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SENSE OF ENTITLEMENT AND DATING ABUSIVE BEHAVIOR IN
COLLEGE DATING RELATIONSHIPS

By

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Sense Of Entitlement and Dating Abusive Behavior in College Dating Relationships

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The current study sought to explore the relationships between sense of entitlement, gender, and abusive behaviors among dating relationships in the emerging adulthood phase. The existing literature around abusive behaviors suggests differences in patterns, motivations, and use of abusive behaviors by gender (Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006; Luthra & Gidycz, 2006; Stark, 2009; Straus, 2004). Self-Salience Theory provides a foundation for understanding the interaction of gender and abusive behaviors, while also suggesting that sense of entitlement (or the act of privileging oneself over a partner) is a key component in motivation for abusive behaviors (Rosenfield, Vertefeuille, & McAlpine, 2000). The current study examined gender differences in entitlement and abuse and investigated whether sense of entitlement is a good explanatory variable for abusive behavior. Data were collected from the study body of a private university in New Jersey and the subsample of 18-25 year olds in dating relationships was used for the analysis. The survey was conducted during the 2011-2012 school year and collected responses anonymously online. Bivariate and multivariate analyses did not find significant differences in rates of abuse by gender, but did find that sense of entitlement is a better predictor of men's behavior than women's behavior. Sense of entitlement explains a small amount of the variance for abusive behavior in the sample that included

men and women; it explained little to no variance in the women's subsample while explaining a much greater amount of the variance in the men's subsample. Hierarchical regression determined that the interaction between gender and sense of entitlement is an important factor in explaining abusive behavior. The following dissertation reviews the relevant literature, including a background on dating violence, abusive behaviors, entitlement, theory, and current debates over gender in the dating violence literature. The dissertation will provide an in-depth review of data collection methods and the statistical analyses used to explore the relationships between gender, sense of entitlement, and abuse. The final chapter reviews the results, implications, limitations, and conclusions of the study.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my grandfather, Dr. Samuel A. Trufant. His unwavering support for my pursuit of higher education was a great source of strength for me and his advice was invaluable. The completion of my studies would not have been possible without him.

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CHAPTER I

Statement of the Research Problem

Although rigorous data about the nature, prevalence and sequelae of dating violence are becoming more readily available, perpetration in dating relationships remains understudied. Population based studies of perpetration are uncommon, and research identifying personal characteristics that are amenable to intervention is almost absent in the literature. To fill this gap in the knowledge base, this theory-based project proposes to investigate how a perpetrator's sense of entitlement may be associated with the use of aggression and violence in dating relationships by looking at the general population of one university.

Dating violence is a series of abusive and aggressive behaviors that are meant to control a partner within an intimate relationship (National Center for Victims of Crime (NCVC), n.d.). Control is achieved through a pattern of behaviors covering a spectrum from emotional manipulation (emotional control or emotional abuse) to threat of physical harm (aggression) or actual physical harm (physical abuse). Other forms of control include sexual violence and economic abuse. Dating violence is a serious public health problem (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). The prevalence of dating violence varies somewhat depending on the study, but most studies suggest that between one third and one half of all adolescents experience some kind of dating abuse victimization (Halpern, Oslak, Young, Martin & Hupper, 2001; Hanson, 2002; Jackson, 1999; Jezl, Molidor & Wright, 1996). The national data on dating violence among college students are becoming outdated, but studies indicate that the rates are similar to adolescents and that victimization during adolescence is associated with victimization during college years

(Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Smith, White & Holland, 2003; White & Koss, 1991).

Dating violence has numerous negative effects for those involved. Dating violence can negatively impact academic performance and is linked to substance abuse (Hanson, 2002; Silverman, Raj, & Mucci, 2001). Symptoms of posttraumatic stress and depression can result from the impact of dating abuse, as has been established among the adult victim population (Hanson, 2002; Silverman et al., 2001; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). Female victims may exhibit unhealthy weight control behaviors, risky sexual behaviors, or pregnancy (Silverman et al., 2001). In addition, dating violence is linked to later violence in relationships, including marriage (Hanson, 2002; Smith, White, & Holland, 2003).

Less is known about the prevalence and dynamics of perpetration as much of the literature focuses on victimization; additionally, the literature on gender differences of perpetration is contradictory. Some studies indicate that men are more likely to be perpetrators of dating violence than women (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003; Johnson, 1995; Johnson & Leone, 2005). However, other studies claim that the rates of perpetration among men and women are the same, or even higher for women (Archer, 2000; Glass et al., 2003; Katz, Kuffel & Cobr lentz, 2002; Luthra & Gidycz, 2006; Straus, 2004). As stated previously, an international study of perpetration in a variety of universities found that 17-45% of students committed acts of violence against a partner, with higher rates of perpetration being reported by women (Straus, 2004). A major flaw in these claims is the use of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS), which has been criticized for asking about the frequency of using physically abusive behaviors but failing to

recognize the dynamics of control in an abusive relationship (Jackson, 1999).

Additionally these claims often fail to note that women are more likely than men to admit perpetration and are less likely than men to admit victimization (Jackson, 1999; Stark, 2009). In addition, the literature largely focuses on physical abuse and disregards motivation or intent, consequences, and context of abuse (Jackson, 1999; Pederson & Thomas, 1992; Stark, 2009). The lack of understanding about motivation and how it connects to the actual abusive behavior is a major gap in the literature.

Researchers have attempted to identify motivating factors for abuse with limited success. For example, one identified factor of female perpetration was the partner's use of violence (Luthra & Gidycz, 2006; Dekeseredy, Saunders, Schwartz & Alvi, 1997). Existing literature suggests that while women have higher incidences of violence, they may be acting defensively. However, there is another side of the literature that argues that men and women are equally violent and that both genders show similar motivations for perpetration (Straus, 2004). This is not yet fully understood and the current study seeks the knowledge of perpetration characteristics of both men and women.

Other possible motivating factors identified in the literature include beliefs in traditional gender roles and rape myth acceptance (Jackson, 1999). Results indicate that abusive men ascribe to more traditional gender roles and have a greater acceptance of violence against women (Berkel, Vandiver & Bahner, 2004; Jackson, 1999; McHugh & Frieze, 1997). These findings are important for understanding male perpetration but leave a gap in understanding female perpetration.

Narcissism has also been examined in broader violence literature as a motivating factor in abuse but it has limited explanatory power (Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell,

2006; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). Some evidence suggests that narcissism is too broad a construct and the critical component is the self-inflation over a particular individual (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). One subconstruct of narcissism is the personality construct of entitlement; this construct has the potential to be a better explanation of abusive behavior. Sense of entitlement is the belief that one has the right to privilege himself over another. While narcissism is a highly positive view of the self, entitlement involves some kind of judgment about another person (Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006). Narcissism does not necessarily relate directly to aggression, however when there is some sort of comparison to another person, this can result in aggression (Exline et al., 2004). Entitlement is seen as a right based on membership of some kind of group and usually connotes some kind of positive benefit (Feather, 2003). When applied to dating violence, the group membership might be gender (male or female) or status as a boyfriend or girlfriend. People who see themselves as a member of one of these groups might then feel entitled to a certain kind of positive treatment within the relationship.

Entitlement has not been examined in dating partnerships yet but has been connected to aggression in non-intimate relationships. Studies on aggression indicate that a higher sense of entitlement is related to less forgiveness (Exline et al., 2004) and connected to higher levels of aggression among undergraduates in all types of relationships (Konrath et al., 2006), though these concepts have not been tested specifically within intimate relationships. Other related constructs that have been examined within dating relationships include satisfaction with relationship. Satisfaction with relationship power rather than perceived relationship power is an indicator of

perpetration of abuse (Ronfeldt, Kimerling, & Arias, 1998). This concept supports the previously stated notions about entitlement; satisfaction with relationship power fits within the construct of privileging oneself over a partner. Satisfaction with power could be interpreted as the part of entitlement that means the individual has a right to positive treatment; that is, if a person is satisfied with power, then they believe they are being treated as they are entitled. Sense of entitlement could be the key to understanding motivation of abuse because it is more specific than the construct of narcissism, and encompasses components such as satisfaction.

Another area that contributes to the discussion involves dominance in a relationship. One study about dominance suggests that men and women who are violent both show higher levels of dominance in the relationship (Straus, 2008). While this study argues that there are not gender differences in dating violence, unlike many other studies around intimate partner violence, it does suggest that dominance is a consistent motivating factor (Straus, 2008). In many ways Straus' discussion of dominance sounds similar to the construct of entitlement, however there are some problems with the discussion. Straus does not provide a clear definition of the construct of dominance and then switches between discussing dominance as a risk factor for violence and then violence a means to maintain dominance. For the current study, theory will guide the conceptualization of the sequence of events that lead to violence, as well as where entitlement comes from and how it interacts with other behaviors; this should provide a stronger foundation than was used in Straus' study and therefore clearer results.

Additionally, entitlement could potentially fill the gap connecting anger (emotion) to aggression (behavior), or the factor that influences a person to act on the emotion.

Entitlement may explain why a person acts aggressively toward a dating partner, because the person believes he or she has a right to do so. Currently, the literature is missing information on how emotions translate into abusive behavior. By furthering the understanding of how entitlement connects emotion to abusive behavior, we can create intervention strategies that specifically target this dysfunctional manifestation of an emotion.

Another potentially important area of study is the role of gender in dating violence. The aggression literature encompasses both intimate relationships and general interactions among people. Findings in the general population provide insight into male and female behaviors, which can be used in developing an understanding of what happens within relationships. In the general population, levels of anger (the emotion) are similar across gender, but aggression (the behavior) varies. The difference is not in the emotion of anger, but in the act of aggression, indicating that the source of the aggression is not the direct result of anger (Archer, 2004; Buss & Perry, 1992). In other words, men and women experience anger similarly, but men show more aggressive actions. Men tend to be more violent and physically aggressive, but studies of the general interactions (as opposed to intimate relationship interactions) show this aggression is more often directed toward other men. Verbal aggression is also typically higher among men, and emotional aggression is higher among women (Archer, 2004; Buss & Perry, 1992).

In terms of age, the results are mixed as to whether aggression increases with age, though it seems that indirect aggression increases in adolescence among females, and males catch up in this area later on (Archer, 2004). Other studies indicate that jealousy, rather than anger, are an indicator of aggression within relationships (Foran & O'Leary,

2008), again suggesting that abuse is not merely the result of emotion, but rather an emotion that is relative to another individual. Results reported in both the entitlement literature and abuse literature suggest the same idea: motivation for abuse needs an emotion that is relative to another person. Entitlement, which inherently involves a comparison to another individual, could confirm this supposition.

The literature gathered over recent decades indicates that dating violence is a prevalent and serious problem with devastating effects for victims (Gover, 2008). Better understanding of perpetration is needed to inform prevention efforts. Research on non-intimate relationships indicates that men have higher levels of physical and verbal aggression, but the results are mixed when studying romantic relationships. Additionally, gaps exist in the research concerning the various forms of aggression (i.e. physical, sexual, emotional, financial), with research focusing on only one or two forms at a time. Research about entitlement has also focused on general relationships and more research is needed on romantic relationships. The proposed study will synthesize these pieces (entitlement, abuse, and gender) to gain a better understanding of whether entitlement is a motivating factor in the use of aggression and the perpetration of abuse within romantic relationships. The study will focus on whether sense of entitlement is linked to the use of abusive behaviors in relationships. A specific focus on gender differences in terms of sense of entitlement will add to the knowledge base regarding gender differences in motivation of abuse and potentially provide points of intervention to prevent further dating violence.

Definitions

The dating abuse literature is inconsistent in its use and definition of various terms. A few of the most critical and widely used terms are dating violence, dating abuse, aggression, and abusive behaviors. Although more terms are used in the literature, these have been selected for their relevance to the current study. Many of these terms are used interchangeably or inconsistently, from practical definitions to legal definitions (Johnson, 2006; Johnson, 1999; Stark 2010; Stark 2009). Key terms are defined and explained for use in the current study.

Dating violence is a pattern of controlling behaviors in a dating relationship (NCVC, n.d.). This term is also referred to as “dating abuse”, as they have the same definition. Dating violence encompasses a number of controlling behaviors including physical, sexual, emotional, and economically controlling behaviors. Dating relationships include any intimate relationship that has not yet been legally defined by marriage; this may range from a single date to a multi-year relationship that has not yet progressed to a legal marriage. Further explanation of the types of abusive behaviors are discussed in the next chapter.

Aggression is the use or threat of physical violence. Aggression literature generally refers to studies that do not focus specifically on intimate relationships, therefore results from aggression studies may cover strangers, familial relationships, friendships, or acquaintances. However, the literature is sometimes inconsistent in its use of terms and occasionally studies will mix types of relationships within studies and include romantic relationships, or incorrectly refer to abusive behaviors as relationship aggression, resulting in the information being classified under aggression instead of

intimate partner abuse. Unless specifically noted in this dissertation, studies on aggression do not refer to intimate relationships. Although not focusing on intimate relationships, the aggression literature has many gendered outcomes and therefore has relevance for application to gendered nature of dating violence perpetration.

Abusive behaviors are the strategies used to control another person, thereby making it an abusive relationship. One time use of an abusive behavior does not necessarily indicate an abusive relationship, rather there must be a pattern of abusive behaviors for it to be deemed an abusive relationship (Stark, 2010). Although the parameters vary, it is generally accepted that the severity of abusive behaviors increase with length of time in the relationship but that some behaviors can begin early on in the relationship (Billingham, 1987; Neufeld, McNamara, & Ertl, 1999). There is also evidence that the abusive behaviors are connected to the level of commitment to the relationship, explaining the increase in severity over time (Billingham, 1987).

Theoretical Perspective

Several theories seek to explain the relationship between gender and aggression but fail to connect the broader issues of gender patterns with the micro level issues of interpersonal violence. Gender and Power Theory (Connell, 1990; Maharaj, 1995) and Gender Stratification Theory (Blumberg, 1984) both provide interesting frameworks for understanding differences in men and women, but lack some of the nuances necessary to frame the current constructs. In contrast to these theories' inability to explain individual level phenomena, Evan Stark's discussion of coercive control provides a useful tool for understanding perpetration (Stark, 2007) but does not function as a fully-fledged theory by which we can understand the interaction of numerous variables. Self-Salience Theory

(Rosenfield, Vertefeuille, & McAlpine, 2000) provides the best outline for understanding how gender and entitlement interact in determining treatment of others.

Gender & Power Theory, also called Social Theory of Gender, focuses on wider societal influences and the subsequent impact on gender differences, but fails to explain the differences in aggression between genders (Connell, 1990; Maharaj, 1995). This theory asserts that the state has an important role in gender relations, creating an institutionalization of power relations that is consistent and persistent because of its breadth of control. Within this structure are sub-networks of power, one of which includes the family (Connell, 1990), a potential area for abuse of power where domestic violence (and similarly, dating violence) might be found. This gendered network is due to a long history of men and women occupying particular positions within the network. Because of the gendered structure within the wider political structure, the gender structure continues down throughout the substructures, again down to the individual level of family and relationships through various policies, laws, and agencies that might focus on a particular gender. However, the gendered divisions of the state are not static, as labor and political stations change over time, giving opportunities for change or shifts within the institution (Connell, 1990).

Another way of thinking about this theory is hegemonic masculinity (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Hegemonic masculinity is centered on the actions that maintain male dominance over women, not just the expectations or identities that contribute (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Gender and Power theory attempts to provide answers to how gender and oppression are organized, thereby giving opportunities for addressing the ways that dominance is propagated (e.g. media and division of labor)

(Maharaj, 1995). That is, the theory explains the macro level sources that perpetuate male dominance.

The theory of Gender and Power largely focuses on the institutionalization of gender and wider societal implications of gender. While it discusses the connection between society and individuals, it does not provide understanding of violence against women on a micro level. Given the current focus on entitlement, which stems from a body of evidence suggesting this is a factor in perpetration of abuse, we need a theory that can explain how entitlement, gender, and abuse interact. If entitlement is understood as the hegemonic masculinity within Gender and Power Theory, then the abusive behaviors are the manifestation of the power differential, but the explanation of the connection by this theory is still vague. The theory does not explain how an individual translates this hegemonic masculinity into abusive behaviors on a personal level. Testing the connection of society and the individual through research becomes difficult, and the implications may be difficult to act on or may not provide realistic or targeted points of intervention. The limitations of trying to apply this theory to intervention have been recognized, as the theory becomes too broad to identify practical points of intervention (Wingwood & Diclemente, 2000).

Gender Stratification Theory examines the relationship between differential power and privilege and the gender dynamics that tie into these concepts (Blumberg, 1984). This is similar to Gender and Power Theory, but has focused more on communities or groups and the division of labor and tasks between genders. Marxist interpretations of this theory focus on the contributions of women through labor and society and how that relates to power (Blumberg, 1984). As the theory evolved, the focus

shifted to the male dominance of resources (Blumberg, 1984). As women gain more power, specifically economic power, the use of force by men to maintain control diminishes. For women with less power, men will be more likely to use force (including physical) to maintain their dominance (Blumberg, 1984). As the theory evolved, criticisms arose about the lack of cohesion among the ideas and the simplicity of the constructs (Collins, Chafetz, Blumberg et al., 1993). This led to an inclusion of societal situations such as reproductive health and death rates, as well ideologies of gender roles, in attempt to explain more social phenomena.

The problem with the application of Gender Stratification Theory to the proposed topic of study is that it only loosely applies to the constructs and known literature of the topic to be studied (i.e. entitlement and dating abuse). Gender Stratification Theory posits that economic power is the key to neutrality, but for dating couples who have relatively small economic power (from either gender) and whose finances may or may not be intertwined, this construct would at best be only one small component of a wider issue. While economics may be critical in balancing power on both an individual and societal level, it is overly simplistic to assume that economic power is the absolute answer to violence against women. The theory has expanded in the last few decades to examine other aspects of gender stratification and its connection to women's status, such as mortality, education, fertility, and labor force participation (Huber, 1986; Williamson & Boehmer, 1997). In an application of the theory to women's rights in El Salvador, Blumberg (2001) recognizes that economic power is not the only factor in elevating women's status. It is maintained that economic power can decrease violence in the home, but the article concludes that organization and training also contributes to wider societal

influence and power (Blumberg, 2001). The application of this theory to dating violence appears to be limited, but also omits any individual level indicators such as motivation. Even considering the addition of societal influences, gender roles, and health, the theory still lacks a solid understanding of how these factors interact to produce systematic violence against women. The theory is weakened by its literal and direct understanding of power and lacks the structural ability to account for the many nuances of social problems.

Both Gender & Power Theory and Gender Stratification Theory examine issues of gender and inequality on a macro level but have problems with real world application. These theories are not widely used in explaining domestic violence, likely because the macro focus of the theories does not translate into micro or even mezzo level interventions. To focus on both gender and entitlement, a theory is needed that can explain broad patterns in domestic violence while accounting for nuances of individual level characteristics.

Coercive control is a construct that attempts to explain gender differences in perpetration of abuse on an individual level (Stark, 2007). Although referred to as a theory in Stark's book, coercive control is better understood as a construct than a theory because it focuses solely on how men use coercive control in an abusive relationship; the construct does not offer a broader explanation of gender differences. Briefly, coercive control is described as a means by which men, but typically not women, abuse a partner (Stark, 2007). Coercive control involves many different tactics that rely on stereotypical roles of men and women (Stark, 2007). It is a "structural [form] of deprivation, exploitation, and command that [compels] obedience indirectly by monopolizing vital

resources, dictating preferred choices, microregulating a partner's behavior, limiting her options, and depriving her of supports needed to exercise independent judgment" (Stark, 2007, p. 229). This construct is incredibly useful in understanding the different techniques used by men and women who are abusive; men use coercive control, women typically do not (Stark, 2007). While Stark does make the case for broader influences contributing to a man's use of coercive control, there is not a great deal of explanation as to how these broader influences translate into personal motivation. Finding a theory that encompasses the necessary constructs while also providing adequate explanation of the connections between them is difficult. Self-Salience Theory, however, covers all of these points.

