values, they may experience a form of relative deprivation which, in turn, can lead to predatory behaviour over less powerful women (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2005).

In order for these patriarchal structures to endure, they must be reinforced and accepted by the larger society. This is done through ideology which is the “rationalization of inequality that serves as a means of creating acceptance by those in inferior positions” (Dobash & Dobash, 1979, p.44). Through the process of socialization, men and women learn the social hierarchy such that it appears natural that men hold more powerful positions in society and, therefore, these assumptions go on uncontested (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). When these normative expectations are challenged, these individuals are seen as extreme and are silenced through negative social sanctions (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). This is linked to Antonio Gramsci’s concept of hegemony which, originally used to explain class domination, demonstrates how those who have been subordinated “consent to or become submerged by, dominant conceptualizations of the way things are” (Howe, 2008, p.88). That is, hegemony involves the consent of both men and women, albeit in very different ways, in the maintenance of the system of patriarchal power (Hearn, 2010). As such, it is through hegemony that the social hierarchy comes to appear as natural and is taken as truth (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). As a result, male violence against women comes to be conceptualized as an extension of the natural social order in which men are entitled to exert their dominance over women (Totten, 2000).

However, radical feminists have been criticized by masculinity theorists for a monolithic “patriarchy” that is static and universal and for their inability to account for variations in individual constructions of masculinity (Kimmel, 2005; Messerschmidt, 1993). In particular, Messerschmidt (1993) problematizes the way in which patriarchy has been used as an

explanation for male violence against women. That is, he challenges the way in which both feminism and gender role theory presents gender as a one-dimensional phenomenon, as though there is just one type of femininity and one type of masculinity (Messerschmidt, 1993). He claims that such a conception of gender cannot account for why men in similar environments are not violent to the same degree (Messerschmidt, 1993). The link between masculinity and violence is necessarily more complex and as such, Messerschmidt (1993) argues for a theory of gender as structured action in which “gender is a situated accomplishment that grows out of social practices in specific settings and serves to inform such practices in reciprocal relation” (p.197). As such, a holistic theory of gender must account for the ways in which an individual’s gender identity is also conditioned by other social factors, such as race, social class, and sexual orientation (Messerschmidt, 1993; 2005). This implies, then, that a number of different masculinities are possible depending on how these factors converge in the lives of individual men (Messerschmidt, 1993).

Consequently, masculinity theory has emerged to fill this theoretical gap. In particular, it seeks to address how gender formations, specifically masculinity, are produced and reproduced in everyday situations, emphasizing not only on differences between men and women but also the differences that exist within groups of men and groups of women (Hird, 2002; Kimmel, 2000). One of the most salient contributions made by masculinity theory to the study of gender is the notion that gender is not a static characteristic but is fluid and dynamic, influenced other factors such as race, class and sexuality (Connell et al., 2005; Gardiner, 2005). That is, gender is a socially constructed characteristic, which implies that “our identities are fluid assemblages of the meanings and behaviours that we construct from the values, images, and prescriptions we find in the world around us” (Kimmel, 2000, p.87). In 1987, West and Zimmerman coined the

term “doing gender” to explain that gender is not a characteristic that we innately possess; rather, it is something we do, something which is actively shaped and constructed through interactions with our social world. It is through the process of socialization that we learn and adopt appropriate gender role expectations and behaviours but these social constructions of gender are never static and are constantly evolving in light of the specific situations in which we find ourselves. This highlights the importance of performativity in the production of gender; that is, “we coordinate our activities to ‘do’ gender in situational ways” (Messerschmidt, 1993, p.79). As such, “doing gender” can be understood as a means through which the supposedly natural differences between men and women are produced and reinforced (Johnson & Dawson, 2011).

Essential to the concept of gender performance is the notion of accountability: “because individuals realize their behaviour is accountable to others, they construct their actions in relation to how they might be interpreted by others in the particular social context in which they occur” (Messerschmidt, 1993; 2005, p.79; 197). In “doing gender,” we are presenting ourselves to others in such a way that we are seen as expressing our “essential natures” as men or women (Messerschmidt, 1993, p.80). Masculinity, therefore, can be conceptualized as a situated accomplishment; it is not static, rather, it is an emergent feature of all social situations (Messerschmidt, 1993; West & Zimmerman, 1987). Masculinity is not universal; men construct their masculinities in response to specific social circumstances, typically not of their own choosing (Messerschmidt, 1993). In “doing gender” men engage in a self-regulated process in which they manage their gender performances and displays in order to accomplish culturally-sanctioned forms of masculinity (Messerschmidt, 1993).

A central component of masculinity theory is that the gender differences that exist between men and women are relatively minimal in comparison to the differences that exist

within groups of men and groups of women (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Moreover, these gender differences are seen as being a product of social inequality and not the reverse (Kimmel, 2000). That is to say that power is dynamic and men and women will have differential access to social power depending on their social positions (Johnson & Dawson, 2011). Therefore, masculinity is not only constructed in relation to femininity but also in relation to other forms of masculinity which, necessarily, influences not only how men and women relate to one another but also how men relate to other men (Connell, 1995; Messerschmidt, 1993).

Kaufman's (1994) concept of men's contradictory experiences of power is helpful in understanding the existence of multiple masculinities. Subgroups of masculinity emerge based on factors such as race, social class, and sexual orientation and definitions of masculinity within each of these subgroups vary according to the economic and social realities faced by members of that group (Kauffman, 1994). As such, differences can be observed in the experiences of men in terms of how they perform and accomplish their masculinity; for instance:

Part of the ideal of working-class manhood among white North American men stresses physical skill and the ability to physically manipulate one's environment, while part of the ideal of their upper-middle class counterparts stresses verbal skills and the ability to manipulate one's environment through economic, social, and political means (Kauffman, 1994, p.145).

Due to their differential access to the values of idealized masculinity, lower income men construct their masculinities in ways that differ from higher income men. While middle-class men can accomplish masculinity through access to education and economic success, lower income men must rely on physical and sexual demonstrations of power (Johnson, 1996). While men control the major social and economic institutions through androcentric definitions and regulations, and that this allows them to impose control over women, it is important to acknowledge that men do not all have the same access to these power resources

(Messerschmidt, 1993). Therefore, certain men will be better positioned to exert power over women, and over other groups of men, than will others and constructions of masculinity will vary depending on individual men's social position, the resources they have access to, and the specific social situations in which they find themselves (Messerschmidt, 1993). Consequently, different forms of male violence against women are enacted by men depending on their social position as a means of overcoming the "masculinity challenges" they face in their everyday lives (Dekeseredy & Schwartz, 2002; Messerschmidt, 1993). This allows for a more nuanced understanding of violence against women and why "particular men use particular types of violence to accomplish masculinity while other men in the same social situation use different forms of violence or rely on different resources altogether" to assert their masculinity (Johnson & Dawson, 2011, p.32).

While the negotiation of gender is an individual process, certain forms of masculinity are promoted in particular societies at particular times (Connell, 1995; Messerschmidt, 1993). "Hegemonic masculinity" refers to an idealized form of masculinity against which all others are compared and, ultimately, viewed as subordinate to (Connell, 1995, as cited in Messerschmidt, 1993). Similarly, hegemonic masculinity can also be understood as "a discursively constructed masculinity which gains and maintains its pre-eminence through its ideological linkages with socially dominant men" (Downes, 2004, p.107). It can also be seen as a tool of patriarchy which ensures men's dominant position over women in the social hierarchy (Connell, 1995, p.77). Definitions of masculinity, traditionally consisting of characteristics such as paid employment, the subordination of women, heterosexism and hypersexuality are central to contemporary hegemonic masculinity (Messerschmidt, 1993). It is important to understand hegemonic masculinity is a "currently accepted strategy" that addresses the contradictions of patriarchy and

that should the needs of patriarchy change, the legitimacy of the dominance of hegemonic masculinity would also crumble (Connell, 1995). Hegemonic masculinity, as a normative definition of masculinity, is faced with the difficulty that very few men may actually meet these high standards of behaviour (Connell, 1995). While very few men may adhere to hegemonic masculinity in its entirety, all men benefit from its exaltation (Connell, 1995). That is, it contributes to the “patriarchal dividend, the advantage men in general gain from the overall subordination of women” (Connell, 1995, p.79). While hegemonic masculinity may be culturally dominant, it is by no means universal; it is forever changing, with men having to renegotiate constructions of their gender role depending on the situation in which they find themselves (Messerschmidt, 1993).

This study will explore the relationship between gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, the endorsement of shared power in relationships, the acceptability and the perceived seriousness of dating violence) and the tolerance of dating violence. The following chapter sets out the operationalization of gender-related constructs in a quantitative survey of undergraduates in the Faculty of Social Sciences as well as details the sampling methods and procedures used throughout this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This research study employed an online questionnaire to assess student attitudes towards gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, shared power in relationships, and the acceptability and perceived seriousness of violence) and their association with the tolerance of dating violence. This chapter describes the sampling methodology and survey techniques used, including a detailed account of the measures and scales used to assess each of the constructs. It further outlines the research questions and hypotheses and presents the analytical framework and procedures used to assess the research questions.

Sampling and Survey Method

For the purposes of this research project, a convenience-purposive sampling hybrid was used, in that not all students could volunteer to participate but, instead were required to meet particular eligibility requirements in order to participate. Individual cases were solicited from the sampling frame of all undergraduate classes taking place during the Fall 2013 semester from the Criminology, Psychology, and Sociology & Anthropology departments. These departments were selected on the basis that they would give access to more students than other Social Science departments. A total of 49 classes containing approximately 4,263 students received an informational presentation from the researcher regarding the nature of the study. However, some students may have received the presentation more than once and an unknown number of students counted in the total may have been absent on the day of the presentation. Thus, the actual number of students solicited may be higher or lower than this figure.

All students enrolled in a course conducted in English in the three selected departments were eligible to participate in the study by completing an online questionnaire. The only exclusionary criterion in the selection of participants was language. That is, students enrolled in

courses in the French streams of these departments were excluded on the basis that the questionnaire was available in English only. In order to recruit participants, permission was first sought from the departmental chairs and, second, individual professors were approached in each of the departments. A total of 100 classes were eligible and 49 professors granted permission to the researcher to make a presentation to students inviting them to participate in the study. Professors who refused to participate often cited time constraints; however, in the Psychology department, all first-year year professors refused due to the fact that students registered in first-year psychology are solicited to participate in departmental research for extra credit and participation in the current study could interfere with this program. Once professors gave their permission, a brief presentation was given in each class explaining the goals of the research project, the associated risks, and potential benefits of participation and letters of information were distributed (which included a direct link to the online questionnaire). The researcher also asked each professor to post the letter of information with a hyperlink to the survey on Blackboard Learn/Virtual Campus (separately from course material to be clear that students' decisions to participate in the study was in no way associated with grades) in order to facilitate student access to the questionnaire. A total of 303 questionnaires were completed and 70 (23.1%) were excluded due to incomplete data. That is, questionnaires were excluded if students skipped questions related to the dependent variables (e.g. tolerance of dating violence). As such, this research study included a total of 233 participants which, based on the best estimate of 4,263 eligible students in these classes, results in a response rate of 5.5%.

	Department of Anthropology & Sociology	Department of Criminology	School of Psychology	Total
Total classes solicited	34	35	31	100
Total classes who gave permission	15	24	10	49
Classroom Response Rate (%)	44.1%	68.6%	32.3%	49%
Total number of students who received informational presentation	1425	2197	641	4263
Total questionnaires received	303			
Number of incomplete questionnaires excluded	70			
Total sample size	233			
Response Rate (%)	5.5%			

Table 3.1 Response Rate

Research Questions

This project addresses the following research questions:

1. How are gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, shared power in relationships, the acceptability of violence, and the perceived seriousness of violence) associated with the tolerance of dating violence?
2. Are sociodemographic variables important, net of the effects of gender-related constructs, in the prediction of the tolerance of dating violence?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Participants who endorse shared power in relationships will be less tolerant of all forms of dating violence.
2. Participants who are more accepting of general dating violence will be more tolerant of dating violence in specific situations.
3. Participants who view dating violence as serious will be less tolerant of dating violence in specific situations.
4. Participants who endorse rape myths will be more tolerant of all forms of dating violence.
5. Relationships between gender-related constructs and the tolerance of dating violence will vary according to sociodemographic characteristics, specifically:
 - a) Males, younger students, heterosexual students and those who drink to excess will be more tolerant of dating violence.
 - b) Students who are single (not dating, cohabitating, engaged, or married) and those who have higher levels of academic success will be less tolerant of dating violence.

Development of the Questionnaire

The online questionnaire for this research project was developed through a review of indicators measuring dimensions of violence against women, as identified by Flood (2008). In his compendium, Flood (2008) identified a number of behavioural and attitudinal concepts pertaining to violence against women as well as the measures which have been developed to assess these variables. Indicators for this study were selected based on recency, their use with similar research samples, and psychometric properties. The measures and scales included in the final version of the questionnaire rated high on reliability and validity based on research studies with similar research objectives and samples.

To address the research questions, the questionnaire was designed to measure participants' tolerance of dating violence taking into account its physical, sexual, and psychological components. The questionnaire includes six sections:

1. Demographic Characteristics
2. Tolerance of Dating Violence
3. Acceptability of Dating Violence
4. Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence
5. Rape Myth Acceptance
6. Shared Power in Relationships

Due to ethical considerations associated with questioning students about victimization and perpetration of violence in an online environment in which participants cannot be supported or referred to counseling services where needed, no direct questions about experiences of violence were included on the questionnaire. Instead, this research project focuses solely on attitudes tolerant of dating violence which may or may not be associated with the perpetration of dating violence.

Strengths and Limitations of Online Questionnaires

In the past decade, internet-based survey methods have proliferated based on three assumptions: (1) they are more cost effective; (2) they are efficient to conduct; and, (3) they can collect responses in the shortest amount of time, especially when using third-party websites or software which allow researchers to review responses as they are received in real time (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002; Neuman, 2009).

Self-administered questionnaires, in general, are recommended for: (a) measuring variables with numerous values or response categories that are cumbersome to read to respondents in a face-to-face interview or over the telephone; (b) investigating attitudes and opinions that are not directly observable (e.g. through participant observation); (c) describing characteristics of a large population; and, (d) studying behaviours that may be stigmatizing or

difficult to disclose in a face-to-face interview (Nardi, 2006). While telephone interviews generally yield high response rates, these have been steadily declining, resulting in higher rates of refusal or non-response. Moreover, telephone surveys may not be appropriate for younger samples, such as university students, who are unlikely to have landlines, making them difficult to reach via random digit dialing (RDD) (Neuman, 2009). As such, internet-based methods may be preferable.

Similarly, online surveys can prove to be more cost effective than mail-in, face-to-face or telephone survey methods but this depends on the desired sample size (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). For instance, the cost of printing the research questionnaire and the postage required to send them out by mail might be minimal for small samples and, as such, might be more cost-effective in comparison to an online survey website subscription (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). However, online surveys may be more cost effective for larger samples where the costs associated with telephone interviews, postal surveys or face-to-face interviews far exceed that of an online subscription (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). Moreover, web-based surveys can reduce costs associated with data entry as websites often offer integrative features with statistical software, such as SPSS (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). This also reduces the likelihood of coding errors and decreases the time needed for analysis (Nardi, 2006).

Additionally, online questionnaires provide respondents with an increased degree of anonymity, which can improve both response rate and the accuracy of results (Nardi, 2006). Similarly, respondents can complete an online questionnaire at a time that is convenient for them which offers an advantage over telephone interview methods where calls may come in at an inconvenient time, leading to participant refusal (Neuman, 2009). In comparison to other interview methods, self-administered questionnaires are efficient research instruments for

surveying larger populations within short time periods (Nardi, 2006). On the other hand, researchers have no control over the environment in which respondents are completing an online survey and, as such, cannot always know if respondents are who they claim to be or if they are answering questions honestly (Nardi, 2006). Similarly, they typically utilize closed-ended questions and do not allow for the opportunity to explain or clarify ambiguously worded questions (Nardi, 2006). However, highly structured questionnaires eliminate interviewer bias associated with face-to-face and telephone interviews (Nardi, 2006).

While internet-based survey methods allow for the incorporation of visual aids such as photos, graphics and videos directly into research questionnaires, which is not possible with more conventional methods such as mail-in surveys or telephone interviews, they are also much more technically involved (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). That is, researchers must learn how to use and navigate the questionnaire building software which can take time and training (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). Additionally, as with all other survey methodologies, web-based methods require pilot testing to ensure that the questionnaire flows properly and elicits the desired information (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002).

Moreover, online surveys are accessible to a large number of people in diverse geographical locations (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). However, because online questionnaire require a certain degree of literacy, they are not appropriate for samples of young children, the visually-impaired, those with learning/reading disabilities or those with low education (Nardi, 2006). An additional limitation of online questionnaires is differential access to computers which can affect sample bias and the generalizability of research results (Nardi, 2006). Given the sensitive nature of this research study, an online questionnaire was selected as it provides participants with increased anonymity, which may increase the likelihood that participants will

disclose negative attitudes, and it allows for the efficient sampling of a large sample of students necessary for quantitative analysis. Furthermore, with the use of FluidSurveys.com, a web-based software, researchers can export the results directly to SPSS which bypasses the need for data entry, which reduces coding errors, and facilitates analysis.

Analytical Framework

Dependent Variable

Tolerance of Dating Violence

The nominal definition of dating violence, for the purposes of this research study, is any kind of violence occurring within the context of dating relationships, including both cohabitating and non-cohabitating dating relationships. In order to present a more exhaustive understanding of the dynamics involved, the tolerance of all forms of dating violence (physical, sexual, and psychological) were considered. The definition of dating violence reflects the definitions used by the Canadian National Clearinghouse on Family Violence (2006), similar that that used by Price, Byers and the Dating Violence Research Team (1999) in their Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence scales, which was used in this research study, where:

Physical violence occurs when one partner uses physical force to control the other. It includes a range of assaults, from pushing, shoving, and grabbing to choking, burning and assaulting with a weapon

Sexual violence includes coercing a dating partner to engage in sexual activity, using force to attempt or to have sexual relations, and attempting or having intercourse with a person who is under the influence of drugs or alcohol and is unable to resist or give consent

Emotional or psychological abuse includes insulting or swearing at, belittling or threatening a dating partner. It can also include destroying a partner's property or possessions and isolating him or her from friends and relatives (pp. 1-2).

The scales included in the research questionnaire focus on attitudes towards male violence against women as this study aims to contribute to the research literature on the links between masculine gender role construction and male violence against women.

To assess respondents' tolerance of violence occurring within the context of dating relationships, the Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence Scale (AMDV) was used (Price et al., 1999). This scale is comprised of three subscales which assess attitudes towards psychological (15 items), physical (12 items), and sexual (12 items) dating violence by men against women (Price et al., 1999). The items included on each subscale are as follows:

- Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence:
 - A guy should not insult his girlfriend.
 - A guy should not tell his girlfriend what to do
 - A girl should ask her boyfriend first before going out with her friends.
 - Relationships always work best when girls please their boyfriends.
 - There is never a reason for a guy to threaten his girlfriend
 - Sometimes guys just can't help but swear at their girlfriends.
 - A girl should always change her ways to please her boyfriend.
 - A girl should always do what her boyfriend tells her to do.
 - A guy does not need to know his girlfriend's every move
 - There is never a good enough reason for a guy to swear at his girlfriend
 - It is understandable when a guy gets to angry that he yells at his girlfriend.
 - It is O.K. for a guy to bad mouth his girlfriend.
 - There is never a reason for a guy to yell and scream at his girlfriend
 - A girl should not see her friends if it bothers her boyfriend.
 - It is important for a girl to always dress the way her boyfriend wants.
- Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence:
 - A girl should break up with a guy when he hits her.
 - Some girls deserve to be slapped by their boyfriends
 - It is never O.K. for a guy to hit his girlfriend.
 - Sometimes guys just cannot stop themselves from punching girlfriends.
 - There is no good reason for a guy to push his girlfriend.
 - Sometimes a guy cannot help hitting his girlfriend when she makes him angry.
 - There is no good reason for a guy to slap his girlfriend.
 - Sometimes jealousy makes a guy so crazy that he must slap his girlfriend.
 - Girls who cheat on their boyfriends should be slapped.
 - Sometimes love makes a guy so crazy that he hits his girlfriend.
 - A guy usually does not slap his girlfriend unless she deserves it.
 - It is O.K. for a guy to slap his girlfriend if she deserves it.
- Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence:
 - When a guy pays on a date, it is O.K. for him to pressure his girlfriend for sex.
 - Guys do not own their girlfriends' bodies.