Self-Salience Theory is based on an understanding of gender differences in roles and power, but focuses more specifically on the connection between factors that contribute to behavioral differences among the sexes (Rosenfield, Vertefeuille, & McAlpine, 2000). Specifically, the theory examines privilege as it relates to behaviors toward others (Rosenfield, Lennon, & White, 2005). Privileging the self over others leads to an external understanding of where the problem resides; the result is externalizing behaviors such as aggression or delinquency. Privileging others over the self leads to an internal locus of understanding and the internalizing of problems (e.g. depression and anxiety) (Rosenfield et al., 2005). These concepts fit well with the concept of entitlement, or an extreme form of privileging the self over others, and can be understood as a wider societal problem of male privilege as well as an individual level of privileging the self over one's partner. The theory addresses gender, aggression, and both individual and societal issues. For these reasons, this theory has been selected as a

theoretical base and framework for the current study. This theory will be discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Summary

Dating violence is clearly a significant problem that needs more attention, particularly when it comes to understanding motivation for perpetration. Sense of entitlement is a promising area for informing the literature regarding perpetration of dating violence because it already has been shown to be a motivator in other forms of violence. To fully explore the relationships among dating violence, sense of entitlement, and gender, theory is needed as a foundation for research. The next chapter provides a more in-depth review of the literature regarding the aforementioned constructs, as well as a detailed explanation of the Self-Salience Theory and its usefulness in exploring dating violence, sense of entitlement, and gender.

CHAPTER II

Dating violence is a pervasive problem in the United States with as much as half of adolescents experiencing some form of abuse (Halpern, Oslak, Young, Martin & Hupper, 2001; Hanson, 2002; Jackson, 1999; Jezl, Molitor & Wright, 1996) and many victims experiencing serious health and mental health consequences (Tolman & Rosen, 2001). The National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAW), sponsored by the National Institute of Justice, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, found that about 25 percent of women report having been raped or physically assaulted by an intimate partner at some point in their lifetime; annually this translates into about 1.5 million women who are raped or physically assaulted by a partner (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Women are significantly more likely than men to be victimized by an intimate partner through rape, physical violence or stalking (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). About 26% of teenage girls report having been repeatedly verbally abused in a relationship, and 1 in 3 teenagers report having a friend or peer who has been abused (Teenage Research Unlimited, 2006). Victims of domestic violence are more likely to suffer from depression, generalized anxiety disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder, and substance abuse (Tolman & Rosen, 2001) and are more likely to have health problems such as impaired physical and social functioning and general health status (Ackard & Neumark-Sztainer, 2002; Coker et al., 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001). Victims also have more problems than the general population with homelessness, evictions, having utilities turned off, and insufficient food (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001).

Given the prevalence of dating violence and the poor outcomes for victims, it is essential to understand what factors contribute to the perpetration of violence to create programs to prevent or treat violent offenders. The following review of the literature discusses relevant topics of entitlement, types of abusive behaviors and how these topics relate, and then discusses issues in measurement that occur when trying to understand the issue of dating violence. The review builds the case that entitlement is a better construct for understanding motivation of violence than other constructs (e.g. narcissism, self esteem) while also making the case that gender is an important factor in understanding abuse. Finally, the literature review explains Self-Salience Theory and how it helps provide a framework for understanding the aforementioned variables and how to measure them in the current study.

Entitlement

The construct of entitlement is central to this study. It is defined as a person's belief that his or her wants or needs should come before another's. It is conceptually complex, being understood both as a subcategory of narcissism, but also distinct from deservingness (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline & Bushman, 2004; Feather, 2003). Deservingness is based on judgments of a person's actions or the outcomes of that person's actions, whereas entitlement is based on social norms, law, or formal and informal rules (Feather, 2003). Entitlement connotes a positive outcome, such as being entitled to a fair trial, but not a negative outcome, such as a punishment. The key difference appears to be that entitlement is understood by social rules that apply to a group, while deservingness is based on the individual's behavior (Feather, 2003; Lerner, 1987). However, this distinction becomes less clear when considering personal

perception of one's entitlements. The discrepancy lies not between "what people want and what they believe is fair" but rather in the competing entitlements (Lerner, 1987, p. 115). In other words, as long as one's entitlement is not threatened by another's, there is no problem, but if another person's benefits are perceived to impinge on one's own benefits, a threat or problem arises (Lerner, 1987).

Given the understanding that entitlement involves relativity to another person, this area has potential for understanding why people react to certain behaviors or circumstances within intimate relationships. Lerner (1987) suggests there needs to be a perceived threat against one's own entitlement. A seemingly innocuous behavior by the victim may be interpreted by the abuser as a threat, therefore he or she might react in an abusive manner; the problem lies not with the victim's behavior, but rather the abuser's *interpretation* of the behavior. One study examined entitlement in terms of a man's right to batter his partner, with results indicating that men who believe they are entitled to beat their wives are more likely to batter their partners (Silverman & Williamson, 1997). This particular study asked very specifically about the man's right to beat his wife, which is a very narrow interpretation of entitlement as it focuses entirely on beating and under what circumstances it is acceptable to beat a partner. This is problematic because rather than treating entitlement as a construct made up of numerous behaviors and beliefs, it treats entitlement as individual acts. The current study aims to understand entitlement in terms of privileging oneself over a partner, by using a scale with multiple questions that encompass a broader construct of entitlement. In doing so, sense of entitlement is understood as a construct that indicates a general attitude about privileging oneself over a

partner, which could then be considered as a potential motivation for behavior in numerous situations.

The construct of entitlement is in the same family as narcissism and self-esteem because it involves feeling of self-worth; therefore there are some useful findings from these other bodies of literature that can help inform the direction of entitlement research. Evidence from the narcissism and self esteem literature suggests a connection between entitlement and aggression or physical violence (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006). An experimental study of narcissism and aggression found that higher levels of narcissism were associated with higher levels of aggression, but that perceived similarities with the other person attenuated the aggression (Konrath et al., 2006). However, the same study also found that even those with low narcissism demonstrated more aggression when slighted by someone they perceived as closer to them (Konrath et al., 2006). So while higher levels of narcissism may increase aggression, there must be another motivating factor. The aforementioned study implies that overall narcissism is not a perfect answer and the authors suggest that it might be that self-worth relative to another holds the solution. Although the authors do not specifically call this relative self-worth “entitlement”, their discussion sounds very similar to the construct.

Another study suggests that the combination of narcissism and social rejection is a powerful predictor of aggression (Twenge & Campbell, 2003), while more recent research found that fear of negative evaluation by a partner predicted both psychological and physical aggression in college dating relationships (Hanby, Fales, Nangle, Serwik, & Hedrich, 2012). Again, the social rejection component suggests that aggression has some

relevance to the perception of other people. As with the previous study, it appears that the answer to what motivates aggression might be in the construct of entitlement, as it is not narcissism (the feeling of being more deserving than everyone) but rather the sense of entitlement (the feeling of being more deserving than a particular person). Results of a series of analyses indicate that self-esteem is not a good predictor of aggression, but that social rejection is; or to put it another way, it is not someone's overall sense of self that motivates aggression, but rather his sense of self relative to another person.

The construct of entitlement, as a subconstruct of narcissism, encompasses both heightened self worth and the relativity to another person. This relative sense of privilege or superiority may be the factor that allows an individual to justify acts of aggression. In a discussion of threatened egotism and aggression, the argument is made that egotism is connected to aggression, but that variables that moderate this relationship need more research to fully understand how the relationship works (Baumeister et al., 1996). The authors also argue that although self esteem has often been examined in the aggression literature, narcissism and egotism are more likely the main factors in aggression. Furthermore, while people may have low self esteem in general or in certain areas, they may have higher self esteem in specific areas (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995). This could mean that entitlement could be higher or lower depending on the specific domain, and these constructs should be examined in the specific context, such as intimate relationships.

It is also important to consider the gender differences in entitlement. First, women are sometimes shown to have a depressed sense of entitlement, as indicated by a study of pay rate (Jost, 1997). The women in this experimental study of self evaluation

were found to pay themselves at a lower rate than men despite independent judges finding no difference in the quality or amount work (Jost, 1997). Conversely, men show a higher sense of entitlement, which was connected to aggressive acts toward women in a mixed-methods study of 46 undergraduate men examining men's perceptions of date rape and acquaintance rape (Yescavage, 1999). The study did not specifically identify a scale measuring the construct of entitlement, however the findings have some implications for this topic. Sexually aggressive males (those who engaged in any form of sexual aggression) were found to not only blame the victim for various rape scenarios, but also showed elements of entitlement according to this author when they stated that the man in the scenario "did what he had to", and by focusing on the control the man had to use (1999, p. 809). Given the evidence that entitlement has gendered trends and the ongoing debate about gender and abuse (to be discussed later in this chapter), the current study will include gender as a specific focus in analysis.

Hypermasculinity has been found to be associated with aggression, but evidence suggests when it occurs within an intimate relationship, it has more to do with gender role masculinity (Jakupcak, Lisak, & Roemer, 2002). Specifically, it appears that threats to gender role masculinity may be a key factor in abusive behaviors (Jakupcak, Lisak & Roemer, 2002; Lisak & Roth, 1988), and though it is not referred to as entitlement, the concept is similar if not the same. These results, along with the results of studies on narcissism, self-esteem, and social rejection, all suggest that it is not self-worth alone that causes abuse, but rather a self-worth relative to another person. Within intimate relationships, it is likely the relative sense of self-worth to the partner that acts as a

catalyst (as opposed to sense of entitlement over people outside the relationship) and therefore the current study will examine entitlement as it relates to an intimate partner.

Dating Abuse

To further understand how entitlement might be useful in explaining the phenomenon of dating abuse, this section will cover the existing literature on dating abuse. This section covers prevalence data, victimization and perpetration.

The National Center for Victims of Crime Dating Violence Resource Center (NCVC) (n.d.) defines dating violence as “controlling, abusive, and aggressive behavior in a romantic relationship” and states that these behaviors are made up of verbal, emotional, physical, and sexual abuse (NCVC, n.d.) The NCVC also clarifies that abuse can occur in both heterosexual and homosexual relationships (NCVC, n.d.). Abuse is a serious problem among adolescents and young adults (Bergman, 1992; Glass et al., 2003; Halpern et al., 2001; James, West, Deter & Armijo, 2000; Smith, White & Holland, 2003; Teenage Research Unlimited, 2006). Seventy-five percent of 16-18 year olds have been in a serious dating relationship, dated, or “hooked up” (indicating some kind of sexual involvement without commitment). Almost two thirds of teens surveyed reported controlling behaviors by their partners and one third feared for their physical safety within the relationship (Teenage Research Unlimited, 2006). A national sample of adolescents aged 12-17 indicates that the prevalence of serious physical and sexual assault (i.e. serious physical injury or some form of sexual penetration) is about 2.7% for girls, and 0.6% for boys, noting that a risk factor is increased age (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008).

Despite a substantial amount of current data regarding adolescent dating violence, the landmark studies with national data of college students is becoming outdated.

Previous but dated studies suggest that about one third of male and female college students experience physical abuse, and about half of college women experience sexual assault, within or outside an intimate relationship (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; White & Koss, 1991). More recent research suggests that experiencing dating violence in adolescence is a predictor of experiencing dating violence in young adulthood (Smith, White & Holland, 2003). Eighty-eight percent of women experienced at least one incident of physical or sexual violence between adolescence and the fourth year of college (Smith et al., 2003). Although this is a broad definition, it does indicate an alarming rate of victimization among young adult women. Even a definition limited to severe forms of violence provided a rate of 66% of women being victimized during the same time period (Smith et al., 2003).

Relevant information is also available from a study of high school students participating in a drop-out prevention program. In one study, dating violent males scored higher on externalization (aggression, hostility, hyperactivity) and dating violent females scored higher on internalization (depression, anxiety, withdrawal) (Chase, Treboux & O'Leary, 2002). These statistics represent respondents who use violence; however the results are very different for male versus female perpetration, which lends credibility to the criticisms of data that say women are just as violent, if not more violent, than men. The study used the Conflict Tactics Scale in data collection and the authors note that the behavioral outcomes may indicate that women's violence may be self-defensive (Chase et al., 2002). Regardless of the debate over which gender is more violent, the

aforementioned study supports Evan Stark's discussion that the motivations for perpetration are different among men and women.

Much of the literature focuses on physical violence, but emotional control, sexual assault, and economic abuse are also problems within romantic relationships (Jezl, Molidor & Wright, 1996). Physical violence against women is frequently accompanied by emotionally abusive behavior as part of a pattern of control and domination by the partner (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). The existence of multiple forms of abuse (physical, sexual, psychological) within a relationship leads to worse outcomes for victims, with less victim satisfaction in the relationship and greater psychological aggression from the abuser than victims of only one form of abuse (Katz, Moore & May, 2008). This suggests a compounding effect when multiple forms of abuse are being used. The next section will discuss the major types of behaviors used in abusive relationships.

Abusive Behaviors

The previous section introduced a number of behaviors that are used as a means to control one's partner in a dating abusive relationship. This section provides a more in depth look at the 4 main types of abuse: Physical, emotional, sexual, and a more recently accepted category, economic. It is important to examine each of these areas individually as each has unique characteristics and consequences.

Physical abuse. Controlling a partner through physical abuse in dating relationships is related to negative outcomes for victims. Victims report lower physical and mental quality of life (Coker et al., 2000). They are more likely to have problematic dieting behaviors such as using laxatives or diet pills or binge eating (Ackard & Neumark-Sztainer, 2002). Physical abuse victimization is connected to higher rates of

feeling sad or hopeless, having suicidal thoughts, other physical altercations, and unprotected sex (Howard, Wang, & Yan, 2007; Silverman, Raj, Mucci, et al., 2001).

Physical abuse victims have also been associated with smoking, drug use, younger age of sexual activity, and pregnancy (Silverman et al., 2001). However, self esteem is not significantly related to physical abuse victimization and has no effect on terminating the relationship, remaining in the relationship, or never getting involved in physically abusive relationships (Jezl, Molidor, & Wright, 1996).

The prevalence of female physical perpetration against male victims is debated in the literature due to the use of the problematic Conflict Tactics Scale, so it remains important to examine this to prevent and treat the problem with caution (Straus, 2008). Male victims show similar problems to female victims, such as feeling sad, hopeless, and depressed (Howard & Wang, 2003). Thus, it is important to recognize that both male and female victimization and perpetration needs to be examined to provide the most effective treatment and prevention practices (Straus, 2008). This debate is discussed in detail in the section on Measurement Issues.

Although the rates of victimization among men and women are still being debated, the experiences of women are generally more severe. Women are more likely to experience fear and anxiety within relationships than men, also contributing to the argument that although women can also be violent, the risk and fear is greater for female victims (Jackson, 1999). Finally, women are more likely to sustain greater injury from physical abuse at the hands of men (Foshee, 1996; Jackson, 1999; Katz, Kuffel, & Coblentz, 2002).

Emotional/verbal abuse. The terms emotional, verbal, mental and psychological abuse all turn up in the violence literature and cover similar constructs. Emotional abuse (which encompasses all of the aforementioned types), might include making demeaning comments, destroying a partner's self esteem, screaming/yelling, intimidation, isolating a partner from family and friends, or minimizing and denying the abuse. Emotional abuse victimization has been found to be negatively correlated with self-esteem for women but not men, meaning women experience more problems from psychological abuse than men (Jezl, Molidor & Wright, 1996). Psychological aggression was positively associated with psychological distress (e.g. fear, depression, anxiety) (Jouriles et al., 2009). Further analyses of psychological and physical abuse indicated that psychological aggression accounts for considerably more variance in fear than physical aggression (Jouriles et al., 2009; Sackett & Saunders, 1999).

Sexual abuse. People can also be controlled through multiple kinds of sexual abuse, which encompasses rape, sexual assault, coercion, pressuring or threatening a person into sexual acts, or using drugs and alcohol as a coercive measure. Rape can include vaginal, oral, or anal penetration of a victim against her will (Warshaw, 1994). It can be perpetrated by a stranger, but far more commonly it is a person known to the victim (1994). For example, about 24% of completed rapes and 15% of attempted rapes among college women are perpetrated by a boyfriend (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000). Sexual violence is often omitted or very limited in the dating violence literature (White, McMullin, Swartout, Sechrist, & Gollehan, 2008), however the general evidence indicates that men are more likely to perpetrate sexual violence and women are more likely to be victims (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006).

Sexual abuse in relationships produces serious problems for victims. It is associated with drug use, younger age of sexual activity, and considering or attempting suicide (Silverman et al., 2001). Similar to physical abuse, sexual abuse is also associated with heavy smoking and drinking as well as weight and diet issues, including using laxatives or diet pills and binge eating (Ackard & Neumark-Sztainer, 2002; Silverman et al., 2001). Sexual abuse also creates issues of posttraumatic stress and depression in victims (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008).

It is important to include sexual abuse in a study of dating violence because of the serious implications for victims and the number of sexual assaults that occur within dating relationships. The existing dating violence literature is severely lacking in understanding of sexual abuse within dating relationships (White et al., 2008).

Economic abuse. The connection between domestic violence and economic abuse is well established (Bell, 2003; Brush, 2004; Yoshihama, Hammock & Horrocks, 2006) but is a relatively new area that has yet to be examined in the context of dating relationships. Economic abuse is one of the methods that abusers use to maintain control of their partners (Adams, Sullivan, Bybee, & Greeson, 2008) through compromising the victim's self-sufficiency. Abusers will sometimes interfere with attending school or obtaining work, or even prohibit working (Bell, 2003; Shepard & Pence, 1988). In a study that interviewed victims, Bell (2003) found that some women felt they had lost their jobs because of harassment by their abuser at work. Others lost their jobs because of missing time due to assaults or an inability to focus because of depression and anxiety (Bell, 2003). Another study found similar results of reported low self-esteem and low confidence leading to an inability to obtain or maintain work (Shepard & Pence, 1988).

As stated above, much of the existing literature focuses on victimization, leaving major gaps in the understanding of perpetration of economic abuse.

Perpetration motivation. The literature on perpetration of abusive behaviors within intimate relationships is meager. Much of the existing literature focuses on the debate over which gender is more violent, with little attention paid to understanding the motivations and personality characteristics of perpetrators. There are some differences and similarities between men's and women's personality characteristics and use of abusive behaviors.

There are some characteristics that are unique to female perpetrators. There is a body of evidence indicating that women who use violence do so in self-defense or retaliation (Dekeseredy, Saunders, Schwartz, & Alvi, 1997; Follingstad, 1991). This is supported by evidence that women who use violence in relationships also have a tendency to seek medical attention at higher rates than men (Dekeseredy et al., 1997).

For men and women who perpetrate abuse, there appears to be some overlap of motivating factors. Attachment avoidance has also been found to be a factor in both women's and men's perpetration of emotional abuse (Gormely & Lopez, 2010). Other studies have found that control and dominance are factors for both women's and men's perpetration (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Straus, 2008). Borderline personality organization has also been demonstrated to be a factor for both men's and women's perpetration. (Corvo, Dutton, & Chen, 2008; Clift, 2008; Dutton & Starzomski, 1993).

Some studies have found characteristics that only hold true for men. In a study about fear of rejection, the authors found that the relationship between fear of rejection and nonphysical aggression was significant for men, but not women (Hanby et al., 2012).

Finally, (2009, 2010) Stark has argued at length that there are gender differences in motivations for abuse, with men perpetrating abuse as a means of controlling the partner. Among college men, stress is an important factor in perpetration of abuse (Gormley & Lopez, 2010).

Given the lack of information about what motivates perpetration of abuse from both men and women, more investigation into this topic is essential. Practical interventions and prevention efforts cannot be well informed without empirical evidence as to the characteristics of abusers. Regardless of the debate over which gender is more abusive, we know both men and women use abusive behaviors and therefore better understanding is needed of both gender's perpetration of abuse.

Aggression

The topic of aggression also contributes to the understanding of violence within intimate relationships. While the dating abuse literature focuses just on those in intimate relationships, the aggression literature focuses on all relationships. This can be confusing because mostly it focuses on non-intimate relationships, but sometimes the research includes people in intimate relationships. The reason this area makes a useful contribution to dating abuse is because it focuses on similar behaviors (such as physical violence and intimidation) and looks at motivations for aggressive behavior.

The aggression literature, though mainly focused on the general population, provides some additional insight into differences between male and female acts of aggression. Dating abuse differs from aggression in that *dating abuse* is a pattern of control within a non-marital intimate relationship; *aggression* can be a one-time event between any two individuals who may be dating, friends, acquaintances, strangers, etc.

The term aggression is more commonly used when discussing acts of violence or intimidation in all different types of relationships, rather than between intimate partners. The findings overwhelmingly indicate differences in level of aggression by gender, both in intimate relationships and in other relationships, such as platonic or stranger relationships; men and women differ in the types and amount of aggression they use (Archer, 2004; Buss & Perry, 1992; Foran & O'Leary, 2008).

When examining aggression, anger has been an important consideration. Anger and aggression are different constructs: anger is an emotion and aggression is a behavior. Levels of anger have been found to be the same between males and females, while aggression differs by sex (Archer, 2004). In other words, while the emotion (anger) is similar between sexes, the behavioral outcome (aggression) is different. Overall, males were higher in levels of physical aggression and, to a lesser extent, verbal aggression (Archer, 2004). Females were higher in level of indirect aggression, such as spreading gossip, breaking objects, throwing things, or slamming doors. (Archer, 2004) Generally, males are more likely than females to use risky forms of aggression, including carrying weapons. Archer's work (2004) focused on the U.S. and Western nations, but also found that international studies indicate similar findings for direction of aggression. If these forms of aggression are also true in intimate relationships, men and women might use different types of abuse. Furthermore, the finding that anger is not a cause of aggression suggests that there is a missing component that connects the emotion to the behavior. Entitlement might be the missing component, because it combines the emotion of anger with the belief that the individual has a right to act on that anger.

Studies of aggression within relationships also yield important results that can be applied to dating violence. Within relationships, Foran and O'Leary's (2008) study found that men with jealousy problems, but not anger control problems, were most likely to have the strongest connection between problem drinking and relationship violence; the study surveyed 453 couples who were married or cohabitating, and had children. This follows Archer's (2004) findings that anger is not the problem but rather the problem lies within faulty beliefs about the other person involved. However, this study focused on problem drinking, therefore it is yet unknown whether jealousy, anger, and violence have the same relationships when drinking is not involved. A strength of this study is that it used randomly selected couples from the community, as opposed to a clinical or offender sample, so it should capture the more widespread abuse for which people have not necessary sought or received intervention. Given the findings of Archer (2004) and Foran and O'Leary (2008), there is evidence to suggest that the impetus of aggression is not anger, but another area; the current study continues this line of thinking by exploring if entitlement will fill that gap.

Sexual aggression is examined far less frequently. White et al., (2008) discussed the combination of physical and sexual aggression in relationships. Men who commit only physical or only sexual aggression have different characteristics from each other, but dual perpetrators have the commonalities of misperception of female communication and behaviors (Katz, Moore & May, 2008; White et al., 2008). Analysis of data from 833 men aged 18-19 and entering college provides insight into perpetrators who commit both physical and sexual aggression. Dual perpetrators were found to have higher levels of sexually coercive and physically aggressive behaviors than those who commit only one

form of aggression. One question that the authors suggest for future research is what risk factors contribute to the creation of this distinct group. Given the findings of some similarities between dual perpetrators and those who commit only sexual aggression, the authors suggest these men have issues with sex, power, and self-centered gratification (White et al., 2008). The suggestion that power and self-centered gratification are contributing factors in perpetration of violence supports the notion that entitlement, which echoes self-centered gratification and power, might be an important component in understanding dating violence. Given that White et al. (2008) focused on dual perpetration and the suggestion that characteristics of perpetrators might vary by the types of violence used, it is important to test characteristics by separate forms of violence. Therefore, the current study will test entitlement by both overall use of abuse and by subtype of abuse.

Understanding aggression in non-intimate relationships can provide some insight into understanding aggression within intimate relationships. The aggression literature suggests that there is an important gender difference, with men being more likely to be aggressive. Furthermore, the aggression literature suggests that dual perpetrators (those who use both physical and sexual abuse) may be more violent, suggesting that this area should be examined further specifically within relationships to determine if the victims are at greater risk. Most important, however, is that men's and women's emotions are similar, but their behaviors are different, suggesting that another component holds the key in understanding why men are more likely to use aggressive behaviors.

Emerging Adulthood

The focus of the current study is dating violence, which according to definitions could include a wide range of ages. The current literature review has discussed the importance of separating dating violence from other forms of domestic violence and the need to focus on specific types of behavior and constructs. To continue the theme of the need for specificity in research, this study will examine one age range within dating relationships: emerging adulthood.

Emerging adulthood is an important and distinct developmental stage because of the numerous changes in role and responsibilities (Schulenberg, Sameroff, & Cicchetti, 2004). It is a period in which previously well functioning adolescents may experience difficulties, and previously struggling adolescents may improve in well-being (2004). This period of change makes emerging adults a prime target for addressing abusive behaviors and creating healthier relationships as they become independent adults, whether they are struggling or on an upturn. The uncertainty of this period stems from new independence without a clear direction and numerous possibilities for the future (Arnett, 2000). It has become a more distinct period as the length of the stage has increased due to college, later marriage, and time needed in establishing a career and financial independence (Arnett, 2000). It is often typified by college students.

Social contexts such as age, gender, socioeconomic status, and culture lead to different experience (Schulenberg, Sameroff, & Cicchetti, 2004). This period is transitional, and young people can mature out of difficulties experienced during this time. The subjective experience of emerging adulthood identifies the emotional transition as the focal point, including accepting responsibility and making decisions as indicators of adulthood (Arnett, 2000). The emerging adulthood developmental stage is a particularly

salient time to address issues such as violent or aggressive behavior by using the emotional transition, maturation, and desire for responsibility as a medium for intervention or prevention. It is because of the unique context of this developmental stage that the current study will focus on those in this stage, or those aged 18-25, because it is possible that abusive relationships within this age range may differ from other developmental stages.

Measurement Issues

A major debate within the research on interpersonal violence has been going on for several decades. Now that the background has been laid out on dating violence, aggression, entitlement, and emerging adulthood, it is critical to understand the debate over measurement. This section reviews the debate over measurement of interpersonal violence and discusses how it informs the current study's design.

The Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) is commonly used for measuring interpersonal violence in romantic couples and asks about frequency of such behaviors as slapping, hitting, or punching (Archer, 1999; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003; Straus, 1979). The scale was first used about thirty years ago in the National Family Violence Survey, with results indicating that the rates of violence among men and women were equal, if not higher for women. The scale was found to be reliable and valid (Straus, 1979). However, the findings contradicted the accepted paradigm that women were far more often the victims of domestic violence (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003). A debate began with the creation of the scale and continues today.

Supporters of the CTS argue that repeated similar findings of gender symmetry in intimate partner violence indicate validity. Additionally, some have argued that the

backlash to these findings is based on a one dimensional view of domestic violence based on the feminist movement and its researchers and activists (Dutton & Nicholls, 2005). Dutton and Nicholls (2005) cite confirmatory bias in feminist findings that women are more often victimized than men.

The criticism of the CTS is founded on methodological issues. In particular, many have criticized the construct validity of the scale (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003). The scale is intended to measure the frequency of aggression between partners; however it fails to consider contextual factors of physical violence, such as whether a person reacts defensively. Johnson (1999) has been a vocal critic of the CTS. Assuming gender-symmetry in intimate partner violence, as the CTS results suggest, has implications for intervention and policy. As Johnson (1999, p. 4) states, "...it is only when there is a general pattern of power and control, and a pattern of persistent or escalating violence, that a victim would be likely to feel a need to seek help from a shelter and/or to initiate divorce proceedings in response to the violence." It is this particular type of intimate partner violence that is cause for concern physically and emotionally (Johnson & Leone, 2005). Additionally, this particular type of violence generates the victims and perpetrators that access resources such as non-profits organizations, courts and legal systems, making it imperative that considerations are made for gender differences in perpetration and victimization (Johnson, 1995; Johnson & Ferraro, 2000; Johnson, 2006).

Yet another issue in this area is the fact that men who use aggression are less likely to report their own aggressive behaviors (Dutton & Hemphill, 1992; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003). Dutton & Hemphill (1992) found that men reported more socially desirable responses than their partners with similar findings evident with

adolescent boys (Foshee, et al 2007). Therefore, understanding social desirability bias is important to any study that examines intimate partner violence.

Johnson (1994; 2000; 2006) has sought to identify the difference between common couple violence (incident specific violence) and intimate terrorism (a wider pattern of controlling behaviors from one partner to another). This conceptualization accounts for the results on both sides of the argument, again illuminating the possibility that the CTS is not actually measuring abuse (i.e. controlling behaviors) but rather general incidents of violence, a fine but important distinction. Graham-Kevan and Archer (2008) further tested Johnson's theory, finding distinctions between those who are violent-resistant and those who use intimate terrorism. Their findings indicate that those defined as 'intimate terrorists' use a variety of controlling techniques ranging from emotional to physical, as opposed to common couple violence where violence or even control is context or incident specific.

Following Johnson's conceptualization of intimate terrorism as a construct of controlling behavior, the Controlling Behaviors Scale was created to measure the control rather than incidence of abuse (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003). The new scale was based on literature from the Domestic Violence Intervention Project (Pence & Paymar, 1993). This scale specifically focuses on controlling behaviors through emotional/verbal abuse, rather than the traditional scales that focus on physical violence.

Given the controversy and methodological problems surrounding the CTS, this study will use the revised Controlling Behaviors Scale (CBS-R) as a base, with additional scales to measure physical, sexual, and economic abuse, following the intent to measure control rather than incidence of abuse. A literature review of the debate specifically

within dating violence calls for research details to be noted to better understand the findings (Lewis & Fremouw, 2001). In this study, specific attention will be paid to demographics and gender, providing candid discussion of research methods to further knowledge in the area rather than stimulating the debate over the validity of the CTS.

Theory of Self-Salience

Self-Salience Theory is a useful foundation from which to work in understanding the relationship between sense of entitlement, abusive behavior, and gender. The Theory of Self-Salience comes from the supposition that men and women exhibit different internalizing and externalizing behaviors (Rosenfield, Vertefuille & McAlpine, 2000; Rosenfield, Lennon, & White, 2005). Messages received from the world are internalized as part of a schema, or understanding of where the ‘self’ fits with regard to others, in terms of higher, lower, or similar importance. Another construct in this theory is the degree of autonomy or connectedness the individual feels with others, and how the individual’s wants, needs, and desires interact in this internalization. “Self salience combines cognitive, emotional, and moral components” in determining the self’s worth relative to others (Rosenfield, Lennon, & White, 2005, p. 324).

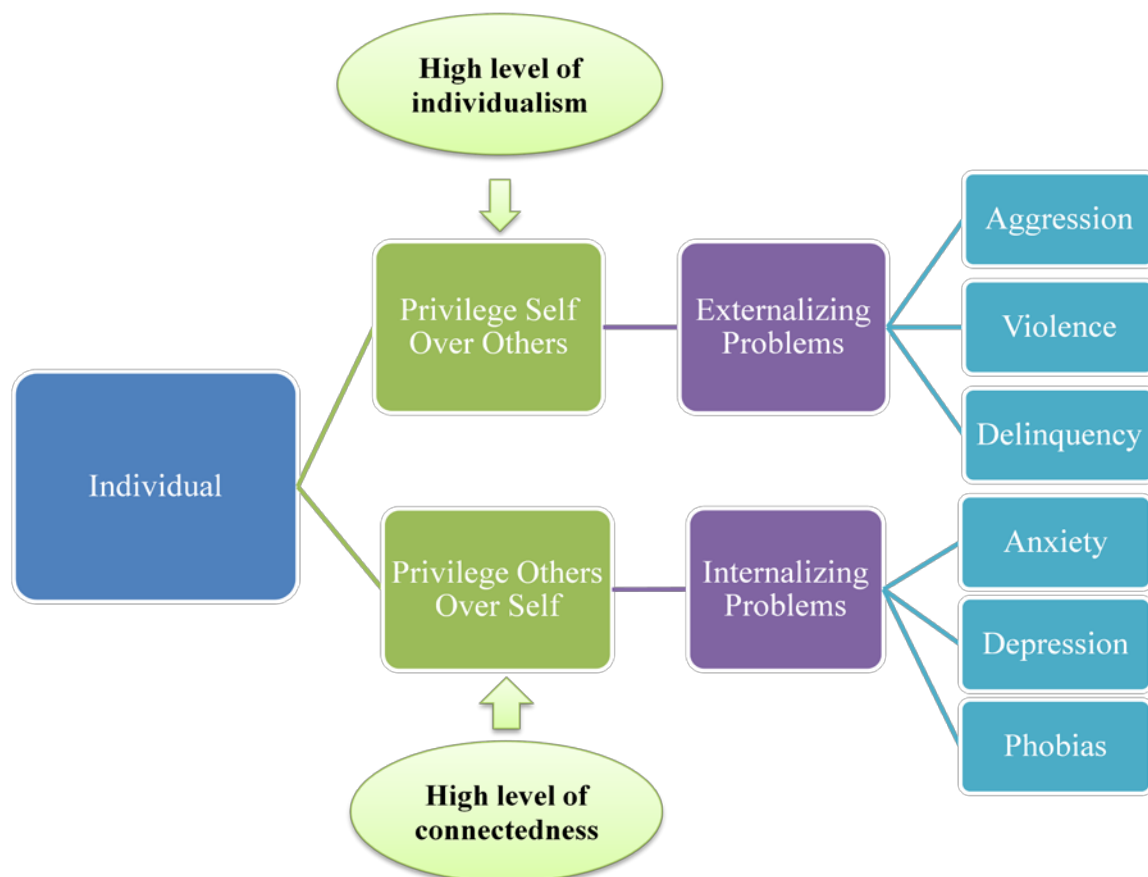
When others are privileged over the self, the locus of blame is internalized and internalizing problems are the result (e.g. depression, anxiety). A person might consider herself to be damaged, while others are not damaged. When this feeling of being damaged is combined with a connection to others, a feeling of responsibility for their welfare, and a feeling that the individual has little impact on others, internalizing problems result, and externalizing problems are unlikely. If the individual feels empathy to others, it is also unlikely that she will act out against others because this would harm

the others (Rosenfield et al., 2005). On the other hand, a schema that promotes the self over others can result in externalizing problems. The individual sees himself as free to act against others because his rights are more important and others are seen as the problem. In an extreme case, “assumptions of entitlement make it unimaginable to hurt oneself” (2005, p. 325). While Rosenfield uses the term privilege, she suggests that entitlement would be an extreme form of privilege. In other words, entitlement can be understood as the belief that privileging oneself over another is acceptable, or even a right.

The theory suggests that adolescents internalize messages from the adult world (Rosenfield et al., 2000; Rosenfield et al., 2005). When adults encourage subordination to others’ interests and discourage autonomy and influence, the adolescent is more likely to privilege others over the self. When adults expect confidence and independence but little connectedness and accommodation to others, the adolescent is more likely to privilege the self over others. Boys tend to privilege the self, while girls tend to privilege others (Rosenfield et al., 2005). Low self salience is connected to internalizing problems and high self salience (or sense of entitlement) is connected to externalizing problems (Rosenfield et al., 2005). Figure 1 is this author’s interpretation of Rosenfield’s Theory.

Figure 1

Theory of Self-Salience (Rosenfield, Lennon & White, 2005) as Applied to General Behavior



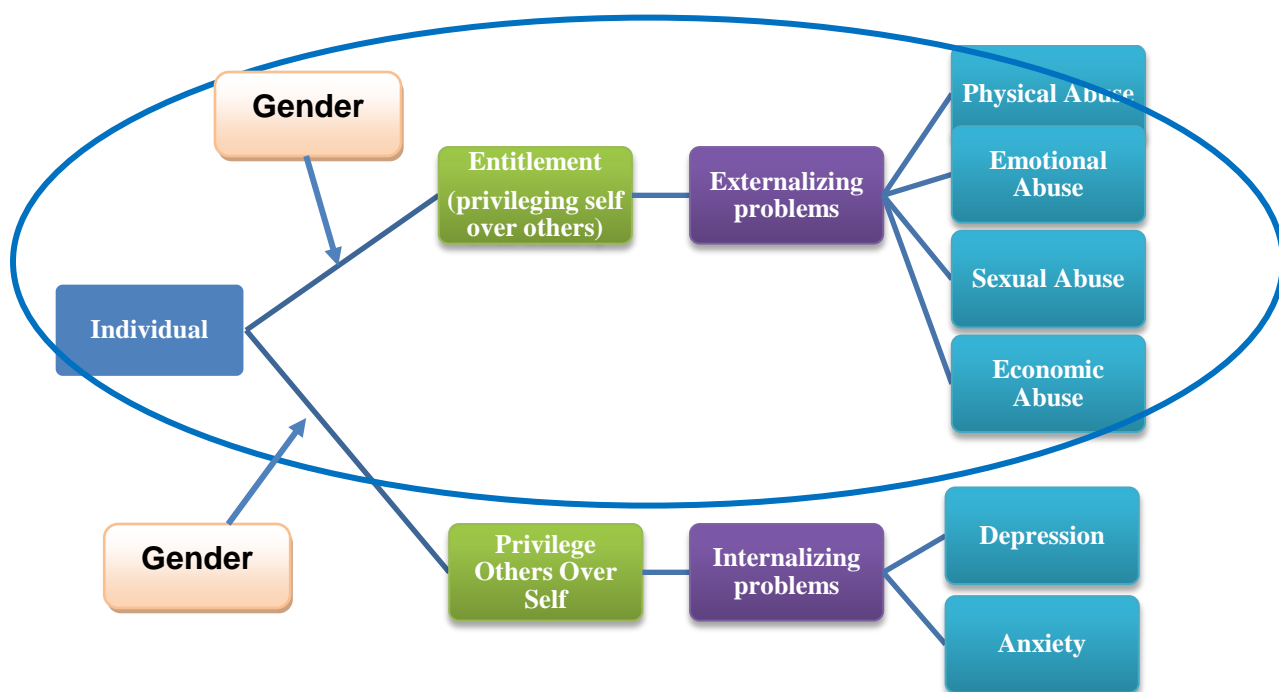
This theory is incredibly useful in understanding the multi-level dynamics that influence abusive behaviors. While the original theory is applied to general behavior, as opposed to behavior within an intimate relationship, it has application to intimate relationships and will be used as such in the current study. Self-Salience Theory explains that the broader world influences how the individual perceives problems; the individual either externalizes or internalizes the source of problems. In an intimate relationship, the

internalization or externalization of the problem could result in either abusive behavior or increase likelihood of being victimized.

The current study seeks to test the connection between privileging the self over others and externalizing behaviors within dating relationships. Specifically, this concept of entitlement (i.e., privileging the self over others), will be examined as a potential motivation for using abusive behaviors within a dating relationship. Figure 2 provides a visual model of theory as it will be tested for the current project.

Figure 2

Self Salience Theory as Applied to Dating Violence, Including Variables to be Tested



Note: The encircled portion of the model includes the variables and relationships to be tested.