- When guys get really sexually excited, they cannot stop themselves from having sex.
- Guys should never get their girlfriends drunk to get them to have sex.
- A guy should not touch his girlfriend unless she wants to be touched.
- It is alright for a guy to force his girlfriend to kiss him.
- Often guys have to be rough with their girlfriends to turn them on.
- To prove her love, it is important for a girl to have sex with her boyfriend.
- A girl who goes into a guy's bedroom is agreeing to sex.
- It is no big deal to pressure a girl into having sex.
- It is alright to pressure a girl to have sex if she has had sex in the past.
- After a couple is going steady, -the guy should not force his girlfriend to have sex.

Source: Price et al., 1999, pp 358-359

All questions included in the subscales were rated on a Likert scale, with possible responses ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree” with high scores on each subscale indicating more tolerant attitudes towards dating violence (Price et al., 1999). All scales include both negative (which were recoded for the purposes of the analysis) and positive items and were randomized to avoid patterned response sets.

These dating violence measures were selected on the basis of their use with similar populations as well as their strong psychometric properties (e.g. validity and reliability). For instance, in the development of these scales, Price et al. (1999) assessed construct validity through a comparison of relationships between their scale and the Attitudes towards Women Scale for Adolescents (AWSA), designed to assess attitudes regarding the rights and roles of women (Flood, 2008). Scores on the AMDV scales were found to be significantly associated with scores on the AWSA for both high school boys and girls with Pearson’s r correlations ranging from 0.39 to 0.59 ($p < 0.001$). That is, boys and girls who held more traditional gender attitudes were more likely to be tolerant of male dating violence (Price et al., 1999).

Additionally, the subscales of the AMDV were correlated with one another among both boys and girls, with Pearson’s r correlations ranging from 0.49 to 0.68 ($p < 0.001$). As such, boys and girls who were accepting of one subtype of male violence against women were more likely to be accepting of the other subtypes as well (Price et al., 1999).

Similarly, Price et al. (1999) also assessed criterion validity, defined as the extent to which a measure correlates with another standard that is considered to measure the same concept (Newman, 2009), through a comparison of scores on the AMDV scale among those who had been abusive in dating relationship compared to those who had not and among those who had abusive peers and those who did not. It was found that, among both boys and girls, scores on the AMDV were significantly associated with prior use of violence against a dating partner with Pearson's r correlations ranging from 0.23 to 0.39 ($p < 0.001$) (Price et al., 1999). In particular, boys who had been psychologically abusive towards their dating partner had higher scores on all three subscales of the AMDV (physical, psychological, and sexual); boys who had been physically abusive towards a dating partner had higher scores on the physical and psychological subscales of the AMDV; and, boys who had been sexually abusive with a dating partner had higher scores on the psychological and sexual subscales of the AMDV ($p < 0.001$) (Price et al., 1999). Comparatively, girls who had been either psychologically or physically abusive toward a dating partner had higher scores on the psychological subscale of the AMDV ($p < 0.001$) (Price et al., 1999). Because so few female participants reported having been sexually coercive in a prior dating relationship, correlations between this characteristics and scores on the AMDV scale could not be assessed (Price et al., 1999). Furthermore, having physically or sexually abusive friends was associated with scores on the AMDV scale for boys although the Pearson's r correlations were low, ranging from 0.21 to 0.26 ($p < 0.001$) (Price et al., 1999). In particular, having physically abusive peers was associated with higher scores on the psychological subscale of the AMDV and having sexually abusive peers was associated with higher scores on both the psychological and sexual subscales of the AMDV ($p < 0.001$) (Price et al., 1999).

The AMDV also performs well on internal reliability, the extent to which components of the scale are measuring the same construct (Gray & Guppy, 2003; Newman, 2009). Cronbach's alpha is the statistical measure typically used to assess internal reliability or consistency for scales containing summated Likert-type measurements (Santos, 1999). Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges on a scale from 0 to 1, with coefficients at the higher end of the scale indicating a high degree of reliability. Traditionally, reliability measures of 0.7 or greater are deemed to be acceptable (Santos, 1999). As shown in Table 3.2, the AMDV measures can be said to be highly reliable, both during their initial validation by Price et al. (1999) and in this research project.

Measure/Scale	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
AMDV – Phys – Price et al., 1999	$\alpha = 0.83$
AMDV – Psyc - Price et al., 1999	$\alpha = 0.83$
AMDV – Sex - Price et al., 1999	$\alpha = 0.87$
AMDV – Phys – Current Study	$\alpha = 0.81$
AMDV – Psyc – Current Study	$\alpha = 0.84$
AMDV- Sex – Current Study	$\alpha = 0.87$

Table 3.2 Reliability Statistics for Attitudes towards Dating Violence Subscales, Price et al., 1999, pp. 358-359.

Predictor Variables

Gender-Related Constructs

The gender-related constructs included in this research study include rape myth acceptance, shared power in relationships, the acceptability of dating violence and the perceived seriousness of dating violence.

Rape Myth Acceptance

Research shows that men and women who endorse more traditional and rigid gender role expectations are less likely to show empathy for victims of sexual assault and more likely to attribute blame to victims (Murnen et al., 2002; Pavlou & Knowles, 2001). Lack of empathy and victim-blaming are well-established aspects of what has become known as rape myth acceptance. The nominal definition used for this construct in the current study mirrors that used by Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald (1999) in their construction of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS), which was used in this research study:

Rape myths are attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; as cited in Payne et al., 1999, p.29).

The IRMAS contains a total of 45 items organized into 7 subscales. In an effort to remain concise and reduce response burden, only one subscale was incorporated into the operational definition of this concept. In the initial development of the IRMAS, seven categories or themes of rape myths were identified: “she asked for it; it wasn’t really rape; he didn’t mean it; she wanted it; she lied; rape is a trivial event; and rape is a deviant event” (Payne et al., 1999, p.37). For the current research study, only the She Asked for It subscale was included as many items in the other subscales overlapped with items included in the Attitudes Towards Male Dating Violence scales (Price et al., 1999) and were, therefore, redundant and may have caused problems of multicollinearity during analysis. The She Asked for It subscale includes the following 8 items which are each rated on a 7-point Likert scale from (1) “strongly agree” to (7) “strongly disagree”:

- A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.

- When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble
- If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.
- If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it's her own fault if she is raped.
- A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.
- When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.
- A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.
- When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous.

Source: Payne et al., 1999, pp. 49-50

For the purposes of analysis, all rape myth acceptance items were reverse coded so that higher scores on the scale reflected a greater endorsement of rape myth acceptance among participants.

This measure was selected not only for its widespread use with similar study populations but also due to its strong psychometric properties. In order to assess construct validity, Payne et al. (1999) compared scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS) to variables that have been shown to be theoretically and empirically relevant to rape myth acceptance. In particular, relationships between the IRMAS and gender, sex-role stereotyping, sexism, adversarial sexual beliefs, hostility towards women, and the acceptance of violence were examined. Using a t-test to examine differences in means, it was found that men's mean scores on these variables exceeded those of women ($p < 0.001$). In addition, they found that scores on all other measures were correlated with scores on the IRMAS with Pearson r correlations ranging from 0.50 to 0.74 ($p < 0.001$). As such:

Individuals with higher scores on the IRMA and the IRMA-SF [short form] were also more likely to (1) hold more traditional sex role stereotypes, (2) endorse the notion that the relation of the sexes is adversarial in nature, (3) express hostile attitudes towards women, and (4) be relatively accepting of both interpersonal violence and violence more generally (Payne et al., 1999, p. 55).

Similarly, the She Asked for It Subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS-SA) also rated high on internal consistency, an indicator of reliability, both during its initial

validation ($\alpha=0.84$) and in the current study ($\alpha=0.86$).

Shared Power in Relationships

The nominal definition of the shared power in relationships variable is “beliefs about the appropriate role activities for men and women” (McHugh & Frieze, 1997, p.4). While all gender-related constructs included in this study touch on this to some degree, in order to provide a more complete conceptualization of shared power, the Power in Relationships subscale of the Gender Attitudes and Norms Within Heterosexual Relationships Scale (Harrison et al., 2006) was included. This subscale examines the extent to which respondents endorse the concept of shared power, or equality, between partners in intimate relationships (Harrison et al., 2006). It includes the following four items which are rated on a four-point Likert scale, with possible responses ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (4) “strongly agree”:

- Both partners should come to agreements together about what they want to do in a relationship.
- Both partners have a right to a say in making decisions in a relationship.
- It is a good thing that women now have more rights than ever before.
- No one partner should have more power than the other in a relationship.

Source: Harrison et al., 2006, p. 720

The Power in Relationships subscale was selected on the basis that it was developed specifically as a measure of masculinity with a similar population—men and women aged 18-24. This scale also showed high internal consistency both during its development by Harrison, O’Sullivan, Hoffman, Dolezal and Morrell (2006) ($\alpha=0.76$ for men and 0.7 for women) and in the current study ($\alpha=0.81$ for men and 0.74 for women).

Acceptability of Dating Violence

A key component in assessing students' tolerance of dating violence is a consideration of which behaviours they consider to be abusive and which they consider part of normal intimate relationships. This section of the questionnaire was modeled after VicHealth's 2006 Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey, which examined contemporary attitudes among residents of the state of Victoria in Australia (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). In the VicHealth questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they perceived a particular behaviour to be a form of domestic violence; possible responses ranged on an ordinal level continuum from "yes, always [a form of domestic violence]" to "no, never [a form of domestic violence]" (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). Early versions of the questionnaire for this project changed the term 'domestic violence' to 'dating violence'. However, reliability concerns regarding student comprehension and their subsequent ability to provide accurate responses to these questions led to further changes in the wording of this question. Instead of asking whether particular behaviours could be considered a form of dating violence, the questionnaire asks students whether or not they considered these behaviours to be acceptable. A total of eight behaviours were included in the original questionnaire, including slapping/pushing to cause harm, forced sexual intercourse, throwing/smashing objects to frighten/threaten, scare/control by threatening to hurt family/friends, yelling abuse, controlling one's social life by limiting contact with family/friends, criticizing to make one feel bad/useless, and controlling through denial of financial resources. However, only seven behaviours were included in the final version of the questionnaire as it was determined that the denial of financial resources items would not apply to the target population of undergraduate students. Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they considered each behaviour to be acceptable with possible response categories including

(1) always acceptable; (2) usually acceptable; (3) sometimes acceptable; (4) not at all acceptable; (5) don't know; and, (6) prefer not to answer (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). A scale was constructed in the current study which demonstrated high internal consistency ($\alpha=0.869$).

Seriousness of Dating Violence

Similarly, a subsequent section of the research questionnaire was modeled on a section of the VicHealth 2006 Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey that measured how serious they considered each of the domestic violence behaviours to be; possible responses ranged on an ordinal level continuum from “very serious” to “not at all serious” (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). As was the case with the acceptability items, denial of financial resources was excluded in the current study. A scale was constructed which demonstrated high internal consistency ($\alpha=0.916$).

Sociodemographic Variables

A variety of sociodemographic measures were included in the research questionnaire as there is evidence in the research literature to suggest that these variables may be important, net of the effects of gender-related constructs. These measures include biological sex, age, relationship status, field of study, student status, employment status, academic achievement and alcohol consumption.

1. Sex: This is a nominal-level variable with possible responses including (1) male; (2) female; (3) other, please specify; and, (4) prefer not to answer. During analysis, this variable was recoded so that all other and prefer not to answer responses were set to missing.

2. Age: This is a ratio-level variable in which respondents are asked to indicate their age in years.
3. Sexual Orientation: This is a nominal-level variable in which respondents are asked what they consider their sexual orientation to be. Possible responses include: (1) heterosexual or straight; (2) homosexual, gay, or lesbian; (3) bisexual; (4) other; and, (5) prefer not to answer. During analysis this variable was dichotomized into (1) heterosexual; and, (2) other, which included the homosexual, bisexual, and other response categories due to small counts. The prefer not to answer response category was set to missing.
4. Student Status: This is a nominal-level variable. Responses are dictated by the standards and regulations of the University of Ottawa in which students registered in 4 or more classes are considered full-time students; students registered in 3 classes or fewer are considered to be part-time students; and, students who are registered in undergraduate courses but who are not seeking an undergraduate degree, diploma or certificate are considered to be special students. Possible responses include (1) full-time student; (2) part-time student; (3) special student; (4) other; and, (5) don't know/prefer not to answer. During analysis, this variable was recoded into (1) full-time student (2) other which also included part-time and special students. The don't know/prefer not to answer category was set to missing.
5. Field of Study: This is a nominal-level variable in which respondents were asked to indicate their major(s) of study; they were encouraged to mark all departments that applied to them. Possible responses reflected each department within the Faculty of Social Sciences: (1) Anthropology and Sociology, (2) Conflict Studies and Human Rights; (3) Criminology; (4) Economics; (5) International Development and

Globalization; (6) Political Science; (7) Psychology; (8) Public Administration; (9) Social Work; (10) Sociology; (11) Women's Studies; (12) Other, please specify; and, (13) Don't know/Prefer not to answer. During analysis, this variable was recoded into (1) Criminology; (2) Psychology; (3) Anthropology or Sociology, (4) Other – Social Science; and, (5) Other – Outside Social Science. The don't know/prefer not to answer response category was set to missing.

6. Academic Achievement: This is an ordinal-level variable in which respondents were asked to indicate the highest grade they received on an assignment during the previous semester (Winter 2012). This was used as a proxy for the cumulative grade point average (CGPA) due to concerns that students may not know their CGPA, resulting in a large amount of missing data. Possible responses reflected the University of Ottawa's grade-point system: (1) A+ (100-90%); (2) A (85-89%); (3) A- (80-84%); (4) B+ (75-79%); (5) B (70-74%); (6) C+ (65-69%); (7) C (60-64); (8) D+ (55-59); (9) D (50-54); (10) E or F (49 percent or lower); (11) Not applicable; and, (12) Don't know/Prefer not to answer. During analysis, this variable was recoded into (1) high marks (A- to A+) and (2) low marks (B+ to E or F). The don't know/prefer not to answer response category was set to missing.
7. Relationship Status: This is a nominal-level variable in which respondents were asked to indicate which situation best describes their relationship status at the time of the questionnaire. Possible responses include (1) Single; (2) Dating, not cohabitating; (3) Dating, cohabitating; (4) Engaged, not cohabitating; (5) Engaged, cohabitating; (6) Married; (7) Separated; (8) Divorced; and, (9) Don't know/Prefer not to Answer. During the analysis, this variable was recoded into (1) single, (2) dating, and (3) other, which

included engaged and married respondents. The don't know/prefer not to answer response category was set to missing.

8. Employment Status: This is a nominal-level variable in which respondents were asked whether or not they were employed. Possible responses included: (1) Yes, I have a full-time job; (2) Yes, I have a part-time job; (3) No, I am not employed; and, (4) Don't Know/Prefer not to Answer. During the analysis, this variable was recoded into (1) employed and (2) not employed. The don't know/prefer not to answer response category was set missing.
9. Alcohol Consumption: This construct was modeled on a similar variable that was included in the International Violence Against Women Survey (Johnson et al., 2008). Research has shown that it is not the frequency of drinking that increases the risk of violence but, rather, problem or heavy drinking at a single occasion (Johnson et al, 2008). In their study, Johnson, Nevala & Ollus (2008) defined heavy or problem drinking as those who drink to the point of intoxication at least once per week and this same threshold is used in the current study. This is an ordinal-level variable in which respondents were asked to indicate on how many occasions during the previous 12 months they drank 5 drinks or more in a row, an indicator of intoxication. Possible responses included: (1) Never; (2) 1 to 2 days; (3) Once a month; (4) A few times a month; (5) Once a week; (6) A few times a week; (7) Daily; and, (8) Don't know/Prefer not to answer. During analysis, this variable was recoded into (1) Once per week or more and (2) Less than once per week. The don't know/prefer not to answer response category was set to missing.

Analytical Procedure

SPSS was used to statistically explore the relationship between gender-related constructs and the tolerance of dating violence. In order to identify the most salient predictors of the tolerance of dating violence, univariate statistics were examined and bivariate hypothesis tests were conducted. A series of linear regression models were then performed to determine which variables were relevant predictors of attitudes towards dating violence. A combined model examined the predictors of general attitudes towards dating violence regardless of subtype. Separate models were then conducted for each subtype of dating violence: psychological, physical and sexual. With the use of linear regression, it is possible to predict a ratio-level outcome variable from multiple predictor variables (Field, 2009). It further allows for an appreciation of the extent that each predictor variable influences the outcome variable, while holding the effect of all other predictor variables constant (Field, 2009). Finally, sequential linear regression models were conducted to examine the influence of each block of predictor variables. The blocks were first entered individually into the model in order to identify which blocks had the greatest influence on each of the four outcome variables. These results were then compared to the initial models where all blocks were entered into the regression model simultaneously to examine whether controlling for all possible risk factors increased scores on the outcome variable. This determines whether or not the risk factor identified in the research literature alone account for more tolerant attitudes towards dating violence or if this is the result of an external, as of yet unmeasured, factor.

Limitations of Measures

Measuring social phenomenon is a challenging and complex process and while this study used pre-validated measures in order to curb potential measurement error, the possibility of error

persists. It is possible that the following factors influenced respondents' abilities to answer questions honestly and accurately thus threatening the reliability of the measurements:

- Social Desirability: This refers to the “pervasive tendency of individuals to present themselves in the most favorable manner relative to prevailing social norms and mores” (King & Brunner, 2000, p.80) and has been identified as one of the most common sources of bias influencing the validity of survey research in the social sciences. In the current study, social desirability may not be the result of conscious lying or dishonesty on the part of respondents but, instead, more reflective of an over-sensitization to issues of dating and sexual violence in the media. As a result respondents may have been less likely to honestly disclose negative attitudes towards women or attitudes accepting of violence. A similar phenomenon was explored in a review of first- and second-generation measures of sexist and rape-supportive beliefs, conducted by Forbes et al. (2004). First-generation measures, developed in 1970s, make it difficult to differentiate between perceptions of women as inferior and general hostility towards women whereas second-generation measures, developed in the mid-1990s, make it possible to examine the unique contribution of both of these components to sexual coercion. Forbes et al. (2004) suggest that declining rates in sexist attitudes may not be the result of the gains of feminism; on the contrary, they suggest that it is possible these declines are more of a reflection of the unacceptability of expressing overtly sexist beliefs. As a result, it is possible that overtly sexist beliefs have been replaced by more subtle or covert forms of sexism (Benokraitis & Feagin, 1995; as cited in Forbes et al., 2004). Given this, scales and measures designed to assess overt forms of sexism may no longer accurately reflect the multidimensional

nature of attitudes tolerant of violence against women which poses concerns for the validity of such measures (Forbes et al., 2004).

- Homogeneity of Samples: Many of the scales included in the questionnaire were validated using undergraduate student samples which makes them appropriate for this research study but affects generalizability to other populations due to the culture- and time-bound nature of the data collected (Price et al., 1999).

Summary

This research study used an online questionnaire to assess the relationship between gender-related constructs and the tolerance of dating violence. Purposive sampling was used to recruit a total of 233 participants from the Criminology, Psychology, and Anthropology and Sociology departments. This chapter explored the advantages and disadvantages of using an online methodology as well as the selection process for each construct included in the online questionnaire and the potential limitations of the measures selected. The next chapter will describe the univariate characteristics of all variables, as well as the results of bivariate and multivariate statistical testing.

Chapter 4: Analysis and Results

This chapter examines how gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, shared power in relationships, the acceptability and the perceived seriousness of violence) are associated with the tolerance of dating violence. In order to do so, this chapter first examines the univariate characteristics of each predictor variables and describes the results of bivariate hypothesis testing. Finally, significant predictor variables were entered into four linear regression models: a combined general attitudes model and three separate models corresponding to each subtype of violence (psychological, physical and sexual). The chapter concludes with a summary of results.

General Findings

This section describes the univariate characteristics of each variable included in the present study. Frequency distributions and bivariate analyses are contained in Tables 4.1, 4.2, and 4.4 in Appendix A.

Univariate Analysis of Dependent Variables

General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence

Of the 233 valid responses obtained, scores on the General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence (AMDV-Gen) scale varied in a way that does not approximate a normal distribution. As can be seen from Table 4.2 and Figure 4.6, there is a strong positive skew (skew = 2.92) with extreme scores pulling the distribution to the right. This was also confirmed by a 95% confidence interval of skew (95% C.I. Skew = 2.608 to 3.232). The mean score of this distribution was 58.97, with a standard deviation of 18, which indicates a high level of dispersion around the mean. Given the high degree of skewness and the heterogeneity of the distribution, there is evidence that the mean may not be the most accurate representation of the data. In order to correct for the skew, this distribution was transformed using a log data transformation which

takes the logarithm of each data point, thereby correcting strong positive skew (Field, 2009) and was selected over other possible transformations¹ as it was the transformation that had the greatest effect on the skewed variables. As can be seen from Table 4.2 and Figure 4.6, this helped to correct the skew and the distribution now more closely approximates a normal distribution with a skewness statistic of 1.193. A 95% confidence interval of skew indicates that the distribution continues to be slightly positively skewed (95% C.I. Skew = 0.881 to 1.505). However, a skew statistic of 1.193 brings this variable closer to the assumptions of normality necessary for parametric statistical testing².

Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence

Of the 233 valid responses, scores on the Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence (AMDV-Psyc) scale were varied in a way that does not approximate a normal distribution. As can be seen from Table 4.2, there is a slight positive skew (skew = 1.469) with extreme scores pulling the distribution to the right (95% C.I. Skew = 1.184 to 1.808). However, a skew statistic of 1.496 is close to the assumptions of normality necessary for most parametric statistical testing.

Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence

Of the 233 valid responses, scores on the Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence (AMDV-Phys) scale did not follow a normal distribution and were clustered toward the lower end of the scale; however, more extreme scores pull the distribution to the right. As can be

¹ A number of methods were examined in order to correct highly skewed data. First, the data was truncated, removing all outliers as identified using stem-and-leaf plots. However, given the high number of ratio-level variables included in this analysis, removing all outliers resulted in a reduction in sample size of almost 100 cases. Secondly, square root and reciprocal data transformations were also examined but these transformations did not bring the skew within an acceptable range for parametric statistical testing.

² While there is no precise rule regarding what degree of skew is acceptable, West, Finch and Curran (1995) claim that distributions depart substantially from normality when they exceed a skewness of ± 2 and a kurtosis of ± 7 (p.74).

seen from Table 4.2 and Figure 4.8, there is a positive skew (skew = 3.419). In order to correct this, a logarithm transformation was performed and this helped to correct the skew and the distribution now more closely approximates a normal distribution with a skewness statistic of 1.854 which brings this variable closer to the assumptions of normality required for most parametric tests.

Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence

Of the 233 valid responses obtained, scores on the Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence (AMDV-Sex) scale did not follow a normal distribution and were clustered toward the lower end of the scale; however, more extreme scores pulled the distribution to the right. As can be seen from Table 4.2 and Figure 4.9, there is a positive skew (skew = 2.952). To correct this, a logarithm transformation was performed which corrected the positive skew and the distribution now more closely approximates a normal distribution with a skewness statistic of 1.437 which brings this variable closer to the assumptions of normality required for most parametric tests.

Univariate Analysis of Predictor Variables

1. Sociodemographic Characteristics: Table 4.1 summarizes the frequencies of the sociodemographic variables included in this analysis.
 - Sex: Of the 232 valid responses, 197 (84.9%) of respondents were female and 35 (15.1%) of respondents were male.
 - Age: Of the 233 valid responses, scores on the age variable did not reflect a normal distribution. As can be seen from Table 4.2 and Figure 4.5, there is a slight positive skew (skew = 1.593) with extreme scores pulling the distribution to the right. The mean score of this distribution was 19.75, with a mode of 18 and a median of 19. Additionally, a standard deviation of 2.157 indicates some

dispersion around the mean. However, a skew statistic of 1.593 is close to the assumptions of normality necessary for most parametric statistical testing.

- Sexual Orientation: Of the 231 valid responses, 193 (83.5%) of respondents identified as heterosexual and 38 (16.5%) were classified as other which also includes homosexual and bisexual.
- Student Status: Of the 233 valid responses, 216 (92.7%) of respondents were full-time students and 17 (7.3%) were classified as other which also included part-time and special students.
- Field of Study: Of the 214 valid responses, 79 (36.9%) identified Criminology, 36 (16.8%) identified Psychology and 23 (10.7%) identified Anthropology or Sociology as their field of study. Additionally, 38 (17.8%) identified another department within the Faculty of Social Science and 38 (17.8%) identified a department outside the Faculty of Social Science.
- Highest Mark Last Semester: Of the 191 valid responses, 156 (81.7%) reported they received high marks (A- to A+), 35 (18.3%) indicated that they received low marks (B+ to E or F) in the semester preceding the survey (Winter 2013).
- Relationship Status: Of the 231 valid responses obtained, 104 (45%) of respondents were single (not dating, engaged, cohabitating or married), 109 (47.5%) were dating and 8 (3.5%) were classified as other which included those who were engaged or married.
- Employment Status: Of the 231 valid responses, 116 (50.2%) of respondents were employed (full- or part-time) and 115 (49.8%) were not employed.

- Alcohol consumption: Of the 230 valid responses, 37 (16.1%) of respondents drank five drinks or more at least once per week in the past 12 months and 193 (83.9%) did not.
2. Gender-related Constructs: Tables 4.1 and 4.2 provides a summary of the frequencies of each gender-related measure included in this research project. All measures represent questions included in the research questionnaire; however overall response rates varied by question.
- Rape Myth Acceptance Scale: Of the 217 valid responses obtained, scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, She Asked for it Subscale (IRMAS-SA) did not reflect a normal distribution (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1). There is a slight positive skew ($\text{skew} = 1.197$) with extreme scores pulling the distribution to the right. The mean score of this distribution was 16.85, with a standard deviation of 8.94, which indicates a high level of dispersion around the mean. However, a skew statistic of 1.197 is close to the assumptions of normality required for most parametric statistical testing.
 - Shared Power in Relationships: Of the 233 valid responses obtained, scores did not reflect a normal distribution (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2). There is a large negative skew ($\text{skew} = -4.365$) with extreme scores pulling the distribution to the left. A very large percentage of all responses (74%) are in one category, resulting in very little variation. This violates the principles and assumptions necessary for parametric statistical testing and, therefore, this variable was dichotomized and treated as non-parametric. Specifically, this variable was dichotomized at the median (16). As such, those who do not endorse shared power in relationships

scored from 0-15 and those who do endorse shared power in relationships scored 16 on the Power in Relationships Scale. Those who scored 16 represent respondents who strongly agreed (4) with each of the four equality-related statements. Of the 233 valid responses obtained, 168 participants (74%) endorsed shared power in intimate relationships whereas 59 (25%) did not.

- Acceptability of Dating Violence: Of the 225 valid responses obtained, there is a large positive skew (skew = 7.754) on this variable (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.3). A very large percentage of all responses (92.4%) are in two categories, resulting in very little variation. This variable was dichotomized at the median (8) and treated as non-parametric data. As such, those who believe dating violence is unacceptable scored from 7 and those who believe that it is acceptable scored 8 or higher on the Acceptability of Dating Violence Scale. Those who scored 7 or below on this scale represent participants who responded “Not at all Acceptable” (1) to all seven of the behaviours presented. 72 participants (32%) of participants reported that dating violence is not acceptable whereas 153 (68%) reported that it is acceptable to some extent.
- Seriousness of Dating Violence: Of the 225 valid responses obtained, there is a large negative skew (skew = -3.23) with extreme scores pulling the distribution to the left (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.4). The mean score of this distribution was 24.92, with a standard deviation of 3.96. In order to correct for the skew, the distribution was transformed using a log data transformation after it was reflected, in which each score is subtract from the highest score + 1, thereby reversing the scores (Field, 2009). Once the transformation was complete, the variable was reflected

back to restore the original ordering of the variable. As can be seen from Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2, this helped to correct the negative skew. The distribution now more closely approximates a normal distribution with a skewness statistic of -0.475.

Sex Differences

In order to situate the current study within the academic literature, sex differences among the gender-related predictor variables were examined (Table 4.3). For the purposes of this analysis, due to low cell counts and only 35 male respondents, all response categories for the predictor variables were dichotomized.

- Rape Myth Acceptance: As illustrated in Table 4.3, sex differences appear to exist when examining individual items of the She Asked for It subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS-SA). For instance, while 30.6% of women at least somewhat agreed with the statement “when a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble,” as many as 56.3% of men at least somewhat agreed with this statement. In order to further explore this, bivariate crosstabs were conducted examining the relationship between sex and each item on the IRMAS-SA. As can be seen from Table 4.3, results from this analysis show that while there does appear to be a significant difference in attitudes on some items, the strength of these relationships are negligible at best, with phi (Φ) values ranging from 0.138 to 0.198. This is further confirmed by the proportional reduction error values, as indicated by phi² (Φ^2), ranging from 0.019 to 0.039 indicating that sex accounts for approximately 1.9% to 3.9% of the variance in responses on individual rape myth acceptance items. Similar results were observed when examining the IRMAS-SA scale as a whole. That is, differences in means can be

observed between males (20.94) and females (16.15) which suggest that, on average, men are more likely to endorse rape myths than their female counterparts. However, when a means test is used to statistically examine this relationship, results show that with an eta value of 0.193, this relationship can be described as negligible at best. This is further confirmed by an η^2 value of 0.037, indicating that sex only accounts for 3.7% of the variance in scores on the IRMAS-SA scale.

- Shared Power in Relationships: As illustrated in Table 4.3, sex differences do not exist when examining individual items of the Shared Power in Relationships Scale. That is, the percentages of male and female respondents who endorse each shared power items are very similar, with the exception of whether or not “it is a good thing women have more rights now than ever before” with 84.4% of women but only 74.3% of male respondents endorsing this statement. In order to further explore this, bivariate crosstabs were conducted examining the relationship between sex and each item on the Shared Power in Relationships Scale. As can be seen from Table 4.3, results from this analysis confirm the original hypothesis and sex difference do not appear to exist. That is, with phi (Φ) values ranging from 0.04 to 0.097, the relationship between these two variables is almost non-existent. This is further confirmed by ϕ^2 (Φ^2), which ranges from 0 to 0.009 indicating that sex accounts for approximately 0% to 0.9% of the variance in responses on individual shared power in relationships items.
- Acceptability of Dating Violence: Similar to attitudes towards shared power in relationships, there were minimal sex differences in terms of the acceptability of dating violence, as demonstrated in Table 4.3. With phi (Φ) values ranging from 0.044 to 0.106, the relationship between these two variables is almost non-existent. This is further

confirmed by ϕ^2 (Φ^2), which ranges from 0.002 to 0.011 indicating that sex accounts for approximately 0.2% to 1.1% of the variance in responses on individual acceptability items. The one exception to this was whether or not throwing objects at one's partner is acceptable with 98.5% of female respondents reporting that this behaviour is unacceptable compared to 94.1% of male respondents; however, this relationship is negligible with a ϕ (Φ) value of 0.159, with sex accounting for 2.5% of the variance in whether or not respondents viewed throwing objects at one's partner as unacceptable.

- Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence: As illustrated in Table 4.3, sex differences appear to exist when examining individual items of the Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale. For instance, while 93.9% of women agreed that scaring one's partner is very serious, only 76.5% of men agreed that this was very serious. Bivariate analysis shows that while there does appear to be a difference in attitudes on some items, the strength of these relationships are negligible at best, with ϕ (Φ) values ranging from 0.011 to 0.143 and ϕ^2 (Φ^2) ranging from 0 to 0.02 on individual seriousness items. This is further confirmed when examining the Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale as a whole. That is, while differences in means can be observed between males (23.24) and females (25.21) which suggest that, on average, men rate dating violence less seriously than their female counterparts, these differences were non-significant.

Hypothesis Testing

This section identifies the most important predictors of the tolerance of dating violence. First, the results of bivariate hypothesis testing and multivariate linear regression analysis will be explored. Second, sequential linear regression models are conducted in order to examine the contribution of each block of predictor variables.

In total, 27 predictor variables were included in the initial analysis:

- Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance, She Asked for it Subscale (IRMAS_SA)
- Power in Relationships (Power_scale2)
- Acceptability of Dating Violence (Acceptscale2)
- Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale (Seriousscale_Lg10_2)
- Sex (sex)
- Age (age)
- Sexual orientation
 - Heterosexual (heterosexual)
 - Other (sexuality_other)
- Student status
 - Full-time student (fulltime_student)
 - Other Student (other_student)
- Field of study
 - Criminology (criminology)
 - Psychology (psychology)
 - Anthropology or Sociology (anthrosocio)
 - Other Department - Social Science (other_socsci)
 - Other Department – Outside Social Science (other_nonsocsci)
- Academic Achievement
 - High Marks (high_marks)
 - Low marks (low_marks)
- Relationship Status
 - Single (single)
 - Dating (dating)
 - Other (relationship_other)
- Employment status
 - Employed (employed)
 - Unemployed (not_employed)
- Current relationship status

- Single (single)
- Dating (dating)
- Other relationship status (relationship_other)
- Drinking – How many days in a row respondents drank 5 drinks in a row or more (in the past 12 months)
 - Once per week or more (drink_heavily)

Table 4.4 summarizes the results of bivariate hypothesis testing between attitudes towards each form of dating violence (general, psychological, physical and sexual) and each of the predictor variables. Eta and η^2 were used in cases where an independent samples t-test was conducted whereas r and r^2 were used when correlations were performed. Variables found to be non-significant³ were not included in the linear regression models. Final regression models included a total of 7 predictor variables.

General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence

Bivariate Hypothesis Testing

As shown in Table 4.4, the bivariate relationship between the outcome variable and many of the predictor variables was weak. In particular, the majority of the sociodemographic variables were found to be non-significant with the exception of sex and being single. For instance, Table 4.4 demonstrates that the relationship between being single and general attitudes towards male dating violence was negligible with an eta value of 0.134 and η^2 of 0.018 which indicates that being single accounts for only 1.8% of the variance in scores on the General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence Scale. The strongest sociodemographic predictor variable was sex.

³ The use of inferential statistics with non-random data is highly contested among statisticians. However, the Manitoba Center for Health Policy (2001) argues that inferential statistics are appropriate for population data as the population can be understood as sample of a larger, super-population composed of “all individuals from all areas, similar in key characteristics [...] and thus the inference made is applicable to all those who see themselves being included in that super-population, thereby extending the scope of generalizability of the findings” (p.1)

However, with an eta value of 0.309, the effect size of this relationship is weak. An η^2 value of 0.096 indicates that sex only accounts for 9.6% of the variance in scores on the General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence Scale. Conversely, predictor variables with a strong theoretical foundation appear to yield more explanatory power than the sociodemographic predictor variables. As shown in Table 4.4, all of these predictor variables have an effect size of 0.26 or better. Attitudes towards acceptability of dating violence accounts for 7.1% of the variance in general attitudes towards male dating violence and the She Asked for It subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale accounts for 42.1% of the variance.

Multivariate Analysis

Linear regression analysis was used to identify the most salient predictors of general attitudes towards dating violence. Variables were entered into three different blocks in a hierarchical manner in which the researcher decides on the order of entry based on past research (Fields, 2009). In this case, variables were entered into the model according to the results of bivariate testing: sociodemographic variables (being single and being heterosexual) were entered first, followed by sex and then gender-related constructs (rape myth acceptance, power in relationships, the acceptability and seriousness of dating violence). By entering the sociodemographic variables first, one can determine if their relationship to the outcome variables hold when the stronger theoretically based constructs are entered into the model.

Overall, with an adjusted R squared of 0.529, 52.9% of the variance in scores on the General Attitudes towards Male Dating Violence was accounted for by this model ($F=33.064$, $p<0.05$). Table 4.5 summarizes the coefficients of the regression model for each variable holding constant the influence of all other predictor variables. The most important predictor variable of attitudes towards dating violence was scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, She

Asked for it Subscale (IRMAS-SA). The standardized Beta for the IRMAS-SA was 0.465 indicating that a one standard deviation change in scores on this scale leads to an increase in scores on the General Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence of 0.465 standard deviations while holding constant the effects of other variables in the model. Other variables that predicted Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence included:

- Endorsing shared power in relationships (negative direction)
- Acceptability of dating violence
- Perceived seriousness of dating violence (negative direction)
- Sex (male)

The remaining variables were non-significant once the effects of others in the model were partialled out.

Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence

Through an examination of attitudes towards the different subtypes of dating violence (e.g. psychological, physical and sexual dating violence), we can observe trends and differences unique to each subtype of violence.

Bivariate Hypothesis Testing

As can be seen from Table 4.4, the relationship between the outcome variable and many of the predictor variables was non-significant. In particular, all of the sociodemographic variables were found to be non-significant with the exception of sex and being single. However these relationships were weak with eta values of 0.317 and 0.154 and η^2 values of 0.1 and 0.018 accounting for 10% and 1.8% of the variance in scores on the Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence Scale, respectively.

Predictor variables with a strong theoretical foundation were all found to be significant predictors of the outcome variable and had effect sizes of 0.3 or better. Attitudes towards the acceptability of dating violence accounts for 9.7% of the variance in attitudes towards male psychological dating violence, and the She Asked for It subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale accounts for 33.6% of the variance.

Multivariate Analysis

Variables were entered into a linear regression model in the same three different blocks as in the previous model: first sociodemographic variables, followed by sex, and the gender-related constructs. Based on an adjusted R squared, 49.6% of the variance in scores on the Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence was accounted for by the variables in this model ($F=29.173$, $p<0.05$). Table 4.5 summarizes the coefficients of the regression model for each variable holding constant the influence of all other predictor variables. The most important predictor variable of attitudes towards psychological dating violence was scores on the IRMAS-SA with a standardized Beta of 0.371. Other variables that predicted Attitudes towards Male Psychological Dating Violence included:

- Acceptability of dating violence
- Perceived seriousness of dating violence (negative direction)
- Sex (male)

The remaining variables were non-significant once the effects of others in the model were partialled out.

Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence

Bivariate Hypothesis Testing

Sex accounts for only 5.1% of the variance in scores on the Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence Scale and, as such, does not have a great deal of predictive power. Attitudes towards the acceptability of dating violence accounts for 17.6% of the variance and the She Asked for It subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS-SA) accounts for 32.7% of the variance.

Multivariate Analysis

37.2% of the variance in scores on the Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence Scale was accounted for by this model ($F=17.95$, $p<0.05$). The most important predictor variable of attitudes towards physical dating violence was scores on the IRMAS-SA with a standardized Beta of 0.458. Other variables that predicted Attitudes towards Male Physical Dating Violence included:

- Perceived seriousness of dating violence (negative direction)
- Being heterosexual (negative direction)

Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence

Bivariate Hypothesis Testing

Sex accounts for 6.6% of the variance in scores on the Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence Scale and, as such, does not have a great deal of predictive power. The perceived seriousness of dating violence accounts for 23.2% of the variance and the She Asked for It subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS-SA) accounts for 39.8% of the variance.