Purpose and Scope of the Study

The current study will focus on gender differences in entitlement and abusive (i.e. controlling) behaviors. The specific aims of this study are to determine the prevalence rates of economic, emotional, physical and sexual abuse perpetration among college students in the emerging adulthood phase (ages 18-25). Additionally, the study aims to investigate the relationship between sense of entitlement and perpetration of abusive behaviors, as well as the relationship between entitlement and the perpetration of specific types of abuse (physical, emotional, sexual, and economic). Finally, the study aims to examine the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between sense of entitlement and perpetration of abuse. The study will focus specifically on the emerging adulthood phase (ages 18-25) in an attempt to understand the dynamics of dating abuse within this developmental phase.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between sense of entitlement and abusive behaviors among college students in dating relationships? How does this vary based on overall use of and the four subcategories of abusive behaviors (physical, sexual, emotional, economic)?
2. Do men and women vary significantly in their level of entitlement?
3. Does a multivariate model of entitlement, gender, and other known factors affecting abuse (e.g., length of time in relationship and age) explain a significant amount of the variance of abuse?
4. Does gender moderate sense of entitlement and the subtypes of abusive behaviors used in dating relationships among college students?

The hypotheses based on these research questions are: (1) As sense of entitlement increases, the use of abusive behaviors will also increase. (2) Men will have a higher level of entitlement than women. (3) Gender will moderate the relationship between entitlement and abuse such as men will have a higher sense of entitlement than women and therefore a higher use of abusive behaviors. (4) A regression model of variables significant in the literature (e.g. length of time in relationship and age) will explain a portion of the variance of the dependent variable abuse. However, when gender and entitlement are added to the model, the variance explained will increase significantly.

CHAPTER III

Overview

The forthcoming methods and statistical analyses were used to examine the hypotheses around sense of entitlement and abusive behaviors. The hypotheses suppose that as sense of entitlement increases, so will abusive behaviors; that men will have a higher sense of entitlement than women; that gender will moderate the relationship between entitlement and abusive behaviors; and that a regression model will be significant in explaining some of the variance of the abusive behaviors.

This study uses quantitative methods to examine the relationship between sense of entitlement and abusive behavior in dating relationships. The focus will be on college students from Fairleigh Dickinson University (FDU) in Madison and Teaneck, New Jersey. The study consists of a pilot survey of students from Rutgers University during the fall of 2011, followed shortly thereafter by the primary survey of FDU students. The pilot was intended for testing and revision of the instrument and methods before primary data collection. The data was collected online and the questionnaire included measures that were adapted for the specific aims of this study, using expert feedback to make the instrument culturally and linguistically relevant.

Measures

Entitlement. The Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES) was originally considered for this study as it has been previously validated in the literature; however, the scale is very general and therefore could be problematic, so a different scale was chosen. The PES was created by Campbell et al. (2004) to provide a self-reported measure of psychological entitlement. The final, 9-item scale is highly correlated with the narcissism

and entitlement subscales of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI). The PES was created not in competition with the NPI, but rather as a more accurate scale to measure the particular construct of entitlement (2004). The alpha coefficient for the PES is .85 based on a sample of undergraduate students. In additional testing of the scale with undergraduates, the PES was determined to not be effected by social desirability, to have good test-retest reliability, and to have good discriminate, construct, and convergent validity. The creators examined the PES and aggression, and found that those with higher entitlement scores had higher levels of aggression. The scale was created to be used with a 7-point Likert scale and the results as a sum score. The mean score for men is 29.4 (SD=9.27) and for women is 28.3 (SD=10.22). No significant differences between men and women were reported by the authors, but they noted they might expect men to have higher scores in future tests because of higher levels of narcissism and self-esteem (Campbell et al., 2004).

Further examination of the individual items provided some doubt as to its applicability to the current study. The PES is very general, asking about entitlement in broad terms with nothing specific to intimate relationships. Evidence from the self-esteem literature and the batterers literature suggests that the attitudes that contribute to abuse are specific privilege over the partner (Baumeister, Smart & Boden, 1996); in other words, a sense of privilege over one's partner is more likely to be related to abusive behavior than a sense of privilege over the general population. This led to further investigation for an appropriate scale, which is the scale developed by Dr. Sarah Rosenfield as part of her work in studying privilege among young men and women. This will be referred to as the Privilege Scale.

Rosenfield's original scale had about 18 items, and from this 5 items were selected that were relevant to privileging oneself over the partner. The strength of this scale is the wording, which presents the questions in a manner that is non-threatening and non-judgmental. These questions were used as a basis for understanding the construct of entitlement, or the extreme form of privilege within a relationship. Four additional questions were created to mimic the non-threatening nature of the original items. Together the 9 items explore the ideas that (1) one person's needs and wants should come first, and (2) one person deserves certain things from the partner. For this study, the response-scale format was selected to be 6 points to force respondents to make a decision about their behavior, rather than allowing them to pick a "neutral" option. This is the only scale that does not allow a neutral answer, to reduce frustration and fatigue among respondents as they continue the survey. This can be found under the "Personal Beliefs" section of the questionnaire (Appendix C).

Abuse scales. The current study used a combination of several scales that to measure the various aspects of abuse used in an intimate relationship. Numerous scales exist in the literature that cover one particular area of abuse, but none are comprehensive in addressing physical, emotional, economic, and sexual abuse. The basis of the four abuse scales is an existing scale created by Graham-Kevan and Archer (2003) called the Controlling Behavior Scale (CBS-R). This scale was modeled after the Duluth Domestic Abuse Intervention Project, with an emphasis on emotional and verbal control, including intimidation, coercion, and threats (Pence & Paymar, 1993). The scale uses a sum score, as per Graham-Kevan and Archer's design (2003), however because the other scales in the study all have differing numbers of items, mean scores will be used to give

consistency between scales in the analysis. The scales are scored 1-5, with 1=never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=always. A total mean score for the combined four scales will also be used to capture an overall abuse score.

The Controlling Behavior Scale (CBS-R) was adapted by its creators from its original form to be a 24-item scale that focused on emotionally and verbally controlling relationship behaviors (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003; 2005). To create a more comprehensive understanding of abusive behaviors within a relationship, I added three additional existing, validated scales measuring physical, sexual, and economic abuse to the questionnaire for the current study. The final questionnaire used for this study included 20 out of 24 items of the CBS-R with its focus on emotional/verbal control, physical violence questions, sexual violence questions, and economic control questions.

For the physical section, the survey will include Graham-Kevan's adaptation of Straus' (1979) Conflict Tactics Scale. The physical section consists of 8 items, with the questions rephrased to match how the CBS-R asks about use of behaviors. The physical section also noted that the respondent should only take into account behaviors he or she initiated, rather than behaviors that were defensive. This is an important distinction because defensive behavior would be a reactionary behavior, not a controlling behavior as this study is attempting to measure. While this clarification attempts to distinguish between defensive and offensive behaviors, it is impossible to say for sure whether participants have responded accordingly.

The sexual abuse questions are taken from the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss & Oros, 1982). This determination was based on a review of sexual perpetration scales by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Thompson, Basile, Hertz & Sitterle,

2006). The report compared two scales, the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale and the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES). The SES was chosen as a better fit for this particular study based on its creation specifically for college students, its high internal consistency (.89) and high test-retest correlation (.93). The scale also shows evidence of criterion validity (Koss & Oros, 1982; Thompson et al., 2006). Items were reworded to maintain the intent of the original question while shortening the length to make it easier for respondents to understand and read. Importantly, the SES focuses on elements of coercion, threat, and force, in keeping with the purpose of the study.

The questionnaire will include a scale specifically created by scholars at Michigan State University to measure economic abuse (Adams, Sullivan, Bybee, & Greeson, 2008). The CBS-R has 4 items that measure economic abuse, but these were removed because of the low alpha coefficients (.66 for females and .48 for males) (Graham-Kevan, 2003). Instead, the Scale of Economic Abuse (SEA) was selected because of the extensive testing that went into creating the scale. The total scale alpha was .93 based on testing with women in domestic abuse shelters in previous studies. I shortened the scale to 16 items from its original 28 items to keep the total length of the survey at a minimum. Items were removed if they were more appropriate for married or cohabitating relationships, as this study's focus is on dating relationships in college. As the scale was originally written to measure victimization, items were reworded to reflect perpetration of the behaviors.

Social desirability. Paulhus' Self-Deceptive Denial scale was selected to measure social desirability (Paulhus & John, 1998; Paulhus & Reid, 1991). The Self-Deceptive Denial (SDD) is related to Sackeim and Gur's (1979) construct of

defensiveness and measures the rejection of negative characteristics through 20 items. This scale has not been tested extensively, but it was created specifically to measure the denial of negative characteristics (Paulhus & John, 1998; Paulhus & Reid, 1991). This applies to the current study, where respondents could potentially deny their abusive behaviors. The SDD was selected because the 20 item length can be used without compromising the integrity by removing items and because of its relevance to the current study by focusing on the denial of negative behaviors.

The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MC) is a commonly used 33-item scale created to measure social bias in responses (Reynolds, 1982). This was considered and rejected for the current study because of numerous criticisms and length of the scale. Factor analysis has resulted in several short versions of the MC. Although some have found that shorter forms can be created that are reliable and valid and have far fewer items (Reynolds, 1982; Zook & Sipp, 1985), later research has been much more critical of the short forms (Andrews & Meyer, 2003; Barger, 2002; Loo & Loewen, 2004). Testing of the various short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne scale indicates that the short forms are not reliable, with low fit indices, significant chi squares, and inconsistency across samples (Barger, 2002), while the full scale has been found to have low reliability (Loo & Loewen, 2004). Barger conducted this study with college students and recommends not using any of the short form versions of Marlowe-Crowne with either this or other populations. Given the problems with the MC and the greater relevance of the SDD, the SDD was used in the current study.

Summary of variables. The variables of concern included demographic and scale variables. The demographic variables included gender, length of time in the

relationship, race/ethnicity, age, and campus. The scale variables included social desirability, sense of entitlement, economic abuse, emotional abuse, physical abuse, sexual abuse, and overall abuse. Gender was coded as female=0 and male=1. Only 3 people identified as transgender and therefore these were excluded as outliers. Length of time in relationship was also continuous and measured in months. Race and ethnicity were measured in accordance with how Fairleigh Dickinson records this information: ethnicity asks whether the individual is Latino (0=no, 1=yes) and race asks for identification of one of several categories (1=American/Alaskan Native, 2=Asian, 3=Black/African American, 4=Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, 5=White, 6=2 or more races, 7=other). Age was continuous but limited to only those between the ages of 18-25. The campus variable asked which campus in which the respondent is enrolled (0=Teaneck/Metro campus, 1=Florham Park Campus).

Social desirability was measured by the Self-Deceptive Denial Scale (SDD) and was coded using the recommended methods of the author (Paulhus & Reid, 1991). Half of the twenty questions are reverse coded and then a score of '1' is given to anyone who responded with a 6 or 7 on a scale of 1-7. The score is then summed and the result is a score between 1 and 20. Ultimately a lower score indicates a more honest response, whereas a higher score means a greater denial of negative traits. Sense of entitlement, measured by the Privilege Scale, was coded from 1-6 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=mildly disagree, 4=mildly agree, 5=agree, 6=strongly agree) and was computed into a mean score, still from 1-6. Economic abuse, emotional abuse, physical abuse, sexual abuse, and overall abuse were each converted into a mean score to be consistent between scales. Economic abuse had 9 items, emotional abuse had 20, physical abuse had 8

items, and sexual abuse had 17. All of the items (54) were used to create the mean score for overall abuse. The possible scores for the abuse scales was between 1-5. The response options were 1=never, 2= rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=always.

Research Design

The study was a cross sectional, anonymous survey. Online data collection reduces social desirability bias because a respondent is more likely to be truthful about the use of abusive behaviors in an anonymous survey (Dillman et al., 2009; Kypri, Gallagher, & Cashell-Smith, 2004). The data was collected via Snap software. Qualitative data were not collected as a large scale survey will best answer the research questions of how entitlement relates to abusive behaviors.

Pilot study. The pilot study began by compiling a partial list of professors teaching at least one course at Rutgers, the State University of New Jersey in the Fall 2011 semester. Professor's names were purposefully selected by using the registrar's website and attempting to get a broad selection of faculty from different campuses, schools, and departments. Forty-six names were selected from the following schools and campuses: School of Engineering - New Brunswick (NB) campus, School of Environmental Sciences - NB campus, School of Law - Newark, School of Law – Camden, School of Arts & Sciences - NB campus, College of Arts & Sciences – Camden, College of Nursing – Newark, College of Arts & Sciences – Newark, and the Graduate School – NB campus. Departments included Art, Art History, Computer Science, Education, Political Science, Theatre, Journalism, American History, English, Economics, Criminal Justice, Childhood Studies, Chemistry, Biology, African Studies, American Studies, Anthropology, Chemistry, Geography, Philosophy, and Jewish

Studies. Of the 46 names selected from the registrar's website, 35 had email addresses listed in the Rutgers University system; of these, 34 were emailed. (One was not used because she is the parent of a student in a course I was teaching). The email (see Attachment A) was sent on a Sunday evening. The email's wording reflect Dillman et al.'s (2009) recommendation of using Social Exchange Theory to entice participation.

Additionally, the Deans of the Bachelor's and Master's programs in Social Work agreed to send the email to their respective email listservs. Additional emails were sent to leaders of: Fraternity/Sorority community, Undergraduate Student Alliance of Computer Scientists, American Medical Student Association. The Vice President of Student Life was also contacted for possible leads, as well as the department heads of Statistics/Biostatistics, Political Science, Criminal Justice, and English; none of these people responded. The invitation was also sent via a Student Life listserv that serves mostly Rutgers students and some Rutgers community members announcing various events and opportunities (N=5572). Given the anonymous nature of the study, it is impossible to track how many students responded from the various classes and listservs. The final response for the pilot was N=279.

The pilot was not intended to test the model as described by the research questions; rather it provided an opportunity for improvement before the primary data collection. Using Snap software to collect the data via an online questionnaire, the pilot study was completed over a 2 week period. The questionnaire was formatted to ensure ease of use, with instructions clearly marked and key words underlined or in capital letters. The first page welcomed the students, emphasized the importance of the individual's participation, and thanked the participants. The consent was next, where the

participant was required to respond “yes” (indicating an agreement to the informed consent), otherwise he or she was moved to the thank you page at the end of the questionnaire. The time to complete the survey ranged from 4.55 minutes to 108.15 minutes, with an average time of completion at 15.72 minutes. Given that many of the faculty forwarding the email did not indicate the time of forwarding, it is difficult to tell the timeframe in which students responded; after a few days of sending out the initial emails, the number of responses slowed dramatically.

A review of the items in the questionnaire concluded that most of the questions had good variability; however, some problems were found. Respondents tended to answer all questions, with very little skipping of questions, including the abuse scales. Overall the missing data was less than 5%. The abuse questions had even smaller amounts of missing data (<1%), however these questions were only answered by those currently in a relationship of at least 2 months. Although participants did not skip questions, two of the abuse scales had little variability: economic abuse and sexual abuse. Another issue was that mostly women responded, however, this is likely due to the fact that the largest group of students invited to participate were the Master’s of Social Work students, which is largely female. Furthermore, the Privilege Scale was found to have some problems after an exploratory factor analysis, which indicated multiple factors initially, and after further investigation 1 factor with only 4 items loading (principal axis, direct oblimin rotation).

After reviewing the data for strengths and weaknesses, determinations were made about how to amend the questionnaire before primary data collection. Problems to be addressed included: male respondents, economic abuse scale, sexual experiences survey,

and entitlement scale. Given that more women were invited to participate in the pilot because of the use of the MSW student listserv, it was assumed that the number of male respondents would increase during primary data collection as more men would be invited. A plan was made to use weights during analysis if the percentage of male respondents was problematic after primary data collection. For the economic abuse scale, 7 items were removed that would not generally apply to a younger generation, such as questions about a job. The decision was made by the author to keep some of the items because this is a newer area of study and because there is little information on economic abuse among dating relationships. For the sexual experiences survey, the decision was made to keep the questions as they were in the pilot to keep it consistent with the newly revised scale. Given the low percentage of people who would theoretically have used these behaviors, it is likely that the pilot has not yet captured this population and the primary data would likely yield better variability. The results of the factor analysis on the entitlement scale yielded some concerns as well. Being that this is a new scale, with revisions to the original and new questions added, all questions were kept for the primary data collection to allow for the possibility that a larger, more varied sample would yield different results.

A few changes were also made to the questionnaire based on feedback from participants who sent emails following their completion of the questionnaire. Three students emailed to express concern over such issues as response scales and wording of questions for same sex relationships. The concern over the response scale was that the student wanted a neutral response for the entitlement scale, however this was intentionally excluded to force students to decide the end of the spectrum with which they

most identified. This remained the same for the primary data collection. For the concerns about applicability to same sex relationships, the entire questionnaire was carefully reviewed and 3 questions (1 from the social desirability scale and 2 from the sex experiences survey) were revised to have broader applicability to both heterosexual and same sex relationships.

Primary Data. The primary focus of this study was Fairleigh Dickinson University in Madison/Florham Park and Teaneck, New Jersey. Fairleigh Dickinson University was founded in 1942 and is the largest private university in New Jersey (History and Mission, 2012). It has multiple campuses, both residential and commuter, and offers associate's, bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degree programs. Today, the college has two main campuses in Madison/Florham Park, NJ and Teaneck, NJ. The Florham Park campus is mostly residential while the Teaneck campus (called the Metropolitan campus) is more commuter-based (History and Mission, 2012). A more detailed description of the university's demographics are provided in the next chapter (Table 1).

The entire student body, both undergraduate and graduate, full time and part time, were invited to participate to capture the largest possible sample with which to work. The final analysis included only those ages 18-25, or the emerging adulthood phase (Arnett, 2000). The recruitment process was designed to reflect Dillman's recommendations (Dillman et al., 2009). The emails were sent from the campus Deans, to help boost the credibility of the study, while also citing that it was a Rutgers-based study. Four emails were written to follow Social Exchange Theory to maximize the benefits of participation (Dillman et al., 2009). As designed, the first email invited the

students to participate and provided a link to the survey, the second email will mimicked the first, and the third email followed up, thanked the student, reminded them to participate if they had not already, and again provided the link to the online tool, and a fourth email was a final reminder, again with the link. Dillman's (Dillman et al., 2009) method does not include the survey in the initial email, however the link was included in this study's first email to maximize data collection opportunities. A carefully thought out plan was constructed for the timing of the emails, also based on Dillman's recommendations. These recommendations suggest varying the emails so capture people who might check email at different times of the day or different days of the week. Furthermore, Dillman recommends spacing the emails to remind people to participate, but not make them so close together that they will fatigue or irritate potential respondents (Dillman et al., 2009). Although there was support from the two Deans initially for this format, the actual implementation did not reflect the plan. The Metropolitan/Teaneck campus sent out 3 emails and the Florham Park campus sent out two. Though specific dates were requested, the Deans sent the emails based on their own schedules and other events. Some examples include delays because the Deans had higher priority or too many emails to send out; in one instance, a delay was agreed upon because of a student's death. Additionally, neither Dean was willing to send 4 emails. The final dates were:

Metropolitan/Teaneck campus:

Friday, November 11, 2011

Monday, November 21, 2011

Monday, January 30, 2012

Florham Park/Madison campus:

Tuesday, December 6, 2011

Monday, February 20, 2012 (issue with link, resent with correct link later in the day)

The final response was $N=821$, or about 7% of the total university population. The number of respondents almost doubled from the fall semester to spring semester. While some of the literature from 5-10 years ago suggests that it is possible to get a response rate of 50% or more, more recent studies which used similar methods are getting response rates of 8%-15% (Gutter & Copuer, 2011; Head & Eisenberg, 2010; Shaz et al., 2009; Valenzuela & Kee, 2009; Wolfson, McCoy, & Sutfin, 2009). For the present study, it appears that varying the invitations over two semesters was a useful method. The number of respondents aged 18-25 (emerging adulthood phase) was $n=541$. The sample was further limited to those who were currently in a relationship of at least 2 months for a final $n=312$. The university population as of Fall 2011 was 12,247; 821 students responded. From here, 280 respondents were eliminated that were not aged 18-25, leaving 541. Then, 229 respondents were eliminated because they were not currently in a relationship of at least two months; this resulted in the final $n=312$. The two month cut off was included in the questionnaire, whereby a respondent who had not been in a relationship for at least 2 months was moved past the abuse questions to the end of the questionnaire. This decision was made based on the evidence that abuse appears later in the relationship (Billingham, 1987) and because the abuse questions about abusive behaviors over the previous 2 months. While this limits the sample, it is important to focus on those actively in a committed relationship to ensure that the study is measuring violence within a dating relationship as opposed to measuring memory of past

relationships or relationships that might not be intimate. The advanced analyses in the next chapter will focus specifically on the emerging adulthood, dating sample.