Multivariate Analysis

40.5% of the variance in scores on the Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence Scale was accounted for by this model ($F=20.479$, $p<0.05$). The most important predictor variable of attitudes towards sexual dating violence was scores on the IRMAS-SA with a standardized Beta of 0.449. Other variables that predicted Attitudes towards Male Sexual Dating Violence included:

- Perceived seriousness of dating violence (negative direction)
- Sex (male)

Sequential Linear Regression Models

Table 4.6 presents the results from the sequential linear regression analysis where each block is entered individually and the standardized coefficients are reported for each predictor variable as well as the variance explained by each block in the model. The overall adjusted R squared for the final models were 0.529 for general attitudes towards dating violence, 0.496 for attitudes towards psychological violence, 0.372 for attitudes towards physical violence, and 0.405 for attitudes towards sexual violence. When block 1, which represents the sociodemographic variables, being single is only a significant predictor for attitudes towards physical violence with an adjusted R square of 0.017 and a Beta of -0.145. Similarly, being heterosexual is only a significant predictor for general attitudes towards dating violence and attitudes towards psychological dating violence with an R square of 0.009 and 0.016 and Betas of -0.135 and -0.155, respectively. When entered into the full model, being single is no longer a significant predictor of any of the outcome variables and being heterosexual only remains significant for attitudes towards physical dating violence with a Beta of -0.258. When the second block, which represents sex, is entered, it is a significant predictor of each outcome

variable, with an adjusted R squared of 0.092 for general attitudes towards dating violence, 0.108 for attitudes towards psychological dating violence, 0.047 for attitudes towards physical dating and 0.062 for attitudes towards sexual violence, with Betas ranging from 0.226 to 0.335. When entered into the full model, it remains significant for all outcome variables with the exception of attitudes towards physical dating violence, with Betas ranging from 0.154 to 0.244.

When the third block, which represents the gender-related constructs, is entered individually, it accounts for a significant portion of the variance for each outcome variable with an adjusted R square of 0.517 for generally attitudes towards dating violence, 0.469 for attitudes towards psychological dating violence, 0.355 for attitudes towards physical dating violence, and 0.423 for attitudes towards sexual dating violence. Rape myth acceptance a significant predictor of all outcome variables with Betas ranging from 0.420 to 0.509; shared power in relationships is a significant predictor only for general attitudes towards dating violence and attitudes towards sexual dating violence with Betas of -0.109 and -0.124, respectively; the acceptability of dating violence is a significant predictor only of general attitudes towards dating violence and attitudes towards psychological violence with Betas of 0.126 and 0.163, respectively; and, the perceived seriousness of dating violence is a significant predictor of all outcome variables with Betas ranging from -0.198 to -0.309. When entered into the full model, rape myth acceptance remains a significant predictor of all outcome variables with Betas ranging from 0.371 to 0.465; shared power in relationships remains significant for general attitudes towards dating violence and attitudes towards sexual dating violence with Betas of -0.116 and -0.137, respectively; the acceptability of dating violence only remains significant for attitudes towards psychological dating violence with a Beta of 0.190; and, the perceived seriousness of dating violence remains significant for all outcome variables with Betas ranging from -0.182 to -0.288.

The sequential linear regression models indicate that the gender-related constructs (block 3) had the greatest influence on each of the outcome variables. Additionally, the differences in adjusted R squared statistics between the sequential and the full models suggest that a great deal more variance is explained by the overall model than by the individual blocks of predictors. This indicates that the risk factors identified in the research literature do indeed account for some of the variation in tolerance towards dating violence. However, given that not all variance is accounted by the predictor variables included in the model, other unmeasured factors also exert influence on the outcome variables.

The Influence of Missing Cases

A major challenge in conducting survey research is attrition and survey drop-out and, consequently, the influence of missing data must be considered. In the current study, a total of 70 cases (23.1% of the total sample) were missing on at least one of the outcome variables. These cases were eliminated from the final analysis. However, it is important to determine, ad hoc, the potential effect of this missingness. and if the data are missing completely at random (MCAR) or if there is a systematic pattern that can be observed within the missing data. This was assessed for each outcome variable using Little's MCAR test. Participants missing on the tolerance of psychological and sexual violence scales were missing completely at random (X^2 247.19, df 272, $p > 0.05$; X^2 75.56, df 105, $p > 0.05$) and therefore, do not follow a particular pattern of non-response. However, the 29 participants (9.6% of the total sample) that were missing on the attitudes towards physical dating violence were not found to be missing completely at random and, therefore, further analysis of this subset of cases was warranted.

In order to identify potential patterns within these cases, univariate and bivariate analyses were conducted. Among the 29 cases that were eliminated, participants were more likely: to be male, to be heterosexual, to be criminology students, to have high marks, to be engaged or married, to be employed and less likely to be heavy drinkers (Table 4.7). In terms of the gender-related constructs, the eliminated missing cases were very similar to those included in the analysis (Tables 4.7 and 4.8). Similarly, as can be seen from Table 4.9, very few significant bivariate associations were found. Additionally, a valid/missing attitudes towards physical dating violence was also created and entered into linear regression models for both attitudes towards psychological and sexual dating violence. As can be seen from the results in Table 4.10, whether or not participants were missing on the tolerance of physical dating violence measure was not a significant predictor of scores on the other two outcome variables. As such, there is no evidence to suggest that the missing cases that were eliminated from the analysis are statistically different from the cases included in the final analysis.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon that occurs when there exists a strong degree of correlation between two or more predictor variables in a regression model (Field, 2009). This poses a problem in multiple regression analysis because when two predictor variables are correlated, it is impossible to ascertain the influence of each individual predictor variable on the outcome variable as correlated predictors essentially provide the same information, leading to problems with estimation because an infinite number of combinations of coefficients is possible (Field, 2009). In order to meet the assumption of no multicollinearity, tests for collinearity were conducted in SPSS by examining the variance inflation factor (VIF) and the tolerance statistic,

which is the VIF's reciprocal. The VIF and the tolerance statistic indicate whether a predictor variable has a strong linear relationship with other predictor variables included in the model (Field, 2009). VIF statistics exceeding 2.5 indicate that issues of multicollinearity may be biasing the regression model (Allison, 1999). Similarly, tolerance statistics below 0.4 indicate a serious problem with multicollinearity. In the current study, the highest VIF is 1.338 which is well below the 2.5 threshold and there were no tolerance statistics below 0.4. As such, multicollinearity should not be biasing the regression models included in this study.

Summary

The linear regression models revealed gender-related factors, specifically rape myth acceptance and the perceived seriousness of dating violence, to be significant predictors of all outcome variables. Rape myth acceptance emerged as the strongest predictor variable. As expected, certain variables emerged as protective factors, such as the perceived seriousness of dating violence. Endorsing shared power in relationships was a protective factor only for general attitudes towards dating violence. Similarly, the acceptability of violence led to more tolerant attitudes towards dating violence in general and male psychological dating violence only. Sex proved to be the only significant sociodemographic predictor of general attitudes towards dating violence as well as attitudes towards psychological and sexual violence. Similarly, being heterosexual was the only significant sociodemographic predictor of attitudes towards physical dating violence, serving a protective function. The following chapter will discuss the contribution of these results to this field of study and suggest directions for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This research project examined predictors of the tolerance of dating violence in general as well as towards three subtypes of dating violence (e.g. psychological, physical and sexual). Specifically, this project examined: the relationship between gender-related constructs (e.g. rape myth acceptance, shared power in relationships and the acceptability and perceived seriousness of dating violence) and the tolerance of different forms of dating violence; and, the extent to which sociodemographic characteristics (e.g. sex, age, relationship status, etc.) are important net of the effects of gender-related constructs. The goal was to explore the role played by gender-related constructs, as indicators of the performance of masculinity, in the tolerance of dating violence.

Gender-Related Constructs

Rape Myth Acceptance

In this study, rape myth acceptance was identified as the most important predictor of the tolerance of dating violence even when sex and other sociodemographic variables were controlled. Previous research has emphasized the prevalence of rape myths and their importance in understanding attitudes towards sexual violence; for instance, VicHealth (2009) found that as many as 25% of participants believed that women make false statements about rape and 38% believed that rape occurs due to men's uncontrollable sexual desires. The results of the current study mirror these findings with 31.1% of respondents at least somewhat agreeing with the statement "when a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble." This was also found to be stratified by sex with 56.3% of males at least somewhat agreeing with this statement compared to only 30.6% of females.

Consistent with prior findings, participants were less likely to endorse statements that claimed victims were “asking for it” or “deserved” what happened to them but, instead were more likely to endorse statements justifying the actions of perpetrators (Flood, 2010). For instance, only 7.4% of respondents at least somewhat agreed with the statement “if a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control” compared to 18.1% of respondents who at least somewhat agreed with the statement “a woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex” (IRMAS-SA, Payne et al., 1999). Further, this is stratified by sex with only 6.2% of women and 15.6% of men at least somewhat agreeing with the former statement compared to 18.5% of women and 25% of men at least somewhat agreeing with the latter statement. This is also consistent with previous literature that argues that while men are more likely to endorse rape myths, women also believe them (Cowan, 2000). This may offer support for the finding that rape myths may serve different gender-related purposes for men and women (Bohner et al., 2009). In particular, they argue that while rape myths may allow men to rationalize their own sexually aggressive tendencies, the endorsement of rape myths may determine whether or not women include the threat of rape as part of their self-concept (Bohner et al., 2009). That is, women who do not endorse rape myths may perceive rape as a threat to all women, including themselves; women who endorse rape myths, by contrast, may perceive rape as a threat to particular types of women only (e.g. those who behave in ways that provoke rape) who are fundamentally different from themselves (Bohner et al., 2009). This necessarily conditions how they respond not only to their own victimization but to the victimization of other women, including family members and friends (Flood & Pease, 2009).

These results also lend support to previous research conducted by Bohner et al. (1998) in which parallels are drawn between the function of rape myths and the function of techniques of neutralization (Sykes & Matza, 1957) used to explain other socially deviant behaviour. That is, the endorsement of rape myths that justify the actions of perpetrators allow men to distance themselves and not perceive their own attitudes or behaviours are sexually coercive (Bohner, 2009). It is also possible that this difference also supports what Gerger, Kley, Bohner and Siebler (2007) identify as the problematic features of classic rape myth acceptance scales. In particular, this may reflect two possible situations: (1) where participants are now more aware of explicit rape myths and, therefore are more able to provide socially acceptable responses; or (2) that there has been a shift in the content of modern rape myths. In the case of the current study, it is difficult to differentiate between these two factors as only one subscale of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale was used. Had the entire 45-item measure been used, it might have been possible further explore the differences between rape myths that directly blame the victim and those that simply justify the actions of the perpetrator. Further research is needed to test this assertion.

Similarly, research has also found that respondents, specifically men, who endorse rape myths are also more likely to be sexually aggressive (Bohner et al., 2006; Longsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; 1995). While the current study did not assess direct experiences with violence, results show rape myth acceptance to be the strongest predictor of both general and subtype-specific attitudes towards dating violence. While this does not imply that those who endorse rape myths will necessarily be violent in their intimate relationships, it does lend support to the link between rape myth acceptance and the tolerance of violence which, in turn, may be related to the direct perpetration of violence.

Shared Power in Relationships

In the academic literature, belief in gender equality, operationalized in this study as the endorsement of shared power, has been consistently shown to serve a protective function against both attitudes towards and the perpetration of dating violence. Taylor and Mouzos (2006), for instance, found that gender equality was the strongest predictor of whether or not respondents viewed aggressive behaviours as “always a form of domestic violence.” While shared power in relationships was found to perform well as a predictor of all outcome variables at the bivariate level, when entered into the regression models, its predictive power was inconsistent. That is, the results showed that respondents who endorsed shared power in relationships reported lower tolerance levels only on the combined dating violence and the sexual dating violence variables but was non-significant when the other subtype-specific models were examined. Contrary to what was indicated in the research literature, endorsing statements such as “it is a good thing that women have more rights now than ever before” had no great effect on attitudes towards psychological or physical dating violence. This calls into question the assertion that discrepancies in attitudes towards power in relationships, which are reinforced by broader social and cultural factors, lead to the tolerance of violence against women.

However, an alternate explanation of the inconsistency of this relationship may relate to issues with the validity of the measurement and the specificity of the questions included in the scale. While this study utilized pre-validated measures to ensure high validity and reliability, Forbes et al. (2004) make a compelling argument regarding measures of overt versus covert forms of sexism. In their review of measures of sexism and rape myth acceptance, they argue that declining rates of sexism may not be the result of the gains of feminism but, instead, the results of social desirability bias. That is, this decline in sexist beliefs may be associated not with

an observable reduction in sexist beliefs, but rather the unacceptability of expressing overtly negative attitudes towards women. This is especially true now when sexual assault and the role of rape culture are featured so prominently in the media and on university campuses. As such, it is possible that the shared power measure used in this study evaluated more overt forms of sexism, measured by statements such as “both partners have a right to a say in making decisions in a relationship,” and did not measure underlying, covert negative attitudes towards women or struggles for power in relationships. As such, the lack of a relationship between endorsing shared power in relationships and the tolerance of dating violence may be due, at least in part, to a measure that fails to capture the multidimensionality of sexism.

Acceptability of Dating Violence

Prior studies examining the acceptability of dating violence have found that while the majority of respondents perceived physical forms of violence as unacceptable, they were more tolerant of non-physical or psychological forms of abuse (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). The results of the current study support this finding with as many as 97.8% of respondents indicating that it is not at all acceptable to slap or push one’s partner to cause harm or fear but only 32.2% indicating that yelling at one’s partner is not at all acceptable. Almost all women and men in this study agree that slapping one’s partner is not at all acceptable but only 31.4% of women indicated that yelling is unacceptable compared to 47.1% of men. This is inconsistent with the research literature which demonstrates that men are more likely to be tolerant of non-physical forms of violence (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). However, the inconsistency between this study and previous findings may reflect the very low number of men in this sample (women = 247; men = 35).

Similarly, the acceptability of dating violence measure was found to have an inconsistent relationship to the tolerance of dating violence. Perceiving dating violence as acceptable was related to the overall tolerance of dating variable and the tolerance of psychological dating violence but had no great effect on the tolerance of physical or sexual dating violence. It is possible that dichotomizing the acceptability scale into “yes” and “no” categories resulted in a loss of variability which rendered the categories too similar to yield much predictive power. It is also possible that dichotomizing at the 10th or 20th percentile may have yielded different results. This is consistent with attitudinal research which has found that general attitudes seldom effectively predict specific behaviours (Myers & Spencer, 2004), which may also apply to the prediction of attitudes. Additionally, the inconsistency of this relationship could, again, be due to a social desirability bias. Given that this was an exploratory study with a sample size of only 233 participants, a larger sample may yield more predictive value.

Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence

The perceived seriousness of dating violence was found to be the second strongest gender-related predictor of all four outcome variables both at the bivariate level and when entered into the regression models. The perceived seriousness of dating violence served a protective function, with respondents who rated dating violence more seriously scoring lower on all outcome variables. As with the acceptability of dating violence, previous studies have often found that men rate violent behaviours less seriously than women (Carlson & Worden, 2005). In the current study, there was a small difference in mean scores between men and women on the Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale suggesting that men, on average, rated dating violence as less serious than their female counterparts.

Similarly, as with the acceptability of dating violence measure, previous studies have found that while respondents often identify physical forms of abuse as “very serious,” they are less likely to perceive psychological or verbal forms of abuse as serious (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). These findings were echoed by the current study in which as many as 85% of respondents indicated that forcing one’s partner to have sex is “very serious” whereas only 14.5% indicated that yelling at one’s partner is “very serious.” Although men were more likely than women to view yelling as unacceptable, they were as likely as women to rate it as “very serious” (Table 4.3). Women were more likely than men to perceive physical dating violence as serious with 88.8% of women indicating that slapping one’s partner is “very serious” compared to 77.1% of men, whereas 74.5% of women indicated that controlling one’s partner is “very serious” compared to 60% of men. Sex differences also existed in terms of the perceived seriousness of sexual coercion, with 87.8% of women indicating that this is “very serious” compared to only 78.6% of men.

Interestingly, this trend was reversed for certain seriousness items; for instance, 93.9% of women indicated that scaring one’s partner was “very serious” compared to 76.5% of men. These percentages far exceed those for more physical behaviours, such as slapping. This suggests that there is a possible overlap between subtypes of violence and that scaring one’s partner is understood by respondents as incorporating both physical and psychological components. Consequently, it is possible that it is rated more seriously by respondents due to its physical components; however, further research is needed to test this hypothesis.

Sociodemographic Variables

Contrary to what was indicated in the research literature, the majority of sociodemographic variables did not appear to be important net of the effects of gender-related

constructs. However, it is possible that the sample used in the study, composed of university students, is not varied enough to demonstrate sociodemographic differences. That is, it is composed of men and women of similar ages from similar backgrounds. An exception to this was sex, which was a predictor of all outcome variables except attitudes towards physical dating violence. The gendered nature of dating and domestic violence is well established in terms of victimization, perpetration and consequences (Krahé et al., 2005; Ansara & Hindin, 2010; 2011). This gender difference has also been demonstrated at the level of attitudes in terms of the perceived seriousness of dating violence and the tolerance or acceptability of dating violence (VicHealth, 2009). However, these studies use more heterogeneous samples with greater variation in age and socioeconomic status as well as other social and cultural variables. Previous research conducted with university-aged students fail to reveal significant sex differences in terms of both the perpetration of dating violence (Jenkins & Aubé, 2002; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Foshee et al., 2010) as well as in terms of attitudes towards dating violence (Black & McCloskey, 2013; Lee et al., 2005). The results of the current study mirror the results from previous findings using university-aged samples in that the relationship between sex and the outcome variables were inconsistent.

Interestingly, while sex emerged as the strongest sociodemographic predictor during bivariate analysis, when controlling for the effects of other variables in a regression model, it does not appear to be a predictor of attitudes towards physical dating violence. This is especially salient as it contradicts past research which indicates that women are more likely to included psychological or emotional components in their definitions of violence against women (Carlson & Worden, 2005). For instance, using multivariate logistic regression, VicHealth (2009) found that being female significantly increased the odds of whether or not respondents classified

psychological abuse as “always” domestic violence (VicHealth, 2009). However, it is possible that the lack of a relationship in this study is more the result of small homogeneous samples. Further research is needed to test this hypothesis.

Similarly, being heterosexual emerged as a significant predictor of attitudes towards physical dating violence; however the direction of this relationship was the inverse of what was predicted. While very little research exists on the link between sexual orientation and attitudes toward dating violence, the research that does exist suggests that male heterosexuality shares much of the characteristics of hegemonic masculinity that are linked to violence against women. These characteristics include aggression, dominance over women and other men, heterosexism and hypersexuality (Messerschmidt, 1993). While heterosexuality was identified as a predictor of attitudes towards sexual dating violence at the bivariate level, when entered into the regression model it was a negative predictor of attitudes towards physical dating violence only. This finding suggests that there has possibly been a shift in the normative expectations associated with heterosexuality. An alternate explanation may be that this finding is due more to low sample counts of homosexual and bisexual respondents than it is to the protective function of heterosexuality.

The Role of Gender Expectations

A key goal of this study was to assess the association between masculinity constructions and the tolerance of dating violence. While this study did not directly measure masculinity in the form of a statistical scale, it is the foundation of all items included in the scales used to assess the independent variables. For instance, hypersexuality and male sexual entitlement, also identified as key predictors in the perpetration of sexual violence are evaluated via the endorsement of

statements such as “a woman who ‘teases’ men deserves anything that might happen” (IRMAS-SA, Payne et al., 1999). Similarly, dominance and coercive control are frequently identified as characteristics that link hegemonic masculinity and male violence against women and are measured through items such as “both partners have a right to a say in making decisions in a relationship” (Gender Attitudes and Norms within Heterosexual Relationships, Power Subscale, Harrison et al, 2006). While the tolerance of dating violence is an indicator of a culture that allows for the use of violence as a viable conflict resolution strategy, it is distinct from hostile or negative attitudes towards women, which have been found to predict the perpetration of violence against women (Anderson & Umberson, 2001; Archer & Graham-Kevan, 2003; Brownridge, 2002; DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). Masculinity theory focuses on gender formations; however, because gender formations are difficult to measure quantitatively, attitudes could be understood as indicators of hegemonic masculinity, a theoretical construct.

The results of this study show that while the majority of respondents do not endorse hegemonic masculine ideals fully or to the same extent, extreme cases do exist. This supports one of the central tenets of masculinity theory that while particular ideal versions of masculinity are promoted at particular times in history (e.g. hegemonic masculinity), very few men adhere to it in its entirety (Connell, 1995). Consequently, multiple masculinities may exist simultaneously and be performed differently in different contexts. Similarly, this study also demonstrates that while these indicators are traditionally associated with masculinity, some women endorse them too, which illustrates how both men and women consent, although in different ways, to the maintenance of patriarchal power (Hearn, 2010). As such, this general acceptability of dating violence, as indicated by the attitudes of some participants, may support the perspective that

male violence against women is simply an extension of the “patriarchal ordering of social relations” secured through hegemonic masculinity (Totten, 2000, p.36). That is, in demonstrating that some women also adhere to beliefs such as “a woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex,” this study demonstrates how dominant conceptions of masculinity reinforce the social hierarchy and legitimize violence against women as an acceptable means of meeting “masculinity challenges” (Dekeseredy & Schwartz, 2002; Messerschmidt, 1993). This, in turn, may lead to a normalization of violence against women, blurring the lines between what is abusive and what is normative in intimate relationships. Given this, the attitudes measured through the current study can be understood as a means through which respondents “do gender.” They are evidence that through socialization and interactions with the social world men and women learn and adopt appropriate gender roles and that gender role expectations and behaviours are never static, but change and evolve depending on situational factors.

Similarly, masculinity theorists argue that masculinity is not simply constructed in opposition to femininity but also in opposition to other forms of masculinity (Connell, 1995; Messerschmidt, 1993). Thus, constructions of masculinity should vary according to one’s position in the social hierarchy. While the current study found that the majority of sociodemographic characteristics were not predictors of tolerance of dating violence, future research, using a larger and more heterogeneous sample, is necessary to assess variations in masculinity construction.

Limitations

As with all research, there are limitations to this study relating, in particular, to sampling method and sample size as well as the possible social desirability bias inherent in research of this

nature. In conducting survey research, threats to internal validity, or the certainty that an independent variable was the sole cause of change in the dependent variable, are a concern (Newman, 2009). External validity, referring to the ability to generalize a study's findings to other populations, is threatened if participants respond differently in a research study than they would in applied situations (Newman, 2009). In the current study, there are concerns regarding both internal and external validity.

Threats to Internal Validity

- History: represents a factor outside of the study (e.g. outside of what is being measured) that has influenced the dependent variable (Newman, 2009). For instance, it is possible that the numerous cases of sexual assault in the media within in the last year have sensitized participants to the issues examined in this research project. As a result, respondents may be less forthcoming about attitudes tolerant of violence against women.
- Mortality/Attrition: caused when respondents leave or drop out of the study. Typically, respondents have been selected because they meet particular criteria and, in leaving the study, they may cause changes in the dependent variable (Newman, 2009). This is particularly salient in regards to this research project as, of 233 respondents included in the initial analysis, only 201 were included in the final regression models due to non-response on one of the predictor variables. As such, there are significant concerns regarding missing data and sample bias. Selection Bias: caused by the use of non-random sampling. That is, individuals are selected according to particular criteria or volunteer to participate which, in turn, influences the dependent variable. Selection bias is a concern in this study because of purposive sampling and self-selection on the part of student participants.

- Measurement Bias: while the current study uses pre-validated scales, it is impossible to perfectly measure the social world. As such, participants may understand the questions differently which, in turn, affects the reliability of responses and conclusions drawn in the study. This is especially pronounced when online research methods are used in which the researcher is not present and, therefore, cannot provide clarification (Neuman, 2009). Similarly, the researcher has no control over the environment in which the questionnaire is completed. As such, there is no way to know if the questionnaire was taken seriously and that respondents answered each question honestly, which can bias the results of the study (Neuman, 2009).
- Extreme Skew: with the exception of the attitudes towards psychological dating violence and the rape myth acceptance scale, all ratio-level variables included in this analysis were significantly skewed (Table 4.2). Statistically speaking, a high degree of positive skew indicates that extreme positive scores are inflating the mean. However, when outliers were examined more closely, it was found that these scores were not as extreme as expected. For instance, for attitudes towards physical violence, an outlier is defined as any score that is 23 or above. However, a score of 24 on a scale that contains 12 items averages out to a score of 2 per item which corresponds to an average response of “disagree” on each item. In fact only 4 cases scored above 36, which corresponds to a response of “neutral on each item.” This indicates that the large majority of students do not endorse attitudes tolerant of dating violence.
- Limits of a cross-sectional research design: while conducting cross-sectional survey research allows for quick access to large numbers of respondents at any given time, there are particular limitations in terms of its ability to assess complex and fluid constructs,

such as gender role constructions. In particular, masculinity, as a concept, is necessarily relational in nature and it is not possible to speak to the fluidity of this construct through the use of self-report data at a single point in time. This study measures the endorsement of hegemonic masculinity can be observed through a constellation of characteristics at a particular point in time (e.g. through the endorsement of rape myths, shared power in relationships, etc). Variability in participants' scores on these items has been interpreted as the presence of multiple masculinities and femininities at a single moment in time. Additionally, while qualitative studies have documented the existence of different masculinities, a quantitative cross-sectional design allows for an appreciation of how these different masculinities are distributed across social groups (Connell, 2005). The ability to assess gender role constructs and their relationship to the tolerance of dating violence would be greatly improved by using a mixed methods longitudinal design in which a repeated quantitative survey is informed by descriptive qualitative examinations of different articulations of masculinity. Such an investigation would be uniquely positioned to examine gendered difference as a form of structured action across social groups based on ethnicity, geographic location, and class (Connell, 2005)

Threats to External Validity

- Non-Representative Sample: this influences the generalizability of results beyond the study population. In this research project using purposive sampling, in which respondents volunteer to participate, there is a risk of self-selection bias and, as such, findings may not represent the attitudes of other students in the Faculty of Social Science.
- Influence of questionnaire setting: Attitudes expressed by respondents on the questionnaire may not reflect attitudes expressed in real life situations as these are

influenced by broader social attitudes which are context-dependent (e.g. all-male peer groups). As such, results may not be generalizable beyond the current study.

Given these threats to internal and external validity, future research utilizing a large random sample is needed to further explore factors associated with the tolerance of dating violence among university students.

Attitudes versus Behaviours

Another concern unique to studies of this nature is the tendency to confound attitudes with action. While research shows a relationship between attitudes tolerant of violence and the actual perpetration of violence (Flood & Pease, 2009), one does not necessarily lead to the other (Taylor & Mouzos, 2006). That is, participants may respond differently in real life situations regardless of whether or not they expressed these attitudes. Therefore, we cannot generalize findings obtained through attitudinal research and assume that behaviours will coincide. For instance, while this study did find a relationship between rape myth acceptance and attitudes tolerant of dating violence, this does not necessarily indicate that those who endorse rape myths are more likely to be violent toward their dating partners; it simply supports previous research linking these two concepts. Research linking the attitudes to the direct perpetration of dating violence is needed.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This study has shown that attitudes towards dating violence are considerably varied among students in the Faculty of Social Science at the University of Ottawa. While the majority of participants did not report attitudes tolerant of dating violence, negative attitudes towards women were observed. Similarly, gender-related constructs found in the academic literature to be related to the perpetration of all forms of dating violence (e.g. psychological, physical and sexual) were also found to be related to more tolerant attitudes towards dating violence. Additionally, the results of this study also demonstrate opportunities for prevention and intervention. Findings suggest that by targeting the social norms surrounding gender formations that tolerate violence against women, it may be possible to modify attitudes that are associated with dating violence. The fact that heterosexuality was a protective factor in this study suggests that social norms surrounding gender and violence may already be beginning to shift.

While this research study highlighted the role of gender-related constructs in the tolerance of dating violence, limitations of this study must be addressed through future research. In particular, the methodological challenges inherent to this project must be addressed in future studies in order to confirm the accuracy of the findings. For instance, the use of a large random sample may address the lack of variability observed in a number of the variables of interest. Similarly, in order to better assess the association between masculinity constructions and the tolerance of dating violence, an explicit masculinity measure should be included. Additionally, future research assessing the role of social desirability bias in research of this nature is necessary. This would allow researchers to determine whether the findings in this study reflect real differences in attitudes or whether they reflect respondents' ability to select socially acceptable

responses. Finally, future research is needed to address the role of the tolerance of dating violence in the direct perpetration of abusive behaviour.

At a conceptual level, the limitations of this study highlight the complexity of attitudes and their relationship to social change. The findings of this study offer some support for an integrative understanding of attitudes which incorporates both explicit and implicit elements. Implicit measures, in particular, have been found to uniquely predict certain types of behaviour, specifically, spontaneous behaviours such as prejudice and stereotypes (Bassili & Brown, 2005). In one study examining the role of implicit attitudes among those in treatment for intimate partner violence, Eckhardt et al. (2012) found that men in treatment showed more positive associations to violence-related stimuli and more rapid associations between violence and women than a non-violent control group. Interestingly, they also found no group differences on explicit measures of attitudes which further supports the position that implicit cognitions may have a stronger role to play in the prediction of partner violence than explicit attitudes.

This has important implications for policy development in terms of combatting violence against women. Specifically, the potential role played by implicit attitudes highlights the importance of early intervention targeting familial and communal social norms that accept or tolerate negative attitudes or behaviours towards women. However, this must also be complemented by wider societal efforts to promote gender equality and non-violent values among young men and women. This is crucial as negative implicit attitudes towards women can be incited or encouraged by close emotional ties to abusive or deviant peers (Flood & Pease, 2009).

There are also limits to focusing solely on attitudes as vehicles for social change. The results of this study suggest that while addressing attitudes towards women is just one component of eradicating violence against women, they are, nonetheless, important targets for social intervention as attitudes reflect patriarchal power imbalances. Any intervention that fails to address these social power imbalances, which are reflected by hegemonic or misogynistic attitudes, will be incomplete as they are a key component of the material inequalities faced uniquely by women. Social power imbalances and material inequalities represent different components of the inequalities faced by women. Therefore, a holistic approach that focuses on challenging social power imbalances as well as addressing the material inequalities disproportionately faced by women is necessary in order to prevent and eliminate violence against women.

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**APPENDIX A –
Tables and Figures**

Table 4.1 – Results of Univariate Testing – Categorical-Level Variables

Variable and Response Options	Total Sample Frequency	%
A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	125	54.1%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	40	17.3%
Disagree (3)	16	6.9%
Neutral (4)	9	3.9%
Agree (5)	31	13.4%
Somewhat Agree (6)	7	3.0%
Strongly Agree (7)	3	1.3%
Total	231	
When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	127	55.0%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	41	17.7%
Disagree (3)	13	5.6%
Neutral (4)	16	6.9%
Agree (5)	24	10.4%
Somewhat Agree (6)	7	3.0%
Strongly Agree (7)	3	1.3%
Total	231	
If a woman is raped while drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	161	69.7%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	32	13.9%
Disagree (3)	10	4.3%
Neutral (4)	11	4.7%
Agree (5)	10	4.3%
Somewhat Agree (6)	5	2.2%
Strongly Agree (7)	2	0.9%
Total	231	
If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it's her own fault if she is raped (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	116	50.0%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	59	25.4%
Disagree (3)	19	8.2%

Neutral (4)	17	7.3%
Agree (5)	14	6.0%
Somewhat Agree (6)	5	2.2%
Strongly Agree (7)	2	0.9%
Total	232	
A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	145	62.5%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	53	22.8%
Disagree (3)	17	7.3%
Neutral (4)	5	2.2%
Agree (5)	8	3.4%
Somewhat Agree (6)	2	0.9%
Strongly Agree (7)	2	0.9%
Total	232	
When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	65	28.9%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	39	17.3%
Disagree (3)	29	12.9%
Neutral (4)	22	9.8%
Agree (5)	37	16.4%
Somewhat Agree (6)	29	12.9%
Strongly Agree (7)	4	1.8%
Total	229	
A woman who goes home with a man on a first date is implying she wants to have sex (IRMAS-SA)		
Strongly Disagree (1)	94	40.7%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	59	25.5%
Disagree (3)	22	9.5%
Neutral (4)	14	6.1%
Agree (5)	28	12.1%
Somewhat Agree (6)	10	4.3%
Strongly Agree (7)	4	1.7%
Total	231	
When women are raped, it's often because the way they said no was ambiguous (IRMAS-SA)		

Strongly Disagree (1)	169	75.1%
Somewhat Disagree (2)	34	15.1%
Disagree (3)	5	2.2%
Neutral (4)	8	3.6%
Agree (5)	7	3.1%
Somewhat Agree (6)	1	0.4%
Strongly Agree (7)	1	0.4%
Total	225	
Both partners should come to agreements together		
Strongly Disagree (1)	3	1.3%
Disagree (2)	1	0.4%
Agree (3)	20	8.6%
Strongly Agree (4)	209	89.7%
Total	233	
Both partners have a right to a say		
Strongly Disagree (1)	3	1.3%
Disagree (2)	2	0.9%
Agree (3)	13	5.6%
Strongly Agree (4)	215	92.3%
Total	233	
It is a good thing women have more rights now than ever before		
Strongly Disagree (1)	5	2.2%
Disagree (2)	6	2.6%
Agree (3)	28	12.3%
Strongly Agree (4)	189	82.9%
Total	228	
No one partner should have more power		
Strongly Disagree (1)	4	1.7%
Disagree (2)	5	2.2%
Agree (3)	23	9.9%
Strongly Agree (4)	200	86.2%
Total	232	
Shared Power in Relationships – Dichotomized		
Endorses Shared Power (1)	168	74.0%
Does not Endorse Shared Power (0)	59	26.0%
Total	233	

Acceptability - Slapping Partner		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	227	97.8%
Sometimes Acceptable (2)	3	1.3%
Usually Acceptable (3)	1	0.4%
Always Acceptable (4)	1	0.4%
Total	232	
Acceptability - Forcing Partner to Have Sex		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	227	97.8%
Sometimes Acceptable (2)	3	1.3%
Usually Acceptable (3)	1	0.4%
Always Acceptable (4)	1	0.4%
Total	232	
Acceptability - Throwing Objects at Partner		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	227	97.4%
Sometimes Acceptable (2)	4	1.7%
Usually Acceptable (3)	1	0.4%
Always Acceptable (4)	1	0.4%
Total	233	
Acceptability - Scaring Partner		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	230	98.7%
Usually Acceptable (3)	1	0.4%
Always Acceptable (4)	2	0.9%
Total	233	
Acceptability - Yelling at Partner		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	74	32.2%
Sometimes Acceptable (2)	146	63.5%
Usually Acceptable (3)	8	3.9%
Always Acceptable (4)	1	0.4%
Total	230	
Acceptability - Controlling Partner		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	220	96.1%
Sometimes Acceptable (2)	6	2.6%
Usually Acceptable (3)	2	0.9%
Always Acceptable (4)	1	0.4%
Total	229	

Acceptability - Criticizing Partner		
Not at all Acceptable (1)	226	97.0%
Sometimes Acceptable (2)	3	1.3%
Usually Acceptable (3)	3	1.3%
Always Acceptable (4)	1	0.4%
Total	233	
Dating Violence Acceptability Scale – Dichotomized		
Not Acceptable (0)	72	32.0%
Acceptable (1)	153	68.0%
Total	225	
Seriousness - Slapping Partner		
Not at all Serious (1)	8	3.4%
Not that Serious (2)	2	0.9%
Quite Serious (3)	20	8.6%
Very Serious (4)	203	87.1%
Total	233	
Seriousness - Forcing Partner to Have Sex		
Not at all Serious (1)	8	3.4%
Not that Serious (2)	6	2.6%
Quite Serious (3)	21	9.0%
Very Serious (4)	198	85.0%
Total	233	
Seriousness - Throwing Objects at Partner		
Not at all Serious (1)	8	3.4%
Not that Serious (2)	2	0.9%
Quite Serious (3)	45	19.3%
Very Serious (4)	178	76.4%
Total	302	
Seriousness - Scaring Partner		
Not at all Serious (1)	8	3.5%
Quite Serious (3)	12	5.2%
Very Serious (4)	211	91.3%
Total	231	
Seriousness - Yelling at Partner		

Not at all Serious (1)	9	3.9%
Not that Serious (2)	94	41.2%
Quite Serious (3)	92	40.4%
Very Serious (4)	33	14.5%
Total	228	
Seriousness - Controlling Partner		
Not at all Serious (1)	8	3.4%
Not that Serious (2)	6	2.6%
Quite Serious (3)	50	21.6%
Very Serious (4)	168	72.4%
Total	232	
Seriousness - Criticizing Partner		
Not at all Serious (1)	8	3.4%
Not that Serious (2)	5	2.1%
Quite Serious (3)	63	27.0%
Very Serious (4)	157	67.4%
Total	233	
Sex		
Male (0)	35	15.1%
Female (1)	197	84.9%
Total	232	
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual (1)	193	83.5%
Other - Homosexual, Bisexual, Other (0)	38	16.5%
Total	231	
Student Status		
Full-time Student (1)	216	92.7%
Other - Part-time Student, Special Student, Other (0)	17	7.3%
Total	233	
Field of Study		
Criminology (1)	79	36.9%
Psychology (2)	36	16.8%
Anthropology or Sociology (3)	23	10.7%
Other - Social Science (4)	38	17.8%
Other - Outside Social Science (5)	38	17.8%

Total	214	
Highest Mark - Winter 2013		
High Marks (A- to A+) (1)	156	81.7%
Low Marks (E or F to B+) (0)	35	18.3%
Total	191	
Relationship Status		
Single (1)	104	45.0%
Dating (2)	109	47.5%
Other - Engaged, Married (3)	8	3.5%
Total	231	
Employment Status		
Employed (1)	116	50.2%
Not Employed (0)	115	49.8%
Total	231	
Drinking to the point of Intoxication (5 drinks or more) in the past year		
Less than once per week (0)	193	83.9%
Once per week or more (1)	37	16.1%
Total	230	

Table 4.2 – Results of Univariate Testing – Ratio-Level Variables

	Total Valid Responses	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Skew	Kurtosis	Range	
								Possible	Actual
ORIGINAL VARIABLES									
DEPENDENT VARIABLES									
General Attitudes towards Dating Violence	233	58.97	55	45, 49, 53	18	2.92	14.336	39-195	39-187
Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence	233	26.76	26	26	8.16	1.469	4.685	15-75	15-75
Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence	233	15.61	14	12	5.56	3.419	16.527	12-60	12-56
Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence	233	16.6	15	12	6.17	2.952	12.612	12-60	12-56
PREDICTOR VARIABLES									
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, She Asked for It Subscale	217	16.85	14	8	8.94	1.197	1.329	8-56	8-56
Power in relationships scale	227	15.33	16	16	1.77	-4.365	22.654	4-16	4-16
Acceptability of Dating Violence Scale	225	7.97	8	8	1.859	7.754	72.521	7-28	7-28
Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale	225	24.92	26	27	3.96	-3.23	11.791	7-28	7-28
Age	233	19.75	19	18	2.157	1.593	4.658	0-∞	15-31
TRANSFORMED VARIABLES									
DEPENDENT VARIABLES									
General Attitudes towards Dating Violence	233	1.756	1.74	1.65, 1.69, 1.72	0.109	1.193	2.76	1.59-2.29	1.59-2.27
Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence	233	1.173	1.146	1.08	0.115	1.854	4.263	1.08-1.75	0.293

Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence	233	1.2	1.1761	1.08	0.126	1.437	2.551	1.08-1.75	1.08-1.75
PREDICTOR VARIABLES									
Power in Relationships Scale	227	1.18	1.2	1.2	0.078	$\bar{5.964}$	40.28	0.60-1.20	0.60-1.20
Acceptability of Dating Violence Scale	225	0.895	0.903	0.9	0.064	4.949	35.083	0.85-1.45	0.85-1.45
Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale	225	1.85	1.86	2.04	0.306	$\bar{0.475}$	0.487	1-2.34	1-2.34