Analysis Methods

The next chapter focuses on the statistical analyses and results. Univariate analyses review the sample by exploring demographic breakdowns and examinations of scale variables. Bivariate analyses look for relationships between demographic variables and scale variables. Multivariate analyses first examine a regression model for abusive behavior, including the variables of interest while controlling for other variables that may impact results. Next, the multivariate analyses use hierarchical regression to explore gender as a moderator of the relationship between sense of entitlement and abuse. All analyses were conducted using SPSS 20 software.

CHAPTER IV

Overview

Analysis began with univariate and bivariate methods before progressing to multivariate analyses. SPSS 20 was used for all analyses. Pooled data from the multiple imputation was used for bivariate and multivariate analyses. First, correlations were run to determine significant relationships between the main scale variables. Next, bivariate analyses were run to determine any differences between campuses. Then, gender was compared to entitlement and the abusive behavior scales to determine significant relationships. Finally, multivariate analysis was conducted by testing a regression model and stepwise regression to determine the effects of gender and entitlement on abusive behaviors.

Sample. Table 1 shows a comparison of the university's published statistics of its student population with the sample population. There was no comparison between FDU's population and the 18-25 year old demographic because the university does not have the data by this subset. Furthermore, although age and length of relationship are included in later analyses, this information is not recorded by the university for the entire university population and therefore cannot be compared between the population and sample.

The university population has more women than men and is mostly white, non-Hispanic. The Metro campus has higher rates of Hispanics and minority racial groups as well as slightly higher percentage of women. The university consists of about 75% seeking undergraduate degrees, with the same being true on both campuses.

Overall, the sample indicates that women, people of white, black, or 2 or more races, and students from the Florham Park campus were more likely to complete the survey than the Metropolitan campus. For both campuses, men were less likely to respond, while the makeup of Hispanics and undergraduates/graduates was consistent with the general student population. The racial makeup of the sample participants is similar to the university's report, but with a higher rate of whites responding; however, the university's report has a large number of missing data on race, thus making it not possible to accurately compare sample to the overall student population. Due to the overrepresentation of women in the sample, the external validity is compromised.

Table 1

*Breakdown of Fairleigh Dickinson University's Population versus Study Sample as of
Fall 2011*

	<u>Population</u>			<u>Total Sample</u>		
	Florham Park	Metro Campus	University -wide	Florham Park	Metro Campus	Universi ty-wide
Population	3,100 (25%)	9,147 (75%)	12,247	343 (42%)	434 (53%)	821
Gender						
Male	1,371 (44%)	3,595 (39%)	4,966 (41%)	82 (24%)	110 (26%)	196 (24%)
Female	1,729 (56%)	5,552 (61%)	7,281 (59%)	257 (76%)	319 (74%)	590 (72%)
Ethnicity						
Hispanic	296 (1%)	1,823 (2%)	2,119 (17%)	41 (12%)	110 (26%)	153 (19%)
Non-Hispanic	2,700 (87%)	6,586 (72%)	9,286 (76%)	299 (88%)	319 (74%)	634 (77%)
Race						
Am./Alask. Nat.	25 (<1%)	40 (<1%)	65 (<1%)	9 (3%)	7 (2%)	16 (2%)
Asian	125 (<4%)	70 (<1%)	832 (7%)	14 (4%)	40 (10%)	55 (7%)
Black/Afr-Am.	277 (9%)	926 (10%)	1,203 (10%)	25 (7%)	70 (17%)	100 (12%)
Haw./Pacific Isl.	1 (<1%)	7 (<1%)	8 (<1%)	2 (<1%)	1 (<1%)	3 (<1%)
White	1,926 (62%)	4,038 (44%)	5,964 (49%)	249 (73%)	207 (50%)	466 (57%)
2 or more races	5 (<1%)	11 (<1%)	16 (<1%)	15 (4%)	30 (7%)	46 (6%)
Unknown/other	341 (11%)	857 (10%)	1,198 (10%)	208 (8%)	59 (14%)	88 (11%)
Degree						
Undergraduate	2,419 (78%)	6,643 (73%)	9,062 (74%)	266 (78%)	292 (69%)	571 (70%)
Graduate	689 (22%)	2,504 (27%)	3,185 (26%)	75 (22%)	133 (31%)	213 (26%)

Data Analysis

Principal Axis Factor Analysis was conducted on the Privilege Scale to examine its usefulness as a new scale. Varimax rotation was used because it is good for replicability (Kaiser, 1960). Given that this is a new scale that needs further testing, future factor analyses will need to be replicated. The analysis indicated $KMO=.638$, $Bartlett's=1.730$, $p<.001$, with 1 factor explaining about 33% of the variance with an Eigenvalue over 1. Five of the 9 original questions had loadings over .4 for factor 1 and less than .3 for all other factors. Four items were eliminated from the scale (questions 3, 4, 7, 9; see Attachment C). The result was the same as the factor analysis from the pilot data, but while the pilot data factor analysis took several iterations to produce a decent result, the primary data only took one iteration. Factor analyses were not used on the abuse scales and SDD because they have been previously shown to be reliable and valid.

Missing data. An examination of percent missing for individual questions shows very little missing data. There was about 5% missing for any given question. For the questions about abuse, the missing data was even lower, at about 1% for most questions; the abuse questions were answered only by those who answered that they were currently in a relationship. The low amounts of missing data were consistent between the pilot data and primary data. Bivariate analysis of the missing data using Chi Square indicates that men and women did not differ significantly in whether they had missing data (Chi Square=.659, $p=.719$) but that race did have a significant difference in missing data (Chi Square=19.99, $p<.01$), where minority races had higher rates of missing data than white respondents. A t-test of missing data and age shows that older respondents were more likely to have complete data ($F=37.33$, 788, $p<.001$). As men and women did not vary

significantly in missing data, this should not impact the analyses. The differences in race may have some impact, however the actual number of missing responses is very low. There is a small possibility that the responses will be more representative of white respondents, as they were more likely to provide complete responses. Age is a potentially greater issue as the analyses will focus on younger respondents, who were less likely to give complete responses.

Given the amounts of missing data, multiple imputation was used to maximize the existing data (Rubin, 1996; Rubin, 1987). While most directions suggest that only 1 iteration is necessary for datasets with low amounts of missing data (less than 5%), a more conservative approach was used by using 5 iterations (Schafer, 1999). This approach should allow for the best use of the data given that multiple imputation produces a complete dataset with less bias or problems than is associated with other forms of imputation (Rubin, 1996).

Reported versus imputed data. Table 2 reports the originally reported data versus the imputed, pooled data. These results focus on the sample being used for advanced analyses, therefore these are only those aged 18-25 who were currently in a relationship. The purpose of this table is to compare the scale variables from the original data and the imputed data to explore whether there are any obvious differences. As expected because of the low amounts of missing data for the subsample, the results were similar between the reported and imputed data, with no significant differences based on Chi Square tests. With no apparent issues from the imputed data, those data were used for all advanced analyses.

Table 2

Comparison of Reported Data (18-25 year olds) Versus Imputed Data

	Reported	Imputed
Privilege	3.06 (.90)	3.05
Economic	1.15 (.41)	1.14
Emotional	1.51 (.54)	1.51
Physical	1.13 (.43)	1.13
Sexual	1.07 (.37)	1.08
Overall	1.21(.38)	1.22
SDD	6.92 (3.56)	6.92

Note: Standard deviation is not calculated in SPSS for the pooled data.

Scale examination. All of the scales were examined for internal consistency by calculating Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's scores for the scales in emerging adulthood subsample can be found in Table 3. The Cronbach's score for Privilege was .70 with a mean score of 3.06. The Privilege Scale items had a response scale from 1-6. The Cronbach's score for SDD was .75 with a mean score of 6.92. The SDD had a possible range of 1-20. The Cronbach's score for Economic Abuse was .90, with a mean score of 1.15. The Cronbach's score for Emotional Abuse was .92, with a mean score of 1.51. The Cronbach's score for Physical Abuse was .94, with a mean score of 1.13. The Cronbach's score for Sexual Abuse was .98, with a mean score of 1.07. The Cronbach's score for the Overall Abuse Scale was .97, with a mean of 1.21.

The Privilege and Self Deceptive Denial (SDD) Scales exhibited normal distribution without issues of skewness or kurtosis; the ratios of skewness and kurtosis to the standard error were less than 2 for Privilege and SDD. Each of the abuse scales had issues of skewness and kurtosis, which is to be expected given the assumption that a significant portion of respondents would not be using abusive behaviors. The distribution of behaviors shows the data are positively skewed, indicating a tendency toward fewer abusive behaviors. All of the abuse scales were leptokurtic, given the high number of respondents who had not used any abusive or fewer abusive behaviors. Given the high Cronbach's scores, no additional techniques were used to address the skewness and kurtosis.

Table 3

Scale Overview: Main Scale Variable Cronbach's Alpha Scores and Mean Scores for 18-25 Year Old Subsample

	Cronbach's	Mean
Privilege Scale	.70	3.06
Self Deceptive Denial	.75	6.92
Economic Abuse	.90	1.15
Emotional Abuse	.92	1.51
Physical Abuse	.94	1.13
Sexual Abuse	.98	1.07
Overall Abuse Score	.97	1.21

Note: The Cronbach's scores are reported based on the original data, with almost nonexistent differences between imputations (pooled data not calculated). The means are reported from the pooled data (standard deviations not calculated for pooled data).

Correlations. Correlations were run between all scales to determine whether significant relationships existed. All correlations were significant at $p < .01$ level. The correlations answer the first research question: What is the relationship between sense of entitlement and abusive behaviors in college dating relationships? The relationship between sense of entitlement and abuse addresses the 4 subtypes of abuse, as well as the overall abuse. Sense of entitlement, measured by the Privilege Scale, had a positive correlation with all subtypes and overall abuse. The coefficient for Privilege and Economic Abuse was .27 ($p < .001$). The coefficient for Privilege and Emotional Abuse

was .24 ($p < .001$). The coefficient for Privilege and Physical Abuse was .18 ($p < .01$). The coefficient for Privilege and Sexual Abuse was .27 ($p < .001$). The coefficient for Privilege and Overall Abuse was .27 ($p < .001$). Given these results, the first hypothesis was confirmed as sense of entitlement increases, abusive behaviors increase. This is true for all subtypes and overall abuse. Physical Abuse had the lowest coefficient with the Privilege Scale, while the highest coefficients came from Economic, Sexual, and Overall Abuse.

The abuse scales and overall abuse all had positive correlations, indicating that use of one form of abuse was related to use of another form of abuse (or overall abuse). Emotional and Economic abuse had a coefficient of .65 ($p < .001$). Physical and Economic Abuse had a coefficient of .66 ($p < .001$). Sexual Abuse and Economic Abuse had a higher coefficient of .77 ($p < .001$), while the coefficient of Overall Abuse and Economic Abuse was highest at .88 ($p < .001$). Emotional Abuse had a coefficient of .63 ($p < .001$) with Physical Abuse, a coefficient of .59 ($p < .001$) with Sexual Abuse, and a coefficient of .87 ($p < .001$) with Overall Abuse. Emotional Abuse and Sexual Abuse had the strongest correlations with Overall Abuse. Physical Abuse had a coefficient of .76 ($p < .001$) with Sexual Abuse and a coefficient of .87 ($p < .001$) with Overall Abuse. Sexual Abuse had a coefficient of .88 ($p < .001$) with Overall Abuse. The strongest correlations among the abuse scales were with the subscales and the Overall Abuse Scale, as is to be expected given that the subscales and Overall Abuse Scale have overlap of the same items. Beyond these findings, the strongest correlations were between Sexual and Economic Abuse (.77, $p < .001$) and Physical and Sexual Abuse (.76, $p < .001$).

The SDD scale was negatively correlated with all of the abuse scales, indicating that people who admitted to using abusive behaviors were more likely to give honest answers. This is an important finding because people's honesty is clearly impacting the reporting of abusive behaviors, thereby impacting the results of future analyses. The SDD scale was also negatively correlated with the Privilege scale, indicating that people with a higher sense of entitlement are more likely to give honest answers (a higher score on the SDD indicates more socially desirable responses, or dishonesty). The Privilege scale was positively correlated with all of the abuse scales, indicating that a higher sense of entitlement was related to a higher use of abusive behaviors.

Table 4

Correlations of Scale Variables

	Economic	Emotional	Physical	Sexual	Overall	SDD	Privilege
Economic	-						
Emotional	.65***	-					
Physical	.66***	.63***	-				
Sexual	.77***	.59***	.76***	-			
Overall	.88***	.85***	.87***	.88***	-		
SDD	-.23***	-.29***	-.24***	-.19***	-.28***	-	
Privilege	.27***	.24***	.18**	.27***	.27***	-.21***	-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Note: For the SDD scale a higher score indicates denial of negative traits (dishonesty); a lower score would indicate more honest responses.

Comparing campuses. T-tests and Chi-square analysis were run to determine if differences occurred by campus (College at Florham/Madison and Metropolitan/Teaneck). Table 5 reports the results of the t-tests. These analyses used the pooled, imputed data from the subsample of 18-25 year olds in dating relationships. Standard deviation is not calculated for the pooled data in SPSS, so the standard error difference is reported instead. The t-tests found significant differences between campuses for Emotional Abuse, Physical Abuse, Sexual Abuse, and Overall Abuse. The campuses did not have significant differences for Economic Abuse, social desirability (SDD) or Privilege. The Metro campus had higher mean scores for the significant abuse scales than the College at Florham. For Emotional Abuse, the Metro mean was 1.61 while the Florham Park mean was 1.43 ($p < .01$). The Metro campus also had a significantly higher mean (1.21) than the Florham Park campus (1.06) for Physical Abuse ($p < .01$). The Sexual Abuse mean for the Metro campus was 1.23 and for the Florham Park campus was 1.03 ($p < .05$). For Overall Abuse, the Metro campus had a significantly higher mean (1.28) than the Florham Park campus (1.16, $p < .01$). Economic Abuse did not have significant differences by campus (Metro Campus mean=1.19; Florham Park mean=1.11). SDD also did not have significant differences by campus (Metro Campus mean=6.89; Florham Park campus mean=6.98). Finally, the Privilege Scale did not have significant differences by campus (Metro campus mean=3.12; Florham Park campus mean=3.01).

Table 5

T-tests Comparing Main Scale Variables by Campus

	t	FP Mean	Metro Mean	SE diff.	p
Economic	1.83	1.11	1.19	.05	ns
Emotional	2.87	1.43	1.61	.06	.01
Physical	2.82	1.06	1.21	.05	.01
Sexual	2.19	1.03	1.23	.04	.05
Overall	2.83	1.16	1.28	.04	.01
SDD	-.22	6.98	6.89	.42	ns
Privilege	1.08	3.01	3.12	.10	ns

Note: ns= not significant; FP=Florham Park Campus; Metro=Metro Campus

A T-test was run to determine whether the campuses differed in age. The Metro campus also had a slightly older population (among the 18-25 year old sample) with an average age of 20.73, and the College at Florham Campus having an average age of 20.30 ($p < .05$). For length of relationship, a t-test found no significant difference by campus ($p > .05$), where the mean for the Metro campus=30.19 and the mean for the Florham Park campus=24.78.

Chi Square analyses were run to determine if significant differences existed between campuses for race, ethnicity and gender. Gender was not significantly different between campuses (Chi Square=.95, $p = .21$). The Metro campus had a higher rate of Hispanics (Chi Square=6.27, $p < .05$) and of minority races (Chi Square=36.64, $p < .001$).

Comparing genders. The t-test examining the relationship between gender and sense of entitlement (Privilege scale) was not significant (Table 6), meaning there was no significant difference between males and females for sense of entitlement. This answers research question number 2: Do men and women vary significantly in their level of entitlement? Results indicate that men and women do not vary significantly in their level of entitlement. The Privilege Scale mean was 2.87 for men and 3.09 for women.

The t-test of social desirability (SDD) was significant, with females having a higher score than men. Men had a mean score of 5.36 for SDD whereas women had a mean score of 7.30 ($p < .001$). This indicates that men are less likely to deny negative traits (i.e. be more honest) and women give more socially desirable responses.

The t-tests of the abuse scales found no significant differences by gender (Table 6). All of the abuse scales (economic, emotional, physical, sexual, and overall abuse) had no significant differences between males and females. For Economic abuse, men's mean=1.19 and women's mean=1.12 ($p > .05$). For Emotional Abuse, the mean for men was 1.46 and for women was 1.51 ($p > .05$). For Physical Abuse, the mean for men was 1.09 and the mean for women was 1.12 ($p < .05$). The Sexual Abuse mean for men was 1.12 and for women was 1.05 ($p > .05$). For Overall Abuse, the mean for men was 1.23 and for women was 1.20 ($p > .05$). For this group of 18-25 year olds in dating relationships, there were no significant differences in rates of abusive behavior between men and women.

Chi square tests were run between gender and race/ethnicity to explore differences. The test of gender and race was not significant ($df=6$, $p=.84$). The test of

gender and ethnicity was also not significant ($df=1$, $p=.21$). These tests determined that there are no differences in race or ethnicity by gender.

Table 6

T-test Comparing Sense of Entitlement, Social Desirability, and Abuse Scales by Gender

	t	Male Mean	Female Mean	SE diff.	p
Privilege	1.70	2.87	3.09	.13	ns
SDD	-4.11	5.36	7.30	.47	<.001
Economic	.89	1.19	1.12	.08	ns
Emotional	-.60	1.46	1.51	.09	ns
Physical	-.46	1.09	1.12	.69	ns
Sexual	1.03	1.12	1.05	.08	ns
Overall	.23	1.23	1.20	.07	ns

Age, length of relationship, and abuse scales. Correlations were run with the two remaining variables (age and length of time in relationship) that are previously established in the literature as being related to abusive behavior (Billingham, 1987; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). These analyses were run with the 18-25 year old dating relationship subsample. The only significant relationship found was between age and length of relationship with a coefficient of .31 ($p<.001$). This is to be expected as people who are older have more opportunity and time to have a longer relationship. Age and length of relationship were positively correlated with each other, indicating that older

respondents were more likely to have been in the relationship for a longer period of time. Neither age nor length of relationship were found to be significantly correlated to any of the abuse scales, the Privilege Scale, or SDD.

Table 7

Correlations of Age, Length of Relationship, and Scale Variables

	Age	Length of Relationship
Age	-	
Length of Rel	.31***	-
Economic	.03	.08
Emotional	-.04	.01
Physical	-.09	-.00
Sexual	.02	.05
Overall	-.03	.04
SDD	.01	.08
Privilege	-.07	-.04

p<.05; **p<.01; *p<.001; Correlations between the scales are not reported here because they are reported in Table 4.*

Race, ethnicity, and scale variables. T-tests were run to determine if differences existed in abusive behaviors by race (Table 8) and ethnicity (Table 9). Race was recoded into a dummy variable (non-white=0, white=1). Ethnicity was originally asked as a dichotomous question, where non-Hispanic=0 and Hispanic=1. All of the tests were

found to be non-significant, indicating there are no differences for Privilege, SDD, or the abuse scales by race or ethnicity.