Table 4.3 – Sex Differences among Gender-Related Constructs – Bivariate Analysis

	Male Respondents		Female Respondents		X ²	Φ/Eta	Φ ² /Eta ²
Variable	f	%	f	%			
Rape Myth Acceptance Items							
A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex					1.667	0.087	0.008
Disagree	25	73.5%	155	82.9%			
Agree	9	26.5%	32	17.1%			
When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble					1.447	0.082	0.007
Disagree	23	76.7%	157	85.3%			
Agree	7	23.3%	27	14.7%			
If a woman is raped while drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible					3.236	0.122	0.015
Disagree	27	84.4%	175	93.6%			
Agree	5	15.6%	12	6.4%			
If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it's her own fault if she is raped					4.091*	0.138	0.019
Disagree	24	80.0%	169	91.8%			
Agree	6	20.0%	15	8.2%			
A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen					7.444**	0.181	0.033
Disagree	28	84.8%	186	96.4%			
Agree	5	15.2%	7	3.6%			
When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble					7.832**	0.197	0.039
Disagree	14	43.8%	118	69.4%			
Agree	18	56.3%	52	30.6%			

A woman who goes home with a man on a first date is implying she wants to have sex					0.74	0.059	0.003
Disagree	24	75.0%	150	81.5%			
Agree	8	25.0%	34	18.5%			
When women are raped, it's often because the way they said no was ambiguous					0.545	0.05	0.003
Disagree	28	93.3%	179	96.2%			
Agree	2	6.7%	7	3.8%			
IRMAS-SA Scale	$\bar{x} = 20.94$		$\bar{x} = 16.15$		-2.214*	0.193	0.037
Shared Power Items							
Both partners should come to agreements together					0.052	0.015	0.000
Yes	31	88.6%	177	89.8%			
No	4	11.4%	20	10.2%			
Both partners have a right to a say					0.241	0.031	0.001
Yes	33	94.3%	181	91.9%			
No	2	5.7%	16	8.1%			
It is a good thing women have more rights now than ever before					2.118	0.097	0.009
Yes	26	74.3%	162	84.4%			
No	9	25.7%	30	15.6%			
No one partner should have more power					0.374	0.04	0.002
Yes	29	82.9%	170	86.7%			
No	6	17.1%	26	13.3%			
Endorse shared power - Yes/No					0.608	0.052	0.003
Yes	24	68.6%	143	74.9%			
No	11	31.4%	48	25.1%			
Acceptability Items							
Slapping partner					2.602	0.106	0.011
No	32	94.1%	194	98.5%			
Yes	2	5.9%	3	1.5%			
Forcing partner to have sex					2.602	0.106	0.011

No	32	94.1%	194	98.5%			
Yes	2	5.9%	3	1.5%			
Throwing objects at partner					5.891*	0.159	0.025
No	32	94.1%	194	98.5%			
Yes	3	5.9%	3	1.5%			
Scaring partner					0.79	0.058	0.003
No	34	97.1%	195	99.0%			
Yes	1	2.9%	2	1.0%			
Yelling at partner					0.44	0.044	0.002
No	13	37.1%	61	31.4%			
Yes	22	62.9%	133	68.6%			
Controlling partner					2.506	0.105	0.011
No	31	91.2%	188	96.9%			
Yes	3	8.8%	6	3.1%			
Criticizing partner					1.025	0.066	0.004
No	33	94.3%	192	97.5%			
Yes	2	5.7%	5	2.5%			
Acceptability - Dichotomized					0.361	0.038	0.001
Not Acceptable	12	34.3%	60	31.4%			
Acceptable	21	63.6%	131	68.6%			
Seriousness Items							
Slapping partner					3.1	0.102	0.010
Yes	27	77.1%	175	88.8%			
No	8	22.9%	22	11.2%			
Forcing partner to have sex					5.637*	0.137	0.019
Yes	24	68.6%	173	87.8%			
No	11	31.4%	23	12.2%			
Throwing objects at partner					0.529	0.042	0.002
Yes	23	65.7%	154	78.2%			
No	12	34.3%	43	21.8%			

Scaring partner					6.06*	0.143	0.020
Yes	26	76.5%	184	93.9%			
No	8	23.5%	12	6.1%			
Yelling at partner					0.034	0.011	0.000
Yes	4	11.4%	29	15.1%			
No	31	88.6%	163	84.9%			
Controlling partner					0.676	0.048	0.002
Yes	21	60.0%	146	74.5%			
No	14	40.0%	50	25.5%			
Criticizing partner					0.899	0.055	0.003
Yes	20	57.1%	136	69.0%			
No	15	42.9%	61	31.0%			
Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale	$\bar{x} = 23.24/1.75$		$\bar{x} = 25.21/1.88$		1.781	0.143	0.020

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01

Table 4.4 – Results of Bivariate Hypothesis Testing

	General Attitudes towards Dating Violence		Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence		Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence		Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence	
	Eta/r	Eta ² /r ²	Eta/r	Eta ² /r ²	Eta/r	Eta ² /r ²	Eta/r	Eta ² /r ²
Gender-Related Constructs								
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (irmas_sa)	0.649**	0.421	0.58**	0.336	0.572**	0.327	0.631**	0.398
Power in Relationships Scale (power_scale2)	0.37**	0.137	0.335**	0.112	0.312**	0.097	0.368**	0.135
Acceptability of Violence Scale (acceptscale2)	0.266**	0.071	0.311**	0.097	0.166**	0.176*	0.102	0.01
Seriousness of Violence Scale (seriousness_scale2)	-0.54**	0.292	-0.548**	0.300	-0.426**	0.181	-0.428**	0.232
Sociodemographic Variables								
Sex (sex)	0.309**	0.096	0.335**	0.112	0.226*	0.051	0.256**	0.066
Age (age)	0.003	0	0.026	0.001	-0.011	0.0000	-0.005	0.000
Heterosexual (heterosexual)	0.001	0	0.008	0	0.09	0.008	0.123	0.015
Other Sexuality (sexuality_other)	0.001	0	0.008	0	0.130*	0.017	0.123	0.015
Full-time Student (fulltime_student)	0.032	0.001	0.018	0	0.029	0.001	0.102	0.01
Other Student (student_other)	0.032	0.001	0.018	0	0.029	0.001	0.102	0.01
Criminology (criminology)	0.052	0.003	0.011	0	0.05	0.002	0.143*	0.02
Psychology (psychology)	0.045	0.002	0.043	0.002	0.004	0	0.035	0.001
Anthropology and Sociology (anthrosocio)	0.002	0	0.042	0.002	0.029	0.001	0.08	0.006
Other Social Science (other_socsci)	0.009	0	0.011	0	0.037	0.001	0.037	0.001

Other Department Outside Social Science (other_nonsocsci)	0.013	0	0.012	0	0.001	0	0.047	0.002
Low Marks (low_marks)	0.038	0.001	0.6	0.004	0.024	0.001	0.004	0
High Marks (high_marks)	0.026	0.001	0.027	0.001	0.011	0	0.033	0.001
Single (single)	0.134*	0.018	0.154*	0.011	0.07	0.005	0.098	0.01
Dating (dating2)	0.086	0.007	0.099	0.01	0.028	0.001	0.072	0.005
Other Relationship Status (relationship_other)	0.127	0.016	0.085	0.007	0.112	0.013	0.027	0.001
Employed (employed)	0.043	0.002	0.074	0.005	0.015	0	0.059	0.003
Not Employed (not_employed)	0.043	0.002	0.074	0.005	0.015	0	0.059	0.003
Alcohol consumption (drink_heavily)	0.101	0.01	0.082	0.007	0.041	0.002	0.147*	0.022

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01

Table 4.5 – Multivariate Hypothesis Testing

	General Attitudes towards Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence
Model 1				
Single (single = 1)	-0.112	-0.139*	-0.021	0.174*
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	0.024	0.013	-0.156*	-0.096
Model 2				
Single (single = 1)	-0.135*	-0.164*	-0.034	-0.117
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	0.039	0.029	-0.157*	0.187**
Sex (male = 1)	0.297**	0.331**	0.173*	0.251**
Model 3				
Single (single = 1)	-0.05	-0.084	0.039	0.078
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	-0.078	-0.067	-0.258**	-0.053
Sex (male = 1)	0.196**	0.244**	0.081	0.154**
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	0.465**	0.371**	0.458**	0.449**
Power in Relationships (endorse shared power = 1)	-0.116*	-0.102	-0.085	-0.137*
Acceptability of Dating Violence (dating violence acceptable = 1)	0.147**	0.190**	0.099	-0.006
Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence	-0.267**	-0.288**	-0.194**	-0.182**
R ²	0.545	0.514	0.394	0.426
R ² Adjusted	0.529	0.496	0.372	0.405

Total N = 214

** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Table 4.6 – Results of Sequential Linear Regression Models

	General Attitudes towards Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence
Block 1				
Single (single = 1)	-0.003	-0.014	-0.145*	0.125
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	-0.135*	-0.155*	-0.061	-0.109
R ²	0.018	0.024	0.026	0.026
R ² Adjusted	0.009	0.016	0.017	0.017
Block 2				
Sex (male = 1)	0.309**	0.335**	0.226**	0.256**
R ²	0.096	0.112	0.051	0.066
R ² Adjusted	0.092	0.108	0.047	0.062
Block 3				
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	0.488**	0.420**	0.438**	0.509**
Power in Relationships (endorse shared power = 1)	-0.109*	-0.094	-0.086	-0.124*
Acceptability of Dating Violence (dating violence acceptable = 1)	0.126*	0.163**	0.078	-0.016
Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence	-0.285**	-0.309**	-0.216**	-0.198*
R ²	0.527	0.48	0.368	0.434
R ² Adjusted	0.517	0.469	0.355	0.423
Final Model				
Single (single = 1)	-0.05	-0.084	0.039	0.078
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	-0.078	-0.067	-0.258**	-0.053
Sex (male = 1)	0.196**	0.244**	0.081	0.154**
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	0.465**	0.371**	0.458**	0.449**
Power in Relationships (endorse shared power = 1)	-0.116*	-0.102	-0.085	-0.137*

Acceptability of Dating Violence (dating violence acceptable = 1)	0.147**	<i>0.190**</i>	0.099	-0.006
Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence	<i>-0.267**</i>	<i>-0.288**</i>	<i>-0.194**</i>	<i>-0.182**</i>
R ²	0.545	0.514	0.394	0.426
R ² Adjusted	0.529	0.496	0.372	0.405

** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Table 4.7 – Results of Univariate Testing – Categorical Data - Missing Cases

Variable and Response Options	Total Sample Frequency	%
Shared Power in Relationships - Dichotomized		
Endorses Shared Power (1)	21	75.0%
Does not Endorse Shared Power (0)	7	25.0%
Total	28	
Dating Violence Acceptability Scale - Dichotomized		
Not Acceptable (0)	9	34.6%
Acceptable (1)	17	65.4%
Total	28	
Sex		
Male (0)	7	24.1%
Female (1)	22	75.9%
Total	29	
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual (1)	27	93.1%
Other - Homosexual, Bisexual, Other (0)	2	6.9%
Total	29	
Student Status		
Full-time Student (1)	26	92.9%
Other - Part-time Student, Special Student, Other (0)	2	7.1%
Total	28	

Field of Study		
Criminology (1)	11	44.0%
Psychology (2)	5	20.0%
Anthropology or Sociology (3)	2	8.0%
Other - Social Science (4)	4	16.0%
Other - Outside Social Science (5)	3	12.0%
Total	25	
Highest Mark - Winter 2013		
High Marks (A- to A+) (1)	21	95.5%
Low Marks (E or F to B+) (0)	1	4.5%
Total	22	
Relationship Status		
Single (1)	13	44.8%
Dating (2)	12	41.4%
Other - Engaged, Married (3)	4	13.8%
Total	28	
Employment Status		
Employed (1)	15	53.6%
Not Employed (0)	13	44.8%
Total	28	
Drinking to the point of Intoxication (5 drinks or more) in the past year		
Less than once per week (0)	27	96.4%
Once per week or more (1)	1	3.6%
Total	28	

Table 4.8 – Results of Univariate Testing – Ratio-Level Data – Missing Cases

	Total Valid Responses	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Skew	Kurtosis	Range	
								Possible	Actual
ORIGINAL VARIABLES									
DEPENDENT VARIABLES									
Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence	29	40.41	40	38	4.6	1.065	2.119	15-75	33-55
Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence	29	30.41	29	28	3.69	1.861	3.156	12-60	27-41
PREDICTOR VARIABLES									
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, She Asked for It Subscale	19	16.74	18	19	5.59	0.263	0.4	8-56	8-30
Power in relationships scale	28	15.43	16	16	1.14	-1.931	2.698	4-16	12-16
Acceptability of Dating Violence Scale	26	7.69	8	8	0.549	-0.074	-0.524	7-28	7-9
Seriousness of Dating Violence Scale	26	24.31	26	26	4.26	-2.88	10.769	7-28	7-28
Age	29	21.21	20	19, 20	4.586	1.795	2.532	0-∞	14-35

Table 4.9 – Bivariate Analyses – Missing Cases

	Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence		Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence	
	Eta/r	Eta ² /r ²	Eta/r	Eta ² /r ²
<i>Gender-Related Constructs</i>				
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (irmas_sa)	0.365	0.133	0.043	0.002
Power in Relationships Scale (power_scale2)	0.334	0.111	0.074	0.005
Acceptability of Violence Scale (acceptscale2)	0.323	0.104	0.245	0.06
Seriousness of Violence Scale (seriousscale_lg10_2)	0.153	0.023	0.226	0.051
<i>Sociodemographic Variables</i>				
Sex (sex)	0.02	0	0.736*	0.542
Age (age)	0.363	0.132	0.119	0.014
Heterosexual (heterosexual)	0.066	0.004	0.144	0.021
Other Sexuality (sexuality_other)	0.055	0.004	0.144	0.021
Full-time Student (fulltime_student)	0.426	0.182	0.062	0.004
Other Student (other_student)	0.426	0.182	0.062	0.004
Criminology (criminology)	0.048	0.002	0.358	0.128
Psychology (psychology)	0.259	0.067	0.179	0.032
Anthropology and Sociology (anthrosocio)	0.05	0.003	0.044	0.002
Other Social Science (other_socsci)	0.101	0.01	0.093	0.009

Other Department Outside Social Science (other_nonsocsci)	0.09	0.008	0.184	0.034
Low Marks (low_marks)	-	-	-	-
High Marks (high_marks)	0.23	0.053	0.028	0.001
Single (single)	2.83	0.08	0.299	0.089
Dating (dating2)	0.017	0	0.308	0.095
Other Relationship Status (relationship_other)	0.384*	0.147	0.01	0
Employed (employed)	0.092	0.008	0.049	0.002
Not Employed (not_employed)	0.092	0.008	0.049	0.002
Alcohol consumption (drink_heavily)	0.231	0.052	0.131	0.017

** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Table 4.10 – Multivariate Hypothesis Testing with Missing Data Variable

	Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence	Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence
Model 1			
Missing Data (missing = 1)	0.033	-0.021	-0.028
Model 2			
Missing Data (missing = 1)	0.033	-0.021	-0.028
Single (single = 1)	-0.105	-0.046	-0.078
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	0.003	-0.108	0.140*
Model 3			
Missing Data (missing = 1)	0.019	-0.028	-0.039
Single (single = 1)	-0.122	-0.058	-0.093
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	0.012	-0.106	0.142*
Sex (male = 1)	0.288**	0.158*	0.208**
Model 4			
Missing Data (missing = 1)	0.028	0.012	0.014
Single (single = 1)	-0.065	0.018	-0.021
Heterosexual (heterosexual = 1)	-0.056	-0.214**	0.032
Sex (male = 1)	0.225**	0.093	0.134*
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	0.295**	0.472**	0.473**
Power in Relationships (endorse shared power = 1)	-0.075	-0.082	-0.097
Acceptability of Dating Violence (dating violence acceptable = 1)	0.181**	0.1	0.024
Perceived Seriousness of Dating Violence	-0.289**	-0.164**	-0.193**
R ²	0.498	0.377	0.407
R ² Adjusted	0.48	0.355	0.385