Table 8

T-tests T-test Comparing Sense of Entitlement, Social Desirability, and Abuse Scales by Race

	t	Non-white Mean	White Mean	SE diff.	p
Privilege	.09	3.06	3.05	.44	ns
SDD	.42	7.06	6.89	.11	ns
Economic	.91	1.17	1.12	.05	ns
Emotional	1.71	1.58	1.47	.06	ns
Physical	1.07	1.16	1.11	.05	ns
Sexual	.19	1.07	1.07	.04	ns
Overall	1.28	1.25	1.19	.04	ns

Table 9

T-test Comparing Sense of Entitlement, Social Desirability, and Abuse Scales by Ethnicity

	t	Non-Hisp Mean	Hispanic Mean	SE diff.	p
Privilege	.42	3.07	2.97	.55	ns
SDD	.09	6.76	7.67	.14	ns
Economic	.91	1.14	1.12	.04	ns
Emotional	1.71	1.50	1.54	.07	ns
Physical	1.06	1.13	1.12	.05	ns
Sexual	.19	1.07	1.08	.0	ns
Overall	1.27	1.21	1.22	.04	ns

Regression. Regression analyses were run for the 5 abuse scales (Economic, Emotional, Physical, Sexual, and Overall Abuse) with a model that included sense of entitlement, social desirability, and other variables shown to be significant in the literature (ethnicity, race, age and length of time in the relationship). Additionally, campus, race, and ethnicity were included because of significance in bivariate analyses. All regression analyses are based on the imputed pooled data from the 18-25 year old dating relationship subsample (n=312, however the pooled data includes all iterations). The models were run for the full group, then for just men and just women. The regression models to be covered answer the third research question: Does the

multivariate model explain a significant amount of the variance of the different types of abuse? This question is answered by the looking at the full sample of men and women together. Then, by looking at the gender subsamples, we are further able to explore whether there are differences by gender. This lays a foundation for examining the fourth research question (regarding gender as a moderator of entitlement and abuse), which will be covered in the next section on hierarchical regression.

SPSS does not calculate the R^2 for pooled data, but does calculate this for the imputed datasets. This number was calculated by averaging the R for the 5 imputed datasets and squaring the result. Level of significance was consistent between imputed datasets and therefore the reported significance should logically be true for the calculated R^2 . Two models did not have the same level of significance between imputed datasets (women's Economic Abuse; women's Sexual Abuse) and this is addressed within the reporting of those results. The coefficients and standard error come from the pooled data.

The regression model was significant for Economic Abuse (Table 10) in the full sample and male sample, but not in the female. There was some discrepancy between the level of significance in the imputed datasets for the female sample, ranging from $p=.04$ to $p=.08$. When the R^2 was finished being calculated, it was compared to the other R^2 and found to be in the range of those that were not significant; therefore, it was determined that this model was not significant. Furthermore, the only coefficient found to be significant within the model was SDD.

For the full sample, the $R^2=.09$, or 9% of variance was explained by the model ($p<.001$). Ethnicity, race, age, gender, and length of relationship were not significant within the model. Campus had a coefficient of $-.08$ ($p<.05$), indicating that the Metro

campus had higher rates of Economic Abuse. The coefficient for SDD was $-.01$ ($p < .05$), indicating a very slight tendency toward lower (or more honest) responses having a higher rate of abuse. Privilege had a coefficient of $.07$ ($p < .01$), indicating that as sense of entitlement increased, so did Economic Abuse.

The amount of variance increased to 43% for the male sample. Ethnicity, race, age, length of relationship, and SDD were not significant for the male sample. The campus variable had a coefficient of $-.40$ ($p < .01$), indicating that the Metro campus had higher rates of Economic Abuse. For men, the only other significant variable was Privilege ($.34$, $p < .001$), indicating that as additional Privilege score increased, Economic Abuse increased by $.34$.

Table 10

Regression Analysis of Economic Abuse for Full Sample, Male Sample, and Female Sample

	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
R ²	.09***		.43***		.06 ^a	
	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE
Hispanic	-.01	.05	-.31	.21	-.02	.04
White	-.01	.04	.11	.15	-.05	.03
Age	-.01	.01	-.01	.04	-.01	.01
Male	.06	.05	-	-	-	-
Florham Park	-.08*	.04	-.40**	.14	-.03	.03
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
SDD	-.01*	.01	-.03	.02	-.01*	.00
Privilege	.07**	.02	.34***	.08	.01	.02

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; ^aThe model was not significant for females. SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

The model was significant for Emotional Abuse (Table 11) for the full sample, male sample, and female sample. The model accounted for the most variance among the male sample at 33%. For the full sample, the R²=.13 (p<.001). Ethnicity, race, age, gender, length of relationship, and Privilege were not significant. Campus had a coefficient of -.14 (p<.01), indicating that the Metro campus had a tendency toward higher rates of Emotional Abuse. SDD was significant (p<.001) with a coefficient of -

.04, indicating that those with more honest responses had higher rates of Emotional Abuse.

The male sample had an $R^2=.33$ ($p<.001$), indicating the model accounted for 33% of the variance. Ethnicity, race, age, campus, length of relationship and SDD were not significant in the model. Privilege was the only significant variable with a coefficient of .32 ($p<.001$), indicating that as additional Privilege score increased, Emotional Abuse increased by .32.

The female sample $R^2=.14$ ($p<.001$). Ethnicity, race, age, length of relationship and Privilege were not significant. Campus had a coefficient of -.12 ($p<.05$), indicating the Metro campus had higher rates of Emotional Abuse. SDD was the only other significant variable with a coefficient of -.04 ($p<.001$), indicating that people with more honest answers had higher rates of Emotional Abuse.

Table 11

Regression Analysis of Emotional Abuse for Full Sample, Male Sample, and Female Sample

	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
R ²	.12***		.33**		.14***	
	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE
Hispanic	-.00	.08	-.13	.24	-.04	.09
White	-.04	.07	.19	.17	-.11	.07
Age	-.02	.02	-.02	.04	-.03	.02
Male	-.11	.07	-	-	-	-
Florham Park	-.14**	.06*	-.29	.16	-.12*	.06
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
SDD	-.04***	.01	.03	.03	-.04***	.01
Privilege	.04	.03	.32***	.09	-.02	.03

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

The model was significant for the full sample and both genders for Physical Abuse (Table 12). For the full sample, the $R^2=.10$ ($p<.001$), or the model accounted for 10% of the variance. Ethnicity, race, gender, length of relationship, and Privilege were not significant in the model. Age was significant with a coefficient of $-.03$ ($p<.05$), interpreted as younger respondents had higher rates of Physical Abuse. Campus was also significant with a coefficient of $-.13$ ($p<.01$), meaning the Metro campus had higher rates

of Physical Abuse. Finally, SDD was significant with a coefficient of $-.02$ ($p < .001$).

This means that those who had more honest responses reported higher rates of Physical Abuse.

The model was also significant for men with 33% of the variance being accounted for by the model ($p < .01$). For men, ethnicity, race, age, campus, length of relationship, and SDD were not significant; the only significant variable for men was Privilege. The coefficient for Privilege was $.27$ ($p < .001$).

The model was also significant for women, but accounted for far less of the variance than for men. The $R^2 = .14$ ($p < .001$). Ethnicity, race, age, and length of relationship were not significant variables. Age had a coefficient of $-.04$ ($p < .01$), or younger female respondents reported use of Physical Abuse. Campus had a coefficient of $-.12$ ($p < .01$), indicating that the Metro campus reported higher rates of Physical Abuse. SDD was significant with a coefficient of $-.02$, meaning that women who were more honest reported higher use of Physical Abuse. Finally, Privilege was significant with a coefficient of $-.05$, indicating that for women a lower sense of entitlement was associated with a higher use of physically abusive behaviors.

Table 12

*Regression Analysis of Physical Abuse for Full Sample, Male Sample, and Female**Sample*

	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
R ²	.10***		.33**		.14***	
	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE
Hispanic	-.05	.06	-.22	.20	-.09	.06
White	-.03	.05	.10	.14	-.08	.05
Age	-.03*	.01	.00	.03	-.04**	.01
Male	-.05	.06	-	-	-	-
Florham Park	-.13**	.05	-.25	.14	-.12**	.04
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
SDD	-.02***	.01	-.02	.02	-.02***	.01
Privilege	.01	.03	.27***	.07	-.05*	.02

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

The regression model was significant for Sexual Abuse (Table 13) when applied to the full sample and male sample; the female sample was also found to be significant, but this was not consistent across the imputed datasets (significance ranged from .04-.11). Significance was determined because 4 of the 5 datasets reported a significant model and the calculated R² was similar to the significant models. For the female sample, the only

significant coefficient was race (-.06, $p < .05$), where non-whites were more likely to report using sexual abuse.

For the full sample, the model accounted for 9% of the variance ($p < .001$). Ethnicity, race, age, campus, length of relationship, and SDD were not significant. Gender was significant with a coefficient of .10 ($p < .05$), indicating that men were more likely to report higher use of Sexual Abuse. Privilege was also significant with a coefficient of .06 ($p < .001$), indicating that a higher sense of entitlement was related to greater use of sexually abusive behaviors. As sense of entitlement increased by 1 point, sexually abusive behaviors increased by .06.

For men, the model accounted for 33% of the variance ($p < .001$). Ethnicity, race, age, length of relationship, and SDD were not significant. Campus was significant with a coefficient of -.35 ($p < .05$), indicating that the Metro campus reported higher usage of sexually abusive behaviors for the male sample. Privilege was also significant with a coefficient of .30 ($p < .001$) for the male sample. As sense of entitlement increased by 1 point, use of sexually abusive behaviors increased by .30.

Table 13

Regression Analysis of Sexual Abuse for Full Sample, Male Sample, and Female Sample

	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
R ²	.09***		.33**		.06*	
	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE
Hispanic	-.02	.05	-.15	.23	-.05	.03
White	-.02	.04	.11	.16	-.06*	.02
Age	.00	.01	.00	.04	.00	.01
Male	.10*	.04	-	-	-	-
Florham Park	-.06	.03	-.35*	.15	-.02	.02
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
SDD	-.01	.01	-.03	.03	-.00	.00
Privilege	.06***	.02	.30***	.08	.01	.01

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; ^a The model was not significant for females. SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

For Overall Abuse (Table 14), the regression model was significant for all three samples. For the full sample, the model accounted for 12% of variance ($p<.001$). Ethnicity, race, age, gender, and length of relationship were not significant. Campus was significant and had a coefficient of $-.10$ ($p<.01$), finding that the Metro campus reported higher overall usage of abusive behaviors. SDD was significant with a coefficient of $-.02$ ($p<.001$), or that those who gave more honest answers also reported more overall abusive behaviors. Privilege was significant and had a coefficient of $.05$ ($p<.05$), indicating that a

higher sense of entitlement was related to a higher use of overall abusive behaviors in the general sample.

For the male sample, the model accounted for 39% of the variance ($p < .01$). Ethnicity, race, age, length of relationship, and SDD were not significant. Campus was significant and had a coefficient of $-.32$ ($p < .05$). This indicates that the Metro campus reported higher rates of overall abuse in the male sample. Privilege had a coefficient of $.31$ ($p < .001$), indicating that an additional increase of sense of entitlement in men had an increase in overall abusive behaviors of $.31$.

The model accounted for 17% of the variance in the female sample ($p < .001$). Ethnicity, campus, length of relationship, and Privilege were not significant in the model for women. Race had a coefficient of $-.07$ ($p < .05$), meaning that non-white female respondents reported a higher overall use of abusive behaviors. Age had a coefficient of $-.02$ ($p < .05$), indicating that there was a tendency for younger women to report higher overall use of abusive behaviors. SDD had a coefficient of $-.02$ ($p < .001$), indicating that those women who gave more honest responses also reported a higher usage of overall abuse.

Table 14

Regression Analysis of Overall Abuse for Full Sample, Male Sample, and Female Sample

	<u>Full Sample</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
R ²	.12***		.39**		.17***	
	b	SE	b	SE	b	SE
Hispanic	-.02	.05	-.20	.20	-.05	.04
White	-.02	.04	.13	.15	-.07*	.03
Age	-.01	.01	-.01	.03	-.02*	.01
Male	-.00	.05	-	-	-	-
Florham Park	-.10**	.04	-.32*	.14	-.07	.03
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
SDD	-.02***	.01	-.03	.02	-.02***	.00
Privilege	.05*	.02	.31***	.07	-.01	.02

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

Summary of regression results. Examination of the regression model to the various abuse scales indicates some trends. First, Privilege is a significant factor in determining abusive behaviors, however this appears to be a much stronger indicator for men. Second, campus is also a significant factor, indicating some important difference between campuses within the same university. Social desirability is also an important factor in some models, indicating that people's willingness to respond honestly is impacting their responses regarding use of abusive behaviors. Finally, with Economic

and Sexual Abuse, the model is not significant for women. Furthermore, the model explains more of the variance in the male sample across all abuse scales. It appears that the model is better for determining males' behavior. The model explained the most variance in Economic Abuse, though the other forms of abuse were within a similar range of R^2 . In some cases (Economic Abuse and Sexual Abuse), the model does not explain female abusive behavior at all. When talking about overall abuse, although the model accounted for 17% of the variance in women's responses, Privilege was not a significant variable. In general, Privilege is a better predictor of male abusive behavior than female abusive behavior.

Hierarchical regression. Hierarchical regression was used to test the interaction term and determine whether gender acts as a moderator for the relationship between Privilege and various types of abuse. This will address the fourth research question: Does gender moderate sense of entitlement and the subtypes of abusive behavior used in dating relationships among college students? Privilege has consistently been shown to be related to higher levels of abuse in the previous analyses. Gender, although not significant when used in a model for the full sample, appears to remain an important area of exploration because the regression model consistently explained more variance for males than females. For each of the hierarchical regression models, SPSS does not calculate the R^2 or R^2 change for the pooled data (which is being reported under the coefficients and standard error columns). These numbers were calculated by averaging the R of the imputed data and squaring the results, then calculating the difference.

The hierarchical model started with the ethnicity, and then added race, length of relationship, age, gender, campus, SDD, Privilege, and the interaction term into the

hierarchical regression model, in that order. For hierarchical regression models testing an interaction term, the variables are entered based on theory and research in increasing order of importance; these analyses followed that standard.

The hierarchical regression model was significant ($p < .001$) for Economic Abuse and had an $R^2 = .22$ (Table 15). Ethnicity, race, and age were not significant variables. Length of relationship, gender, campus, SDD, Privilege, and the interaction term were all significant. Although the length of the relationship was significant, the coefficient was so small it did not register at the hundredth level ($p < .05$). Gender had a negative coefficient, with men having a higher level of Economic Abuse ($-.93$, $p < .001$). The Metro Campus was also significantly associated with higher Economic Abuse ($-.09$, $p < .05$). The SDD scale had a significant but low coefficient ($-.01$, $p < .05$). Privilege had a significant coefficient of $.33$ ($p < .001$). The interaction term had a coefficient of $.34$ ($p < .001$). The greatest change in R^2 came from the interaction term, contributing a 13% change. Given that the strongest coefficient and change in R^2 came from the interaction term, it appears that gender is indeed a moderator of the effects of Privilege on Economic Abuse. Men with a higher score on the Privilege scale had higher levels of Economic Abuse. As seen in Figure 3, it appears that while women's abuse is unrelated to the change in Privilege, while men's level of abuse increases at the upper bounds of the Privilege scale. This is consistent with the findings from the regression model.

Table 15

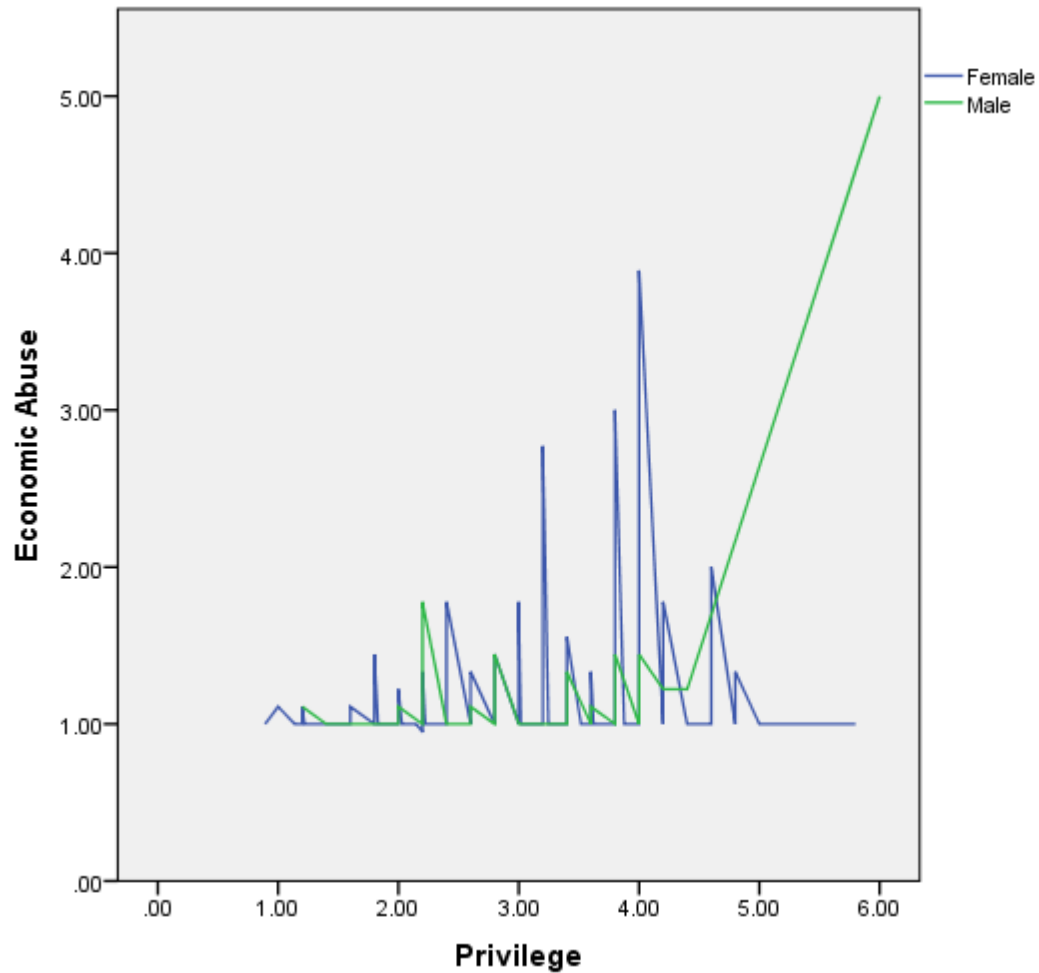
Hierarchical Regression for Economic Abuse

	b	SE	R ²	R ² Change
Hispanic	-.04	.05	.00	.00
White	-.02	.04	.01	.01
Length of Rel.	.00*	.00	.01	.00
Age	-.00	.01	.01	.00
Male	-.93***	.15	.02	.01
Florham Park	-.09*	.04	.04	.02
SDD	-.01*	.01	.07	.03
Privilege	.33***	.04	.10	.03
Male X Privilege	.34***	.05	.22	.13

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

Figure 3

Privilege and Economic Abuse Plotted by Gender



The hierarchical regression model for Emotional Abuse (Table 16) was significant ($p < .001$) with an $R^2 = .17$. Ethnicity, race, length of relationship, and age did not have significant coefficients. Men had a coefficient of -1.10 ($p < .001$). The campus coefficient indicates that the Metro campus had a higher association with Emotional Abuse ($-.15$, $p < .01$). SDD also had a negative coefficient ($-.04$, $p < .001$), indicating that those with more honest answers also reported higher rates of Emotional Abuse. Privilege had a positive association with Emotional Abuse ($.32$, $p < .001$). The interaction term had

a positive association with Emotional Abuse (.34, $p < .001$). The greatest change in R^2 came from the SDD, with an 8% change. The interaction term had the second great change at 5%. Although the interaction term did not contribute the greatest change in R^2 , it remains one of the strongest indicators of Emotional Abuse. The results indicate that men with a higher level of Privilege also have higher levels of Emotional Abuse. Figure 4 provides a visualization of the findings, where women's abuse is inconsistent as Privilege increases, whereas men's abuse increases as Privilege reaches the upper range of the scale.

Table 16

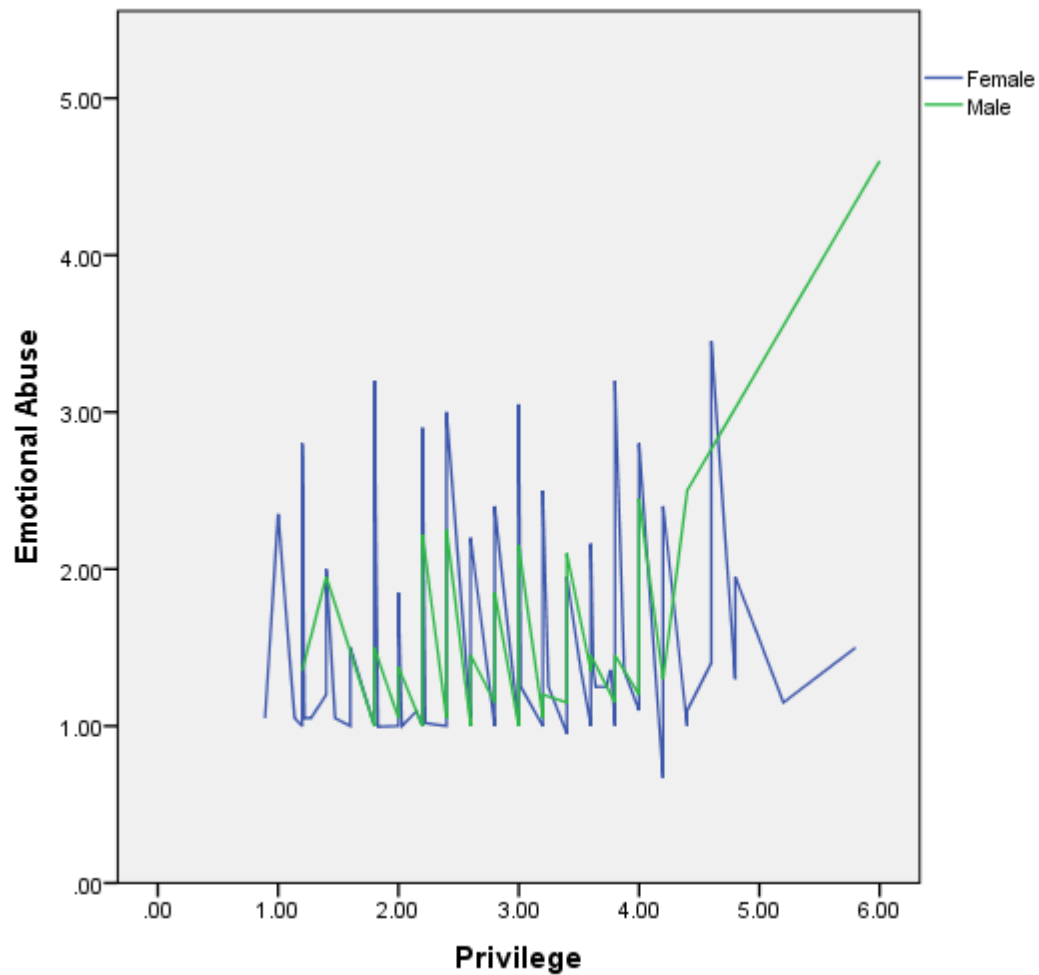
Hierarchical Regression for Emotional Abuse

	b	SE	R^2	R^2 Change
Hispanic	-.03	.08	.00	.00
White	-.05	.06	.01	.01
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.01	.00
Age	-.02	.02	.01	.00
Male	-1.1***	.24	.01	.00
Florham Park	-.15**	.06	.04	.02
SDD	-.04***	.01	.11	.08
Privilege	.32***	.07	.12	.01
Male X Privilege	.34***	.08	.17	.05

Notes: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.

Figure 4

Privilege and Emotional Abuse Plotted by Gender



Hierarchical regression for Physical Abuse (Table 17) resulted in an $R^2=.18$ ($p<.001$). Ethnicity, race, and length of relationship were not significant in this model. Age had a small, negative association ($-.03$, $p<.05$), indicating that younger respondents reported higher Physical Abuse. Gender had a coefficient of $-.97$ ($p<.001$), indicating that men had lower use of Physical Abuse. Campus results indicated that the Metro campus reported higher Physical Abuse ($-.14$, $p<.001$). SDD had a small, negative coefficient of $-.02$ ($p<.001$). Privilege had a positive association with Physical Abuse

(.27, $p < .001$). The interaction term had a positive association (.31, $p < .001$). The greatest change in R^2 came from the interaction term with a 9% contribution. The interaction of gender and sense of entitlement is an important factor in Physical Abuse. These results indicate that men with a higher score on the Privilege scale also scored higher on Physical Abuse. As Figure 5 shows, women's abusive behavior appears to be unrelated to a change in Privilege, whereas men's abusive behavior increases when the Privilege score reaches the upper range of possible scores.

Table 17

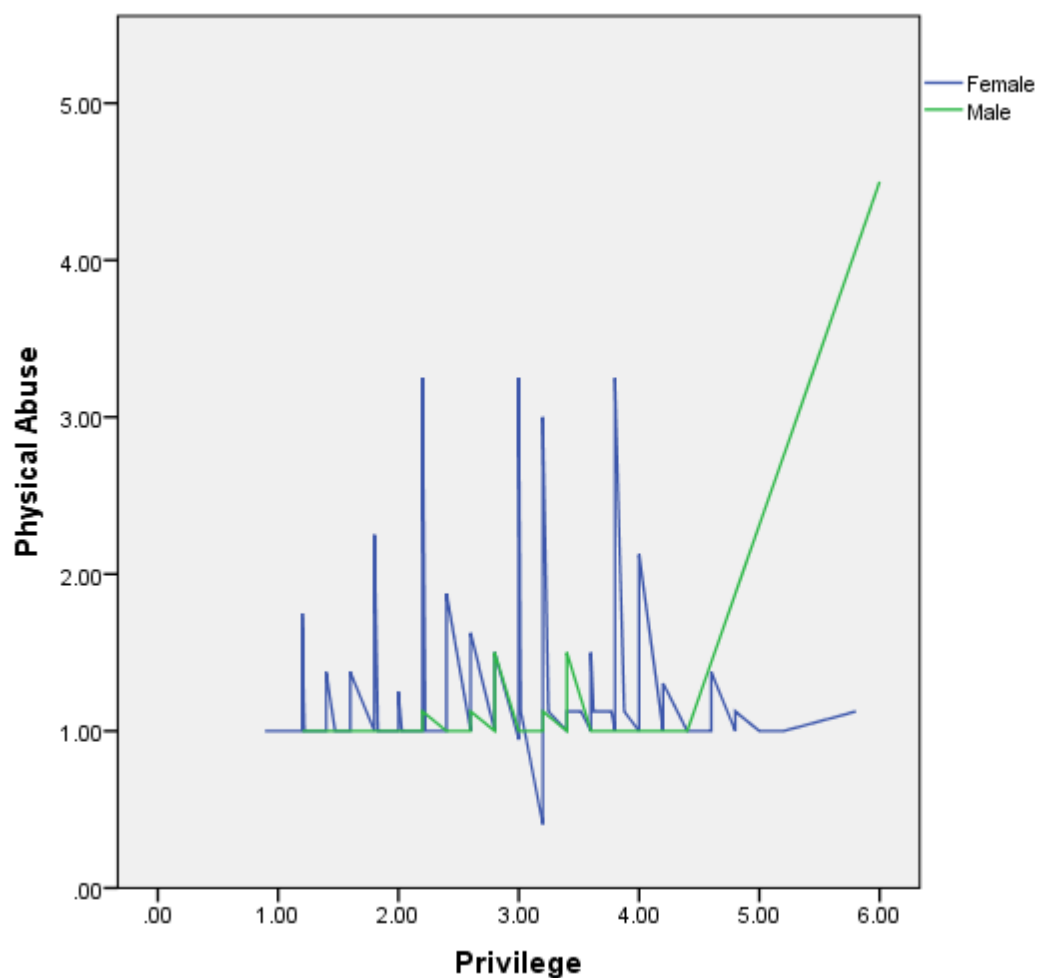
Hierarchical Regression for Physical Abuse

	b	SE	R^2	R^2 Change
Hispanic	-.08	.06	.00	.00
White	-.04	.05	.01	.01
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.02	.00
Age	-.03*	.01	.03	.01
Male	-.97***	.18	.03	.00
Florham Park	-.14***	.04	.06	.03
SDD	-.02***	.01	.10	.04
Privilege	.27***	.05	.10	.00
Male X Privilege	.31***	.06	.18	.09

Notes: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.

Figure 5

Privilege and Physical Abuse Plotted by Gender



Hierarchical regression for Sexual Abuse (Table 18) had several significant variables. The model only had an R^2 of 5% ($p < .001$). Ethnicity, race, length of relationship, age, and SDD did not have significant coefficients. Results of the gender variable indicate that men had a negative association with Sexual Abuse ($-.77$, $p < .001$). The Metro campus was found to have higher reports of Sexual Abuse ($-.08$, $p < .05$). Privilege was positively correlated with Sexual Abuse ($.31$, $p < .001$). The interaction term had a coefficient of $.30$ ($p < .001$). The greatest change in R^2 came from the

interaction term by contributing a 14% change. These results indicate that men with a higher sense of entitlement had higher levels of Sexual Abuse. Figure 6 provides a visualization of the findings, where women's abusive behavior does not change steadily as Privilege increases, but men's behavior generally increases as Privilege reaches the upper level of the scale range.

Table 18

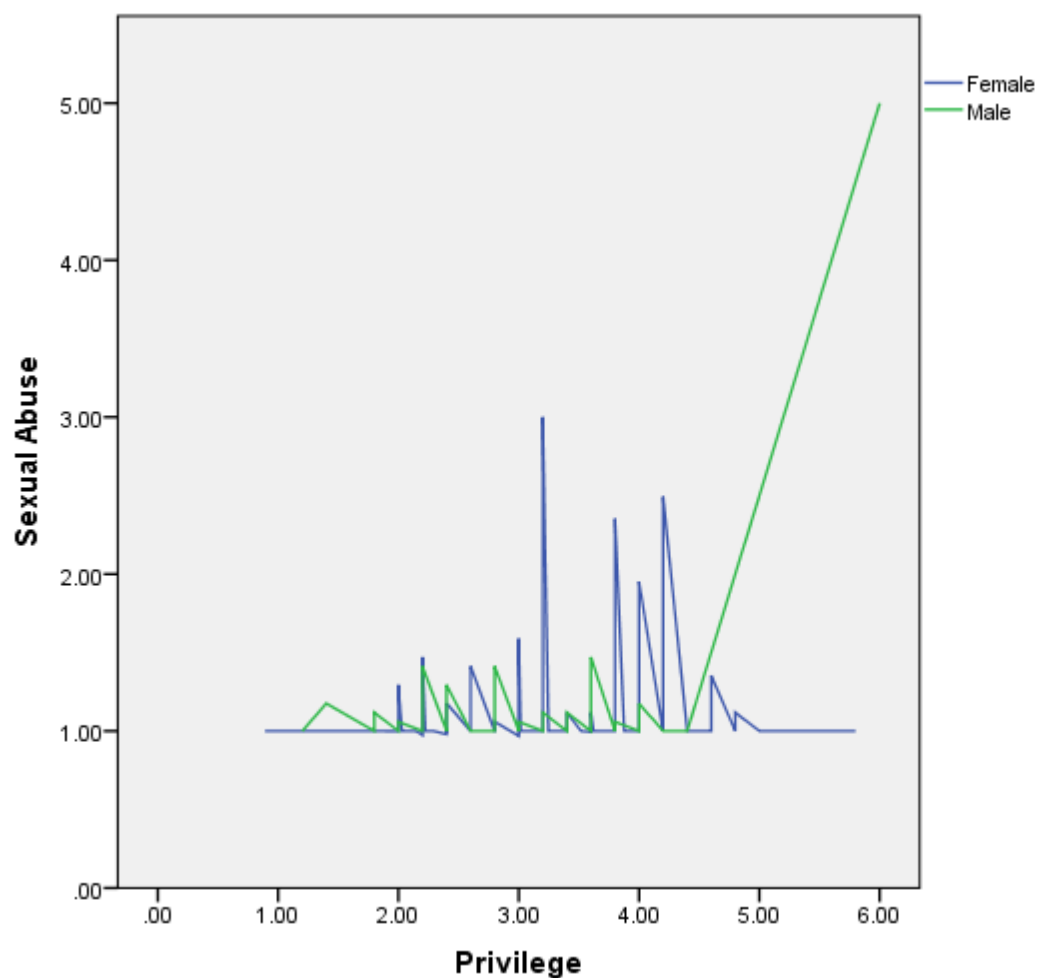
Hierarchical Regression for Sexual Abuse

	b	SE	R ²	R ² Change
Hispanic	-.04	.05	.00	.00
White	-.03	.04	.00	.00
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.00	.00
Age	.00	.01	.01	.00
Male	-.77***	.14	.02	.02
Florham Park	-.08*	.03	.04	.01
SDD	-.01	.00	.05	.01
Privilege	.31***	.04	.09	.04
Male X Privilege	.30***	.04	.22	.14

*Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.*

Figure 6

Privilege and Sexual Abuse Plotted by Gender



Hierarchical regression for Overall Abuse (Table 19) had similar results to the preceding regression models for subtypes of abuse. The model had an R^2 of .25 ($p < .001$). Ethnicity, race, length of relationship, and age were not significant variables. Gender, campus, SDD, Privilege, and the interaction term were all significant. Gender results indicated that men had a negative association with Overall Abuse ($-.94$, $p < .001$). The campus variable indicates that the Metro campus reported higher Overall Abuse ($-.11$, $p < .001$). SDD had a small, negative association ($-.02$, $p < .001$), indicating that more

honest respondents reported more Overall Abuse. Privilege was positively correlated at .31 ($p < .001$). The interaction term had a positive coefficient at .32 ($p < .001$). The interaction term also had the greatest contribution to the R^2 at a 13% increase. These results indicate that men with a higher score on the Privilege scale also scored higher on Overall Abuse. As seen in the previous results and figures, Figure 7 shows how women's abusive behaviors are unrelated to an increase in Privilege, whereas men's abusive behavior appears to increase as when Privilege reaches the higher possible scores.

Table 19

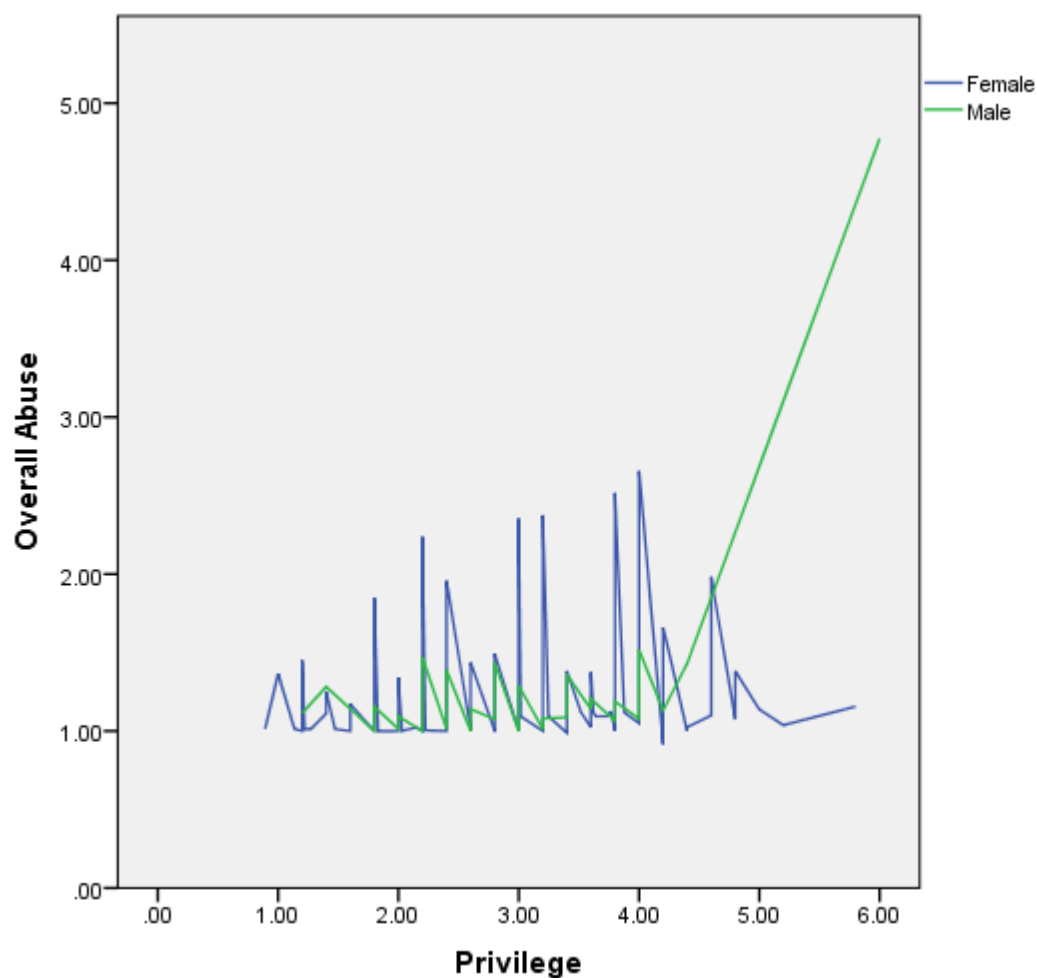
Hierarchical Regression for Overall Abuse

	b	SE	R^2	R^2 Change
Hispanic	-.05	.05	.00	.00
White	-.04	.04	.01	.01
Length of Rel.	.00	.00	.01	.00
Age	-.02	.01	.01	.00
Male	-.94***	.14	.02	.00
Florham Park	-.11***	.03	.05	.03
SDD	-.02***	.01	.10	.06
Privilege	.31***	.04	.12	.02
Male X Privilege	.32***	.05	.25	.13

Notes: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; SPSS does not calculate the standardized Beta for pooled data.

Figure 7

Privilege and Overall Abuse Plotted by Gender



Summary of hierarchical regression results. Hierarchical regression continues to shed light on the variables impacting abusive behavior. Campus continued to be a significant variable for most forms of abuse, even with extremely low amounts of variance attributed to this variable. Social desirability was a significant and important factor in many of the models for abusive behavior; those who give more honest answers also report higher rates of abuse. Clearly social desirability remains an important aspect of measuring abusive behavior and must be considered to make accurate conclusions

about abusive behavior. The interaction of gender and Privilege is an important factor throughout the models for the different types of abuse and consistently contributed the most or a significant change in the R^2 . Gender and Privilege alone are not major contributors to the variance being explained. The interaction of the gender and Privilege variables is a much better predictor of abusive behavior, though the amount of variance being explained by the interaction is still modest. From the coefficients we can glean that it is men with a higher sense of entitlement that are connected to higher reports of the four subtypes of abuse and Overall Abuse.

Reviewing figures graphs with Privilege and the various types of abuse by gender provides visual confirmation of the findings (Figures 3-7). Each of the subtypes of abuse and Overall Abuse have similar findings: For women, the level of abuse remains the same even as sense of entitlement increases. For men, there is a sharp increase in abusive behaviors as sense of entitlement reaches the higher end of the spectrum. The final hypotheses that gender moderates the relationship between sense of entitlement and the various types of abuse has been confirmed.

CHAPTER V

Summary

This study sought an understanding of the relationship between sense of entitlement and various abusive behaviors among college student dating relationships. Furthermore, this study sought an understanding of the interaction of gender and entitlement and how it impacts abuse. Ultimately the results indicate that sense of entitlement, or the act of privileging oneself over a partner, is a better predictor of abuse than gender, age, or length of time in the relationship and that, more specifically, sense of entitlement has greater explanatory power for men's abusive behavior than women's.