Total N = 214

** p<0.01 * p<0.05

Figure 4.1 - Distribution of Rape Myth Acceptance Variable

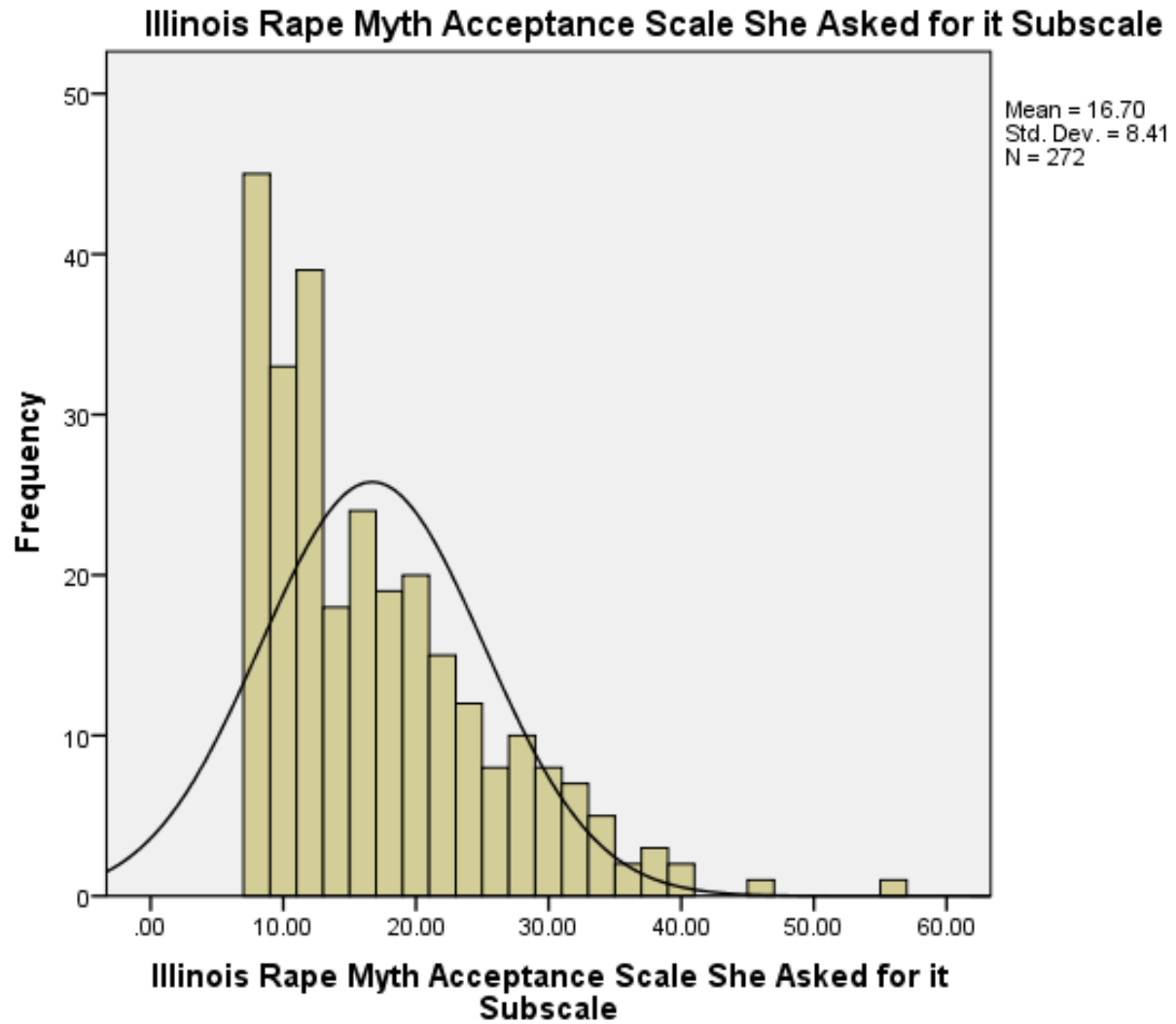


Figure 4.2 - Comparison of Original and Logged Shared Power Variable

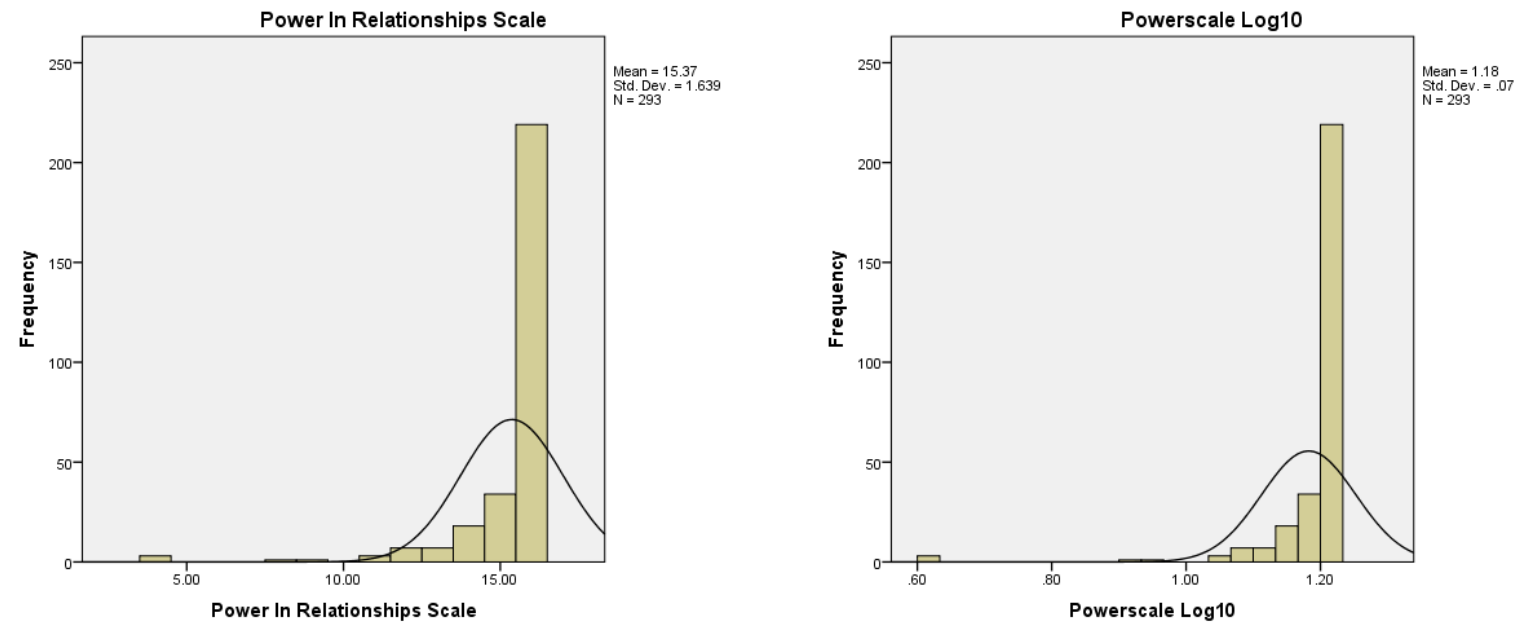


Figure 4.3 - Comparison of Original and Logged Acceptability of Dating Violence Variable

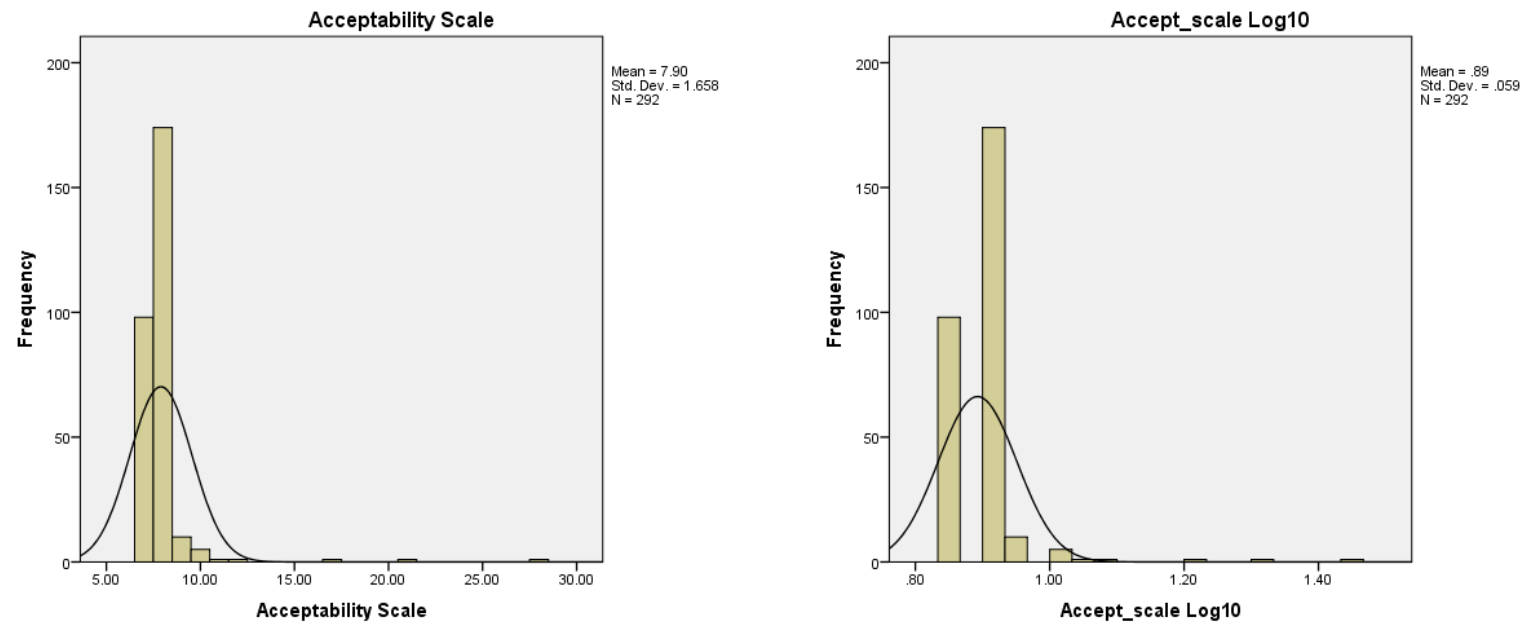


Figure 4.4 - Comparison of Original and Logged Seriousness of Dating Violence Variable

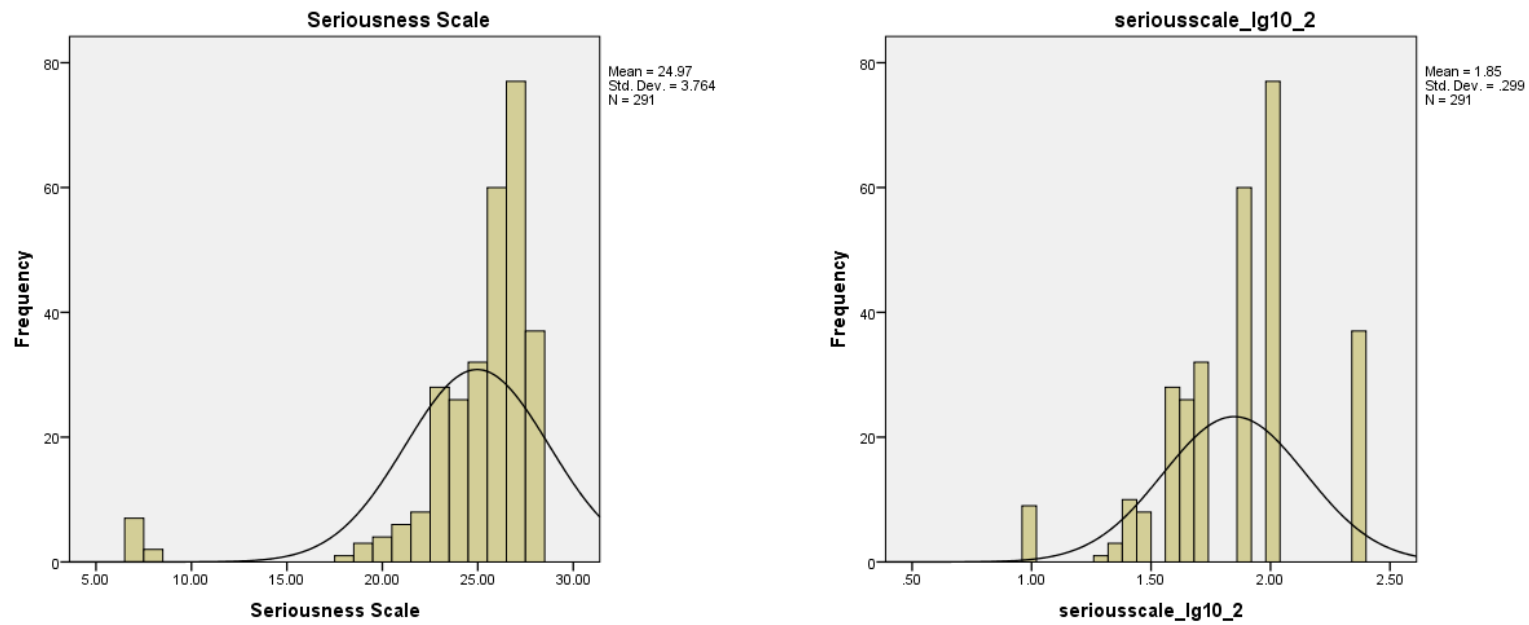


Figure 4.5 – Distribution of Age Variable

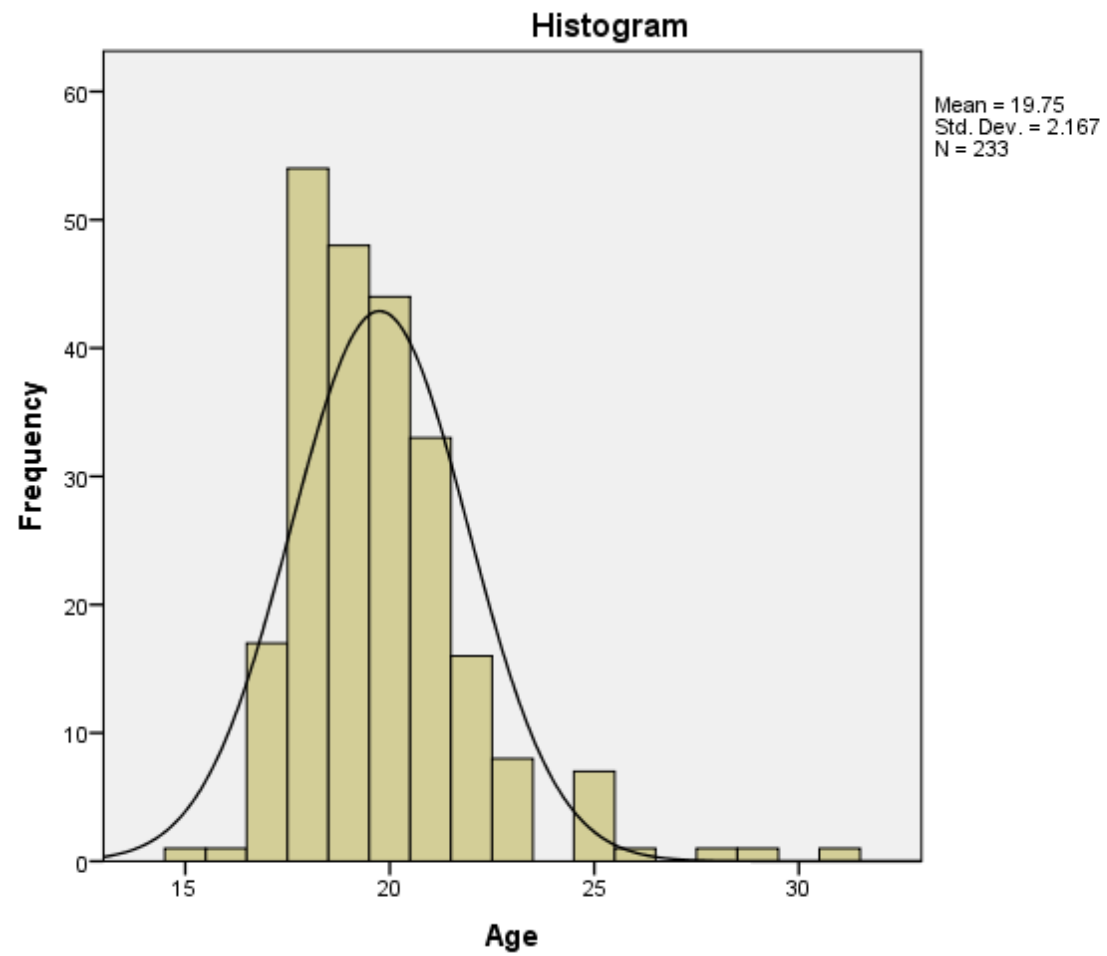


Figure 4.6 – Comparison of Original and Logged General Attitudes towards Dating Violence Variable

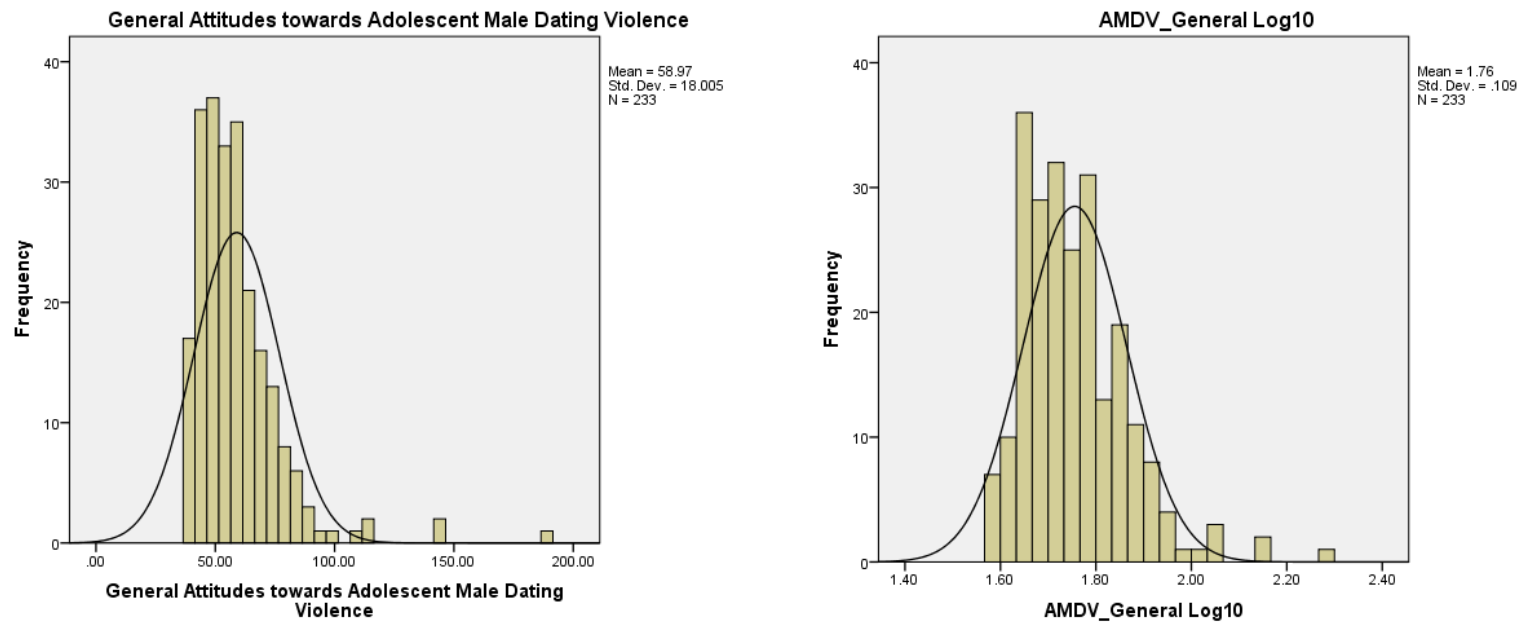


Figure 4.7 - Comparison of Original and Logged Attitudes towards Psychological Dating Violence Variable

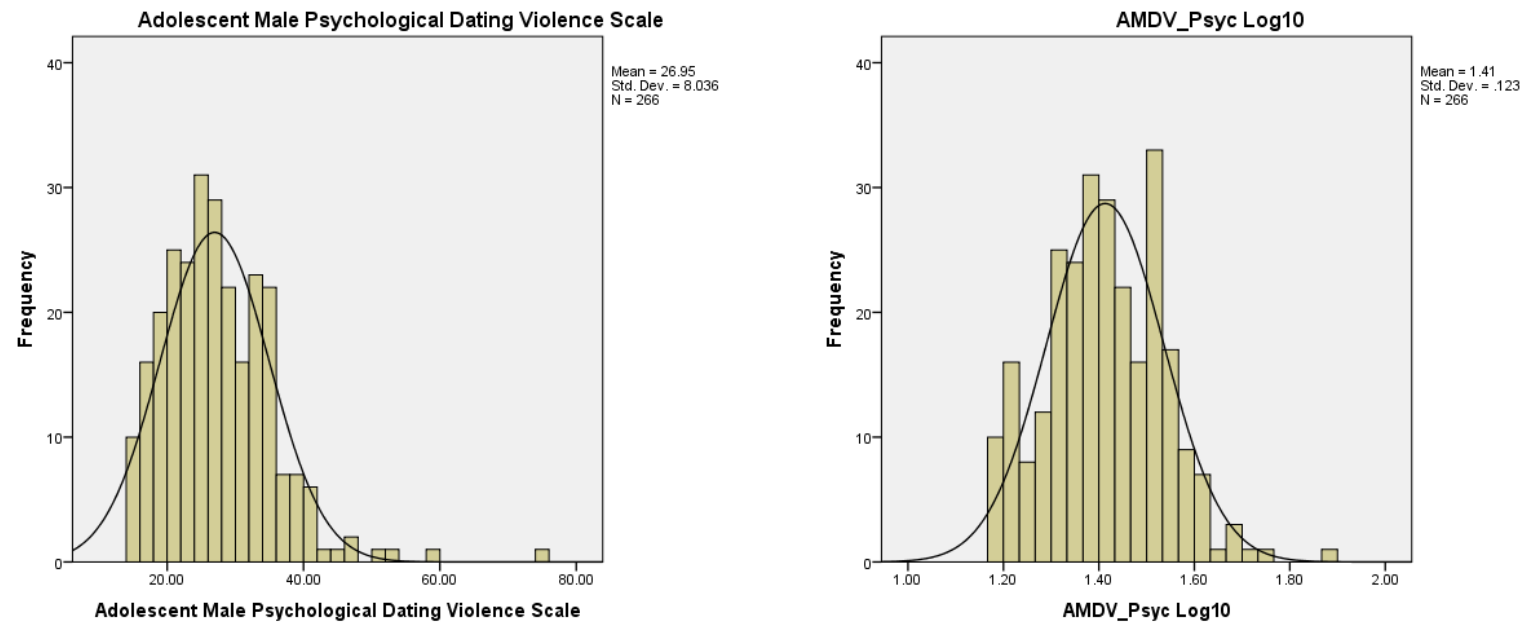


Figure 4.8 - Comparison of Original and Logged Attitudes towards Physical Dating Violence Variable

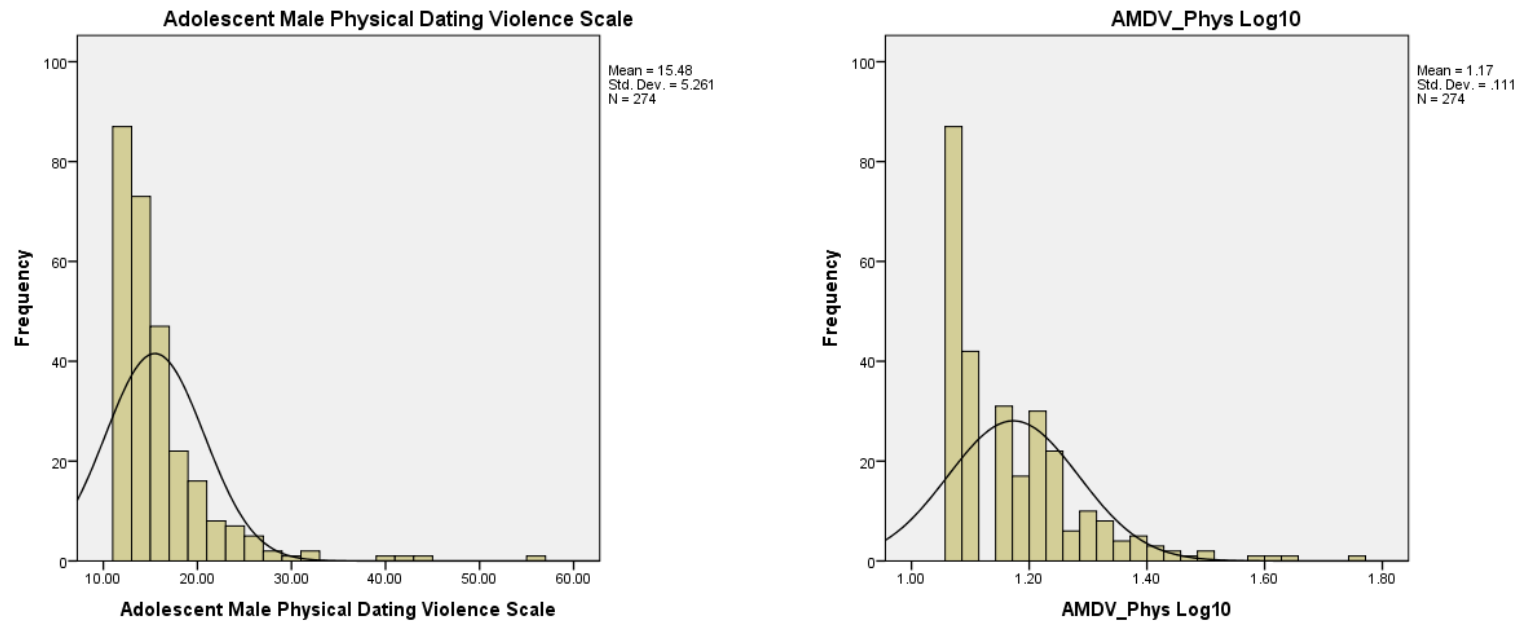
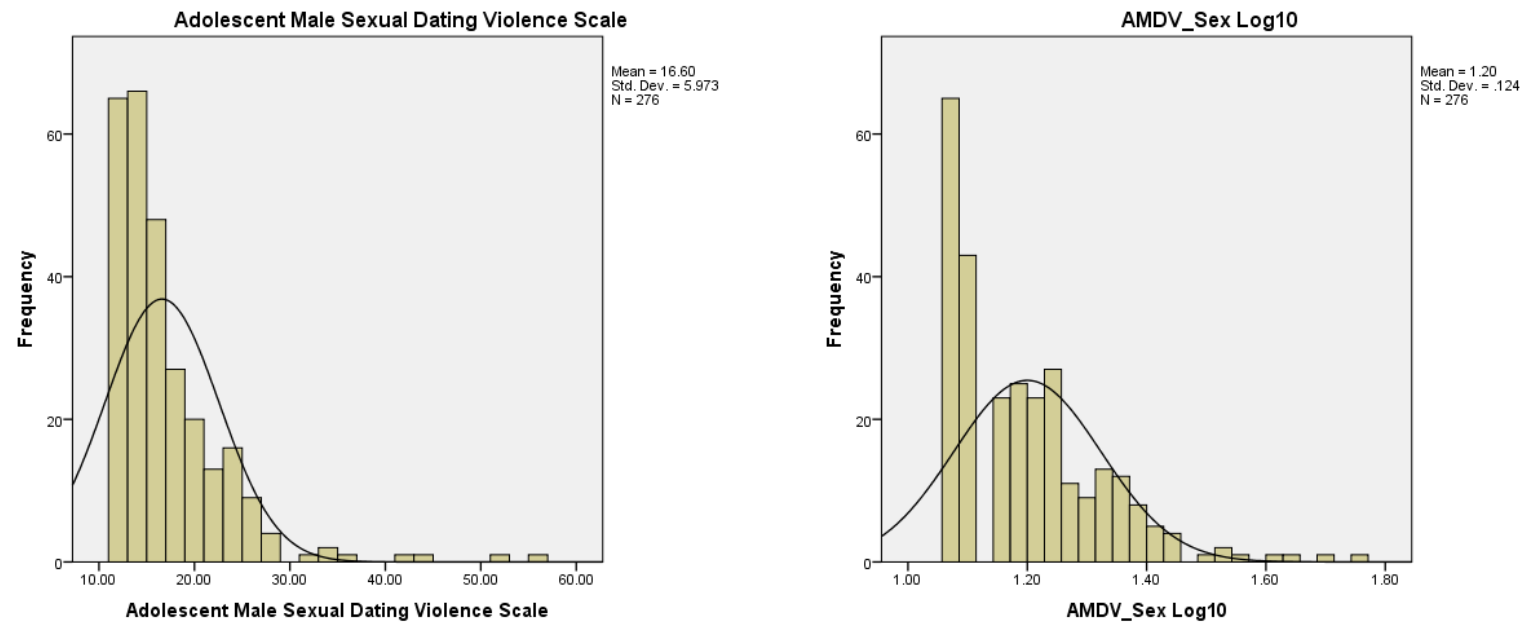


Figure 4.9 - Comparison of Original and Logged Attitudes towards Sexual Dating Violence Variable



**APPENDIX B -
University of Ottawa Ethics Approval**



Université d'Ottawa University of Ottawa

Service de subventions de recherche et déontologie
 Research Grants and Ethics Services

Ethics Approval Notice

Social Science and Humanities REB

Principal Investigator / Supervisor / Co-investigator(s) / Student(s)

<u>First Name</u>	<u>Last Name</u>	<u>Affiliation</u>	<u>Role</u>
Holly	Johnson	Social Sciences / Criminology	Supervisor
Sarah Eileen	MacLean	Social Sciences / Criminology	Student Researcher

File Number: 05-13-18

Type of Project: Master's Thesis

Title: The Role of Gender in Predicting Attitudes Towards of Dating Relationships

Approval Date (mm/dd/yyyy)	Expiry Date (mm/dd/yyyy)	Approval Type
07/15/2013	07/14/2014	Ia

(Ia: Approval, Ib: Approval for initial stage only)

Special Conditions / Comments:

N/A

**Université d'Ottawa**

Service de subventions de recherche et déontologie

University of Ottawa

Research Grants and Ethics Services

This is to confirm that the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board identified above, which operates in accordance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement and other applicable laws and regulations in Ontario, has examined and approved the application for ethical approval for the above named research project as of the Ethics Approval Date indicated for the period above and subject to the conditions listed the section above entitled "Special Conditions / Comments".

During the course of the study the protocol may not be modified without prior written approval from the REB except when necessary to remove subjects from immediate endangerment or when the modification(s) pertain to only administrative or logistical components of the study (e.g. change of telephone number). Investigators must also promptly alert the REB of any changes which increase the risk to participant(s), any changes which considerably affect the conduct of the project, all unanticipated and harmful events that occur, and new information that may negatively affect the conduct of the project and safety of the participant(s). Modifications to the project, information/consent documentation, and/or recruitment documentation, should be submitted to this office for approval using the "Modification to research project" form available at: <http://www.research.uottawa.ca/ethics/index.html>.

Please submit an annual status report to the Protocol Officer four weeks before the above-referenced expiry date to either close the file or request a renewal of ethics approval. This document can be found at: <http://www.research.uottawa.ca/ethics/index.html>.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Office at extension 5387 or by e-mail at: ethics@uOttawa.ca.

Signature:

Germain Zongo
Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research
For Barbara Graves, Chair of the Social Sciences and Humanities REB

**APPENDIX C -
Letter of Information**

Letter of Information

Title of the study: Exploring Attitudes Towards Conflict in Dating Relationships

Principal Investigator: Sarah MacLean Graduate
Student Department of
Criminology Ottawa, ON
(email)

Supervisor: Dr. Holly Johnson Assistant
Professor Department of
Criminology University of
Ottawa Ottawa, ON
(phone)
(email)

Invitation to Participate: You are invited to participate in this research study conducted by Masters student Sarah MacLean, who is being supervised by Dr. Holly Johnson.

Participation: We invite you to participate in this study by going to the following website to complete the survey questionnaire: <http://fluidsurveys.com/s/attitudes-towards-conflict-in-dating-relationships/>. Your decision to complete and submit this survey will be interpreted as an indication of your consent to participate. The survey should take you less than 30 minutes to complete. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. We would appreciate it if you would complete the survey before October 31, 2013. This study is, in no way, associated with your professor or this course. As such, your decision to participate or not will have no impact on your marks in this course. You will not be rewarded for participation nor will you be penalized for non-participation.

Purpose of the Study: Our aim in this study is to learn about attitudes toward conflict in dating relationships involving young men and women. There are no right or wrong answers, only

different opinions.

Benefits: Your participation in this research study will help us better understand relationships among young people. In doing so, you are contributing to the development of strategies that can assist students like you who may be dealing with difficult issues in their personal relationships.

Risks: You may find some questions difficult to answer. Your participation is important so that our results are as accurate as possible. However, your participation is completely voluntary and you may refuse to answer any question.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: The information that you will share will remain strictly confidential and will be used solely for the purposes of this research. The only people who will have access to the research data are the researcher (Sarah MacLean) and the researcher's supervisor (Dr. Holly Johnson). Results will be published in grouped format to protect your identity; therefore, no one will see your answers. Anonymity is guaranteed since you will not provide your name, student number or any other identifying information.

Conservation of data: The data will be kept on a password protected computer in the office of the supervisor at the University of Ottawa, which is secured with an alarm, for a period of 5 years at which time they will be destroyed.

Voluntary Participation: You are under no obligation to participate and if you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer questions that you do not want to answer. Completion and submission of the questionnaire by you implies consent.

Information about the Study Results: Once the thesis is completed, you will be able to access it and the results of the study through uO Research, which can be accessed through the following website link: <http://www.ruor.uottawa.ca.proxy.bib.uottawa.ca/en/handle/10393/242>. Results are expected to be available as of December 2014.

If you have any questions or require more information about the study itself, you may contact the researcher or his/her supervisor at the email addresses listed above.

If you have any questions with regards to the ethical conduct of this study, you may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, tel.: (613) 562-5387 or ethics@uottawa.ca.

Please keep this form for your records.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

September 13, 2013

Sarah MacLean
Graduate Student
Department of Criminology

Date

**APPENDIX D -
Questionnaire**

Attitudes towards Conflict in Dating Relationships

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey. The purpose is to explore the attitudes towards conflict in dating relationships among undergraduate students at the University of Ottawa. The results will help better understand where students experience difficulties.

All your answers will be kept strictly confidential. I will not be asking for your name, student number, or any other information that can identify you. When you have completed the questionnaire, I will not be able to link your name or email to your responses; therefore no one will see your answers. When I present the results of the survey, your responses will be grouped together with the responses of other students so that it will be impossible to identify you. The results will not be used for any purpose other than this research study.

Your participation is important so that our results are as accurate as possible. However, participation is voluntary and you may refuse to answer any question.

First, I'd like to ask a few basic questions about you...

- 1) What is your sex?
 - a) Male
 - b) Female
 - c) Other answer, specify _____
 - d) Prefer not to answer.
- 2) How old are you (in years)? _____.
- 3) Do you consider yourself to be:
 - a) Heterosexual or straight
 - b) Homosexual, gay, or lesbian
 - c) Bisexual
 - d) Other answer, specify _____
 - e) Prefer not to answer.
- 4) Are you a full-time (registered in 4 or more classes) or part-time student (registered in 3 classes or less)?

- a) Full-time student
 - b) Part-time student
 - c) Special Student
 - d) Other (Specify): _____.
 - e) Don't know/Prefer not to answer
- 5) What is your major? Mark all that apply.
- a) Anthropology and Sociology
 - b) Conflict Studies and Human Rights
 - c) Criminology
 - d) Economics
 - e) International Development and Globalization
 - f) Political Science
 - g) Psychology
 - h) Public Administration
 - i) Social Work
 - j) Sociology
 - k) Women's Studies
 - l) Other (Specify): _____
 - m) Don't know/Prefer not to answer
- 6) What is the highest mark you received last semester (Winter 2013)?
- a) A+ (100-90%)
 - b) A (85-89%)
 - c) A- (80-84%)
 - d) B+ (75-79%)
 - e) B (70-74%)
 - f) C+ (65-69%)
 - g) C (60-64)
 - h) D+ (55-59)
 - i) D (50-54)
 - j) E or F (49 percent or lower)
 - k) Not applicable
 - l) Don't know/Prefer not to answer
- 7) Which of the following best describes your relationship status?
- a) Single
 - b) Dating, not cohabitating
 - c) Dating, cohabitating

- d) Engaged, not cohabitating
- e) Engaged, cohabitating
- f) Married
- g) Separated
- h) Divorced
- i) Don't know/Prefer not to answer

8) Are you employed?

- a) Yes, I have a full-time job
- b) Yes, I have a part-time job
- c) No, I am not employed.
- d) Don't know/Prefer not to answer.

9) Most people drink sometimes. During the past 12 months, on how many days did you drink five drinks or more in a row?

- a) Never
- b) 1 to 2 days
- c) Once a month
- d) A few times a month
- e) Once a week
- f) A few times a week
- g) Daily
- h) Don't know/Prefer not to answer

First, the statements listed below describe various situations. There are no right answers, or wrong answers, only different opinions. Your opinions are important whether or not you have ever been in a relationship and regardless of your sexual orientation. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not at all and 5 indicating that you completely agree.

1.	A girl should ask her boyfriend first before going out with her friends.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
2.	When a guy pays for a date it is O.K. for him to pressure his girlfriend for sex.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
3.	Sometimes guys cannot stop themselves from punching their girlfriends.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
4.	A guy usually does not slap his girlfriend unless she deserves it.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer

5.	A guy should not insult his girlfriend	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
6.	Sometimes a guy cannot help hitting his girlfriend when she makes him angry.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
7.	Some girls deserved to be slapped by their boyfriends.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
8.	It is O.K. for a guy to slap his girlfriend if she deserves it.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
9.	Sometimes love makes a guy so crazy that he hits his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
10.	It is alright to pressure a girl to have sex if she has had sex in the past.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
11.	A guy should not touch his girlfriend unless she wants to be touched.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
12.	A girl who goes into a guy's bedroom is agreeing to sex.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
13.	A guy does not need to know his girlfriend's every move.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
14.	A girl should not see her friends if it bothers her boyfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
15.	A girl should break up with a guy when he hits her.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
16.	Girls who cheat on their boyfriends should be slapped.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
17.	Often guys have to be rough with their girlfriends to turn them on.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
18.	It is O.K. for a guy to bad mouth his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
19.	It is no big deal to pressure a girl into having sex.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
20.	When guys get really sexually excited, they cannot stop themselves from having sex.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
21.	Sometimes jealousy makes a guy so crazy that he must slap his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
22.	It is understandable when a guy gets too angry that he yells at his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
23.	There is no good reason for a guy to push his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
24.	There is never a good reason for a guy to yell and scream at his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer

25.	It is never O.K. for a guy to hit his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
26.	Guys do not own their girlfriends' bodies.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
27.	It is alright for a guy to force his girlfriend to kiss him.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
28.	Some guys just can't help but swear at their girlfriends	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
29.	There is never a reason for a guy to threaten his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
30.	Guys should never get their girlfriends drunk to get them to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
31.	After a couple is going steady, the guy should not force his girlfriend to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
32.	There is never a good enough reason for a guy to swear at his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
33.	To prove her love, it is important for a girl to have sex with her boyfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
34.	A girl should always do what her boyfriend tells her to do.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
35.	A guy should not tell his girlfriend what to do	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
36.	It is important for a girl to always dress the way her boyfriend wants.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
37.	There is no good reason for a guy to slap his girlfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
38.	Relationships always work best when girls please their boyfriends	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
39.	A girl should always change her ways to please her boyfriend.	1	2	3	4	5	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer

In this section, I am going to ask you some questions about dating.

First, please indicate how you regard the following sorts of behaviours. Would you say that these behaviours are always, usually, sometimes, or not at all acceptable?

	Always Acceptable	Usually Acceptable	Sometimes Acceptable	Not at all Acceptable	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
When one partner in a dating relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear						
When one partner in a dating relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear, is this serious						
When one partner in a dating relationship forces the other partner to have sex						
When one partner in a dating relationship throws or smashes objects near the other partner to frighten or threaten them						
When one partner in a dating relationship tries to scare or control the other partner by threatening to hurt other family members						
When one partner in a dating relationship yells at the other partner,						
When one partner in a dating relationship controls the social life of the other partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends						

When one partner in a dating relationship repeatedly criticizes the other one to make them feel bad or useless						
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Now, please indicate how serious you think each of the behaviours listed below are – very serious, quite serious, not that serious, or not at all serious?

	Very Serious	Quite Serious	Not that Serious	Not at all Serious	Don't Know	Prefer not to Say
When one partner in a dating relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear						
When one partner in a dating relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear, is this serious						
When one partner in a dating relationship forces the other partner to have sex						
When one partner in a dating relationship throws or smashes objects near the other partner to frighten or threaten them						
When one partner in a dating relationship tries to scare or control the other partner by threatening to hurt other family members						
When one partner in a dating relationship yells at the other partner,						
When one partner in a dating relationship controls the social life of the other partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends						
When one partner in a dating relationship repeatedly criticizes the other one to make them feel bad or useless						

In this section, I am going ask you about other situations involving men and women. There

are no right answers, or wrong answers, only different opinions. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 indicating that you completely agree and 7 indicating that you completely disagree.

1.	A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
2.	When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
3.	If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
4.	If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it's her own fault if she is raped.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
5.	A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
6.	When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
7.	A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
8.	When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer

Finally, please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 4, with 1 indicating that you completely agree and 4 indicating that you completely disagree.

1.	Both partners should come to agreements together about what they want to do in a relationship.	1	2	3	4	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
2.	Both partners have a right to a say in making decisions in a relationship.	1	2	3	4	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
3.	It is a good thing that women now have more rights than ever before.	1	2	3	4	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer
4.	No one partner should have more power than the other in a relationship.	1	2	3	4	Don't Know	Prefer not to Answer

Thank you very much for participating in this survey. Your responses will provide important information about young people and relationships. I want to assure you again that all your answers will be kept strictly confidential and you will not be identified.

Resources for Students

On Campus Resources:

- Sexual Harassment Office - 613-562-5222
- Protection Services - 613-562-5411 (Emergency) and 613-562-5499 (Non-emergency)
- SASS - 613-562-5200
- Student Advocate - 613-562-5800 ext 4896
- Health Services - 613-564-3950
- Peer Support Phone Line - 613-562-5800 ext 5604
- Rape Aggression Defense - 613-562-5800 ext 6314
- Foot Patrol - 613-562-4517 (Day) and 613-562-7433 (Night)

Off-Campus Resources:

- Ottawa Rape Crisis Centre - 613-562-2333
- Calacs - 613-789-9117
- Sexual Assault Support Centre - 613-243-2266 (Crisis) and 613-725-2160 (Counseling)
- Gayline - 613-238-1717
- Victim Crisis Offices - Ottawa Police Services - 613-236-1222
- Distress Centre of Ottawa and Region - 613-238-3311
- Tel-Aide Outaouais - 613-741-6433