In addition to the core findings about sense of entitlement, other findings contribute to our knowledge of social desirability, abusive behaviors, sense of entitlement, and gender differences/similarities. An overview of the main findings can be found in the following section.

Discussion

Sense of entitlement has been shown by the current analyses to be an important factor in understanding abusive behaviors. The existing literature already showed some evidence of entitlement being a factor in other forms of aggression (Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). The current study indicates that entitlement is also related to dating abuse in college student, emerging adulthood relationships.

Age, gender, length of relationship. Age, gender and length of relationship were found to be not significant in the regression model of the abuse scales, however gender was significant in the hierarchical models. Previous studies have found age and

length of relationship to be an indicator of abuse (Billingham, 1987; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2008). For age, it is possible that the effects were diluted because this study was only looking at one development stage, rather than an a range of age groups. For length of the relationship, future studies should continue to examine this factor. The current study only considered the time of relationship, rather than commitment, and some studies suggest that it is the level of commitment to the relationship that is a better indicator of use of abusive behaviors (Arriaga, 2002; Billingham, 1987; Neufeld et al., 1999). When considering gender, although it was not significant in the regression model for the entire sample, the same model had vastly different results for men and women. While gender was not significant for the complete sample, the results of the study indicate that men's and women's abusive behavior are not explained by the same phenomena. Furthermore, the hierarchical models indicate that gender is a factor on its own and also a significant moderator of entitlement.

Campus. One interesting finding was that campus was a significant variable in a number of tests. Some difference between campuses was contributing to the variance in the regression models. Chi Square and t-tests indicated that the Metro campus had a greater minority and Hispanic sample and was older, albeit slightly. More testing must be done to determine whether age, ethnicity, and race are significant factors in abuse and sense of entitlement. Campus was an unexpectedly significant variable in these analyses and was not the focus of this dissertation; therefore, future analyses will need to explore potential reasons (such as demographic differences) in explaining the variation in abusive behavior.

Social desirability. Those who reported more frequent abusive behaviors were less likely to deny negative traits (i.e. they were less likely to give socially desirable responses). Women reported significantly higher scores on the Self Deceptive Denial (social desirability) scale, indicating a greater tendency to deny negative traits, or to be dishonest. This is not consistent with previous evidence that women tend to be more honest. This could be due to the fact that this study used Paulhus's Self Deceptive Denial Scale rather than the more commonly used Marlow-Crowne scale. This warrants further investigation and use of different scales in future research to more accurately understand the role of gender and social desirability in measuring abuse.

Another important finding, although not the focus of this study, is the role of social desirability in examining abuse. There is a strong relationship between social desirability, sense of entitlement, and abusive behaviors. In the hierarchical model for Emotional Abuse, SDD contributed the greatest increase in variance explained. Social desirability remains a factor in measuring abuse and needs to be included in any future studies or analyses regarding abusive behavior.

After controlling for social desirability, sense of entitlement remains an important factor; however, it would be unwise to completely discount the involvement of socially desirable responses. From the current study we can say that sense of entitlement is known to be an important part of understanding abusive behaviors, but we must also say that the impulse to downplay one's negative behaviors is clearly impacting people's reporting of abuse perpetration. Perhaps one of the most interesting aspects of this dilemma is the relationship between social desirability and sense of entitlement: that those with a higher sense of entitlement are also more likely to give honest responses

about behaviors. At face value this is quite logical; people with a higher sense of entitlement are justifying their behaviors because they see them as their “right”. If these people believe their behaviors are justified, then they have no reason to lie about their behaviors. It is possible that people with a high sense of entitlement are also more honest about their behaviors, thereby giving a more accurate picture of the abusive behaviors used. Further testing and analysis is needed to confirm this hypothesis.

Types of abuse. The existing literature is consumed by the debate about how gender and abusive behaviors are connected (Archer, 1999; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003). The results of this study do not provide strong evidence for either side of the argument that one gender is more abusive than the other. The four types of abuse (economic, emotional, physical, sexual) measured in this study are all significantly correlated with each other, however there were no significant differences between men and women for abusive behaviors. Future analyses might look more closely at the number of men and women using abusive behaviors, as this study only looked at the mean scores for frequency of abuse. For all of the abuse scales, the regression model explained a far greater amount of the variance for the male sample than the full sample or female sample. This finding provides evidence that sense of entitlement is a better indicator of abusive behavior when talking about men, rather than women. Given that men and women did not have significant differences in level of entitlement but that entitlement explained much more of men’s behavior than women, it appears that this sense of entitlement is being interpreted differently between genders. This is an important finding but one that needs further investigation to fully understand. Several experts on perpetration of abuse have suggested that men’s and women’s motivations for

abuse are different, and these findings support those experts' hypotheses (Archer, 2004; DeKeseredy et al., 1997; Johnson, 2006; Stark, 2007; Stark, 2009).

Sense of entitlement. There were no significant differences between men and women for sense of entitlement. Hierarchical regression found that the interaction between gender and sense of entitlement contributed the greatest increase in the variance explained in every model except Emotional Abuse. Men with a higher sense of entitlement consistently had higher reported rates of abusive behavior. The findings around gender and entitlement provide an interesting contribution to the literature. What this study does provide is evidence that sense of entitlement is an important predictor of men's abusive behavior, but not women's. This is consistent with the work of many who have argued that motivations for using abusive behaviors were different between men and women (Archer, 2004; DeKeseredy et al., 1997; Johnson, 2006; Stark, 2007; Stark, 2009). Regardless of which gender is more abusive, the motivations for using abusive behaviors are clearly different given the current findings and the work of Stark and Johnson (Johnson, 2006; Stark, 2007; Stark, 2009). The current findings support Stark's work on the concept of coercive control insofar as entitlement is a potential motivator for the pervasive use of abusive behaviors as a means to control a woman (Stark, 2009). The current findings also support Johnson's supposition (2006) that situation violence should be considered separately from the pervasive patterns of abuse, as this study shows that that sense of entitlement is positively correlated with higher levels of abuse; therefore, those who have higher levels of entitlement are abusing more often and with more types of abuse.

Limitations

The findings of this study should be interpreted with some prudence given certain limitations of the data collection and statistical analyses. During the period of data collection difficulties arose in maintaining the original plan. The original plan was based on the tailored design method and was intended to follow a particular plan for recruiting students on specific dates (Dillman et al., 2009). In reality, having a third party (i.e. the campus Deans) send the actual recruitment emails resulted in deviations from the plan. The Deans did not send the emails on the requested dates and did not send all of the emails originally in the plan. These deviations are not in line with Dillman's recommendations and resulted in a low response rate according to what Dillman expects; however, the response rate appears to be consistent with recent studies, even when the recommendations were followed more closely (Gutter & Copuer, 2011; Head & Eisenberg, 2010; Shaz et al., 2009; Valenzuela & Kee, 2009; Wolfson, McCoy, & Sutfin, 2009). It is difficult to say with certainty what contributed to the response rate, but it could be the result of recruitment, the topic being researched, or the current trend toward low response rates for email surveys.

The low response rate raises other questions, despite being consistent with other studies. The possibility of selection bias is a limitation. Women responded at a higher rate than men, and that whites responded more than other racial groups. This means that the results must be interpreted with caution with regard to generalizability, even within generalizing to the greater FDU population. Furthermore, because women responded at a higher rate than men, some of the findings about gender have limited validity and reliability. For example, there was no significant difference between genders for sense of entitlement, which is not consistent with other research on entitlement (Jost, 1997;

Yescavage, 1999). Given this unexpected but interesting finding, more research is necessary in this area. Also, women were more likely to deny negative traits (or be dishonest), which is also inconsistent with the literature on social desirability (Dutton & Hemphill, 1992; Foshee et al., 2007; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003). This could mean that women were underreporting abusive behaviors, supporting previous arguments about women being more violent. While the results offer weak evidence to the debate over which gender is more violent, they do suggest that the interaction of sense of entitlement and gender is important for understanding men's abusive behaviors. Given some of the unexpected but interesting findings around gender, future research should attempt to recreate similar conditions to determine the source of these inconsistencies.

Though the data analysis indicates many significant results, some of the correlations and variances are low, indicating weak relationships. The correlations between the Privilege Scale and Abuse Scales are in the .18 to .27 range; while significant, they are not strong relationships. In the regression models, even the variance for the male sample was modest, peaking at 37% for Economic Abuse. Given that the Privilege Scale is new and not well tested but still a significant indicator of abuse in regression models, it is likely that the Privilege Scale needs continued development to be a more accurate measure of the construct of sense of entitlement. Improving the scale could have important implications for the amount of variance explained by sense of entitlement and for gender differences in entitlement.

Finally, social desirability was a significant and consistent indicator of abusive behaviors across most models. Clearly social desirability plays an important role when trying to measure and understand abusive behaviors; in the current study, it is unclear

how great the impact of socially desirable responses is in measuring abusive behaviors. Given the significant relationship between gender and social desirability (i.e. women were more dishonest), it is possible that this interaction has complicated the regression models.

Theoretical Implications

The findings from this study contribute to the development and understanding of Self-Salience Theory. Self-Salience Theory hypothesizes that men are more likely to see the source of problems as external, resulting in the act of privileging themselves over another and using externalizing behaviors such as violence and aggression (Rosenfield et al., 2005). The current study took this component of the theory and applied it to a dating relationship, hypothesizing that a man would be more likely to privilege himself over his partner (i.e. have a higher sense of entitlement) and use abusive behaviors. The findings from the current study did not find that men had a higher sense of entitlement but confirmed that a higher sense of entitlement was positively correlated with a higher use of abusive behaviors. Furthermore, it appears that the interaction of gender and sense of entitlement is a greater indicator of abuse than either of these variables alone. The analyses partially confirm the hypotheses; although men did not have a higher sense of entitlement than women, sense of entitlement explains men's abusive behavior much better than it explains women's abusive behavior. Self-Salience Theory suggests that if someone privileges the self over a partner, then problems will be attributed to the partner, and external behaviors will result. This appears to be true based on the current evidence, but why does it explain men's behavior and not women's, if the genders have the same level of entitlement? There must be another factor involved that connects sense of

entitlement to abusive behavior that explains why men manifest entitlement differently than women. Future research will need to investigate what factor might explain women's externalizing behaviors, or perhaps explore another factor that mediates sense of entitlement and abusive behavior.

Previous research using Self-Salience Theory has focused on general use of aggression and violence, and the current findings confirm that the act of privileging oneself over another results in similar behaviors within intimate dating relationships as well. The current study's findings support this part of Self-Salience Theory. As the theory suggested, sense of entitlement, or the act of privileging oneself over a partner, does indeed play a role in abusive behaviors within an intimate dating relationship. The current analytical findings diverge from the theory somewhat in that sense of entitlement was not significantly different by gender. Self-Salience Theory hypothesizes that men have a higher sense of entitlement and therefore use more abusive behaviors; the current findings suggest that although men do not have a higher sense of entitlement than women, the sense of entitlement explains more of their abusive behavior than women's.

Given the results of this study, the theoretical model would be more useful by revising the pathways to abusive behavior. Previously the model indicated that an individual with high levels of entitlement would use externalizing behaviors (i.e. abuse), with the clarification that men would have a tendency toward higher levels of entitlement. This author proposes that the model should have separate pathways for men and women, where men with a high sense of entitlement will likely result in abusive behaviors; women, however, would have another variable that results in their use of abusive behaviors. This variable for women will need to be determined in future research.

Suggestions for Future Research

The current study explored the relationship between sense of entitlement and abusive behaviors among college dating relationships. The findings lay a foundation for understanding dating abuse, leaving many areas to be developed in future research. First, the Privilege Scale needs further testing for validity and reliability, and potentially could use some further development of the questions being asked. Given the reduction in the number of items after a factory analysis and the low but significant amount of variance explained by scale, it appears that this scale shows promise but that it might not be fully capturing the construct of sense of entitlement. Future research should continue testing and developing measurement of this construct.

Another area of research that needs more work is within social desirability. Paulhus' scale appears to be an appropriate measure of social desirability when examining abuse because it measures people's denial of negative traits (Paulhus & John, 1998; Paulhus & Reid, 1991). The current study's findings that college women exhibit more denial of negative traits than men is inconsistent with previous research (Dutton & Hemphill, 1992; Foshee et al., 2007; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003), which could be due to the use of the less-used Self-Deceptive Denial Scale (SDD) as opposed to the more oft-used Marlowe-Crowne Scale (Reynolds, 1982). In other words, it is unclear as to whether the gender difference finding is a result of a genuine difference in the sample or an artifact of the measure.

For gender and abuse, the debate continues. While much of the previous literature has argued about which gender is more violent, the current study did not find significant differences between genders for any type of abuse. With the limitations of the

current study, these findings should be interpreted with caution. Given the overwhelming evidence that gender plays a role both in abuse perpetration and in sense of entitlement (Archer, 1999; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2003; Konrath, Bushman, & Campbell, 2006; Twenge & Campbell, 2003; Straus, 2008), gender should continue to be examined in future research surrounding these constructs. Clearly the issue of gender and abuse perpetration is complicated and warrants further investigation and inclusion in future studies to continue deciphering where the differences exist and how to approach prevention and intervention in a way that addresses gender differences. It is important to remember that this study was not intended to determine the more abusive gender; rather, this study was intended to explore gender differences in motivation. Therefore, generalizing about gender parity in abusive behaviors is inappropriate. Ultimately this study's findings are that men's motivation for perpetrating abuse are different than women's.

Future research should also continue to develop Self-Salience Theory. The findings from this study partially confirm the theory's hypotheses but leave room for more exploration. Sense of entitlement was thought to explain abusive behaviors, but it appears that this construct explains men's behavior better than women's behavior. Future research on the interaction of gender and entitlement could contribute to both the literature and Self-Salience Theory by seeking to explain why sense of entitlement is a better predictor of men's abusive behavior. Furthermore, if women's sense of entitlement is found to be consistent with men's, then future research will need to explore why women's entitlement is not manifesting as abusive behavior, as it does with men's. Exploring this difference among genders will strengthen the theoretical model.

Another important area for future research would be path modeling and structural equation modeling (SEM). Path models and SEM could eventually help decipher a more complete understanding of the relationship between sense of entitlement and abuse perpetration within the context of other variables. While the current study found a significant relationship, the low R^2 indicates that there is much more to the picture than is being captured by the variables being measured in these analyses. Future research should seek to create a more complete picture of factors that contribute to abuse perpetration.

Practical Implications

This study finds that sense of entitlement's relationship to dating abuse is an important area of examination. This information has significant implications for practice in terms of both prevention and intervention. First, by understanding that sense of entitlement plays a role in perpetration, prevention work can focus on challenging these beliefs. More and more states are including education on dating violence in the mandatory curriculum (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2012); including information on faulty beliefs about each individual's role in the relationship, such as each person's rights and responsibilities, could be an important area for preventing future violence. A discussion around sense of entitlement could be incorporated into these existing discussions regarding the individual and his beliefs; however, this discussion will need to address that sense of entitlement is a factor in men's perpetration of dating violence, but not women's. To prevent abuse, the precipitating beliefs need to be addressed; sense of entitlement is an area that could be targeted for preventing men's abuse, but more research is needed to determine what beliefs prompt women's perpetration.

Batterer's intervention programs have received criticism for not being empirically based (Corvo, Dutton, & Chen, 2008). While evidence-based practice has become the new standard in many fields, programs for domestic violence perpetrators are largely based on Second-Wave feminist theory from the 1970s and 1980s and evaluations show poor effectiveness (Corvo et al., 2008). Following the trend toward evidence-based practice, the information from the current study regarding sense of entitlement should be incorporated in intervention programs for perpetrators. Further investigation will then be needed to evaluate the effectiveness of addressing this construct in the context of intervention studies.

Dating violence prevention has gained momentum in recent years and is receiving more attention from policy makers, educators, and researchers. Since we now know that sense of entitlement is an important personality construct that is related to higher levels of abuse, this information needs to be considered by policy makers, educators, and researchers who seek to prevent future abuse and gain a better understanding of the motivation and personality constructs of abusers.

Second, for practitioners working with perpetrators or potential perpetrators, understanding sense of entitlement can be a component of intervention. Practitioners could question potential perpetrators about their beliefs regarding one's sense of entitlement as it relates to his or her partner and use this information to assess for possible abuse. This information could also then be used to intervene by challenging the beliefs and educating the client to more healthy perspectives on relationship roles. This is consistent with current trends in batterer intervention which emphasize treatment philosophy and focusing on cultural and patriarchal influences as well as

psychopathology (Maiuro & Eberle, 2008). Sense of entitlement could be seen a psychopathological manifestation of cultural and patriarchal influences, thereby fitting well within the focus of the new standards. Again, this approach needs to be contextualized for men and women as the current study showed that sense of entitlement is a concern for men's perpetration, but not necessarily for women's perpetration.

Current treatment emphasizes accountability on the part of the perpetrator (Maiuro & Eberle, 2008); by incorporating a focus on entitlement, practitioners might be able to more accurately address accountability because the evidence from the current study suggests perpetrators see the problem as external, or the victim's fault. Perpetration is a complex problem that needs intervention from multiple areas (Tasso 2011); entitlement is one area that can be added to intervention programs to create a more comprehensive intervention. Practitioners will also need to pay attention to differences between genders, as focusing on entitlement could be effective for male perpetrators but may not have an impact on female perpetrator's behaviors based on the results of this study.

Conclusion

In conclusion, sense of entitlement has been established as an important factor in perpetration of abuse. Sense of entitlement is clearly a motivating factor in men's perpetration, but does not predict women's perpetration. Furthermore, gender is an important moderating variable in perpetration of abuse. Regardless of the debate over which gender is more abusive, it is clear that the motivations for perpetration are not the same for men and women. Future research should continue to develop measurement tools to more accurately study the construct of entitlement. Future research will also

need to investigate women's motivation for abuse. By continuing to develop the empirical evidence regarding motivation for abuse, the literature can gain a fuller picture of why people abuse their partners, giving policymakers and practitioners better information to intervene in cases of abuse and prevent future abuse.

APPENDIX A: PILOT STUDY RECRUITMENT

Subject line: Request for help with pilot study

Dear Dr. [insert name]

I am doctoral candidate in the Rutgers School of Social Work, and I am conducting a pilot study on beliefs and behaviors in dating and married relationships in preparation for my dissertation.

The IRB has approved this pilot, and I am hoping you will help. Please forward the message below to your students, as it includes the instructions and a link to the online questionnaire. The students would take it from there!

If you would prefer not to participate, I completely understand. Thank you very much for your consideration!

Regards,
Corinne Warrener, PhD Candidate
School of Social Work
Rutgers, the State University of New Jersey
cwarrener@ssw.rutgers.edu

Dissertation committee:
Dr. Darcy Siebert, Chair
Interim Vice President Richard Edwards
Dr. Judy Postmus
Dr. Sarah Rosenfield
Dr. Anthony Tasso

Hello!

You have been selected to participate in an important study at Rutgers University about dating and married relationships. The results of this research will be used to inform services for college students at universities around the country and your responses are critical to our success.

Please click on the link below to learn more about this study and to participate. The results of this anonymous survey will be available in early 2012. No identifying information will be collected and it should take about 15 minutes to complete.

<http://snapwebhost.rutgers.edu/snapwebhost/surveylogin.asp?k=131819115351>

Thank you for your help, and feel free to contact me if you have any questions!

Regards,
Corinne Warrener
cwarrener@ssw.rutgers.edu

Email sent via “Get Involved” listserv:

To all Rutgers students: An important study of dating and married relationship behaviors is going on now and your participation would provide critical information to researchers. Please follow the link to participate in the online questionnaire. It will take about 15 minutes to complete. Thank you very much for your help!

<http://snapwebhost.rutgers.edu/snapwebhost/surveylogin.asp?k=131819115351>

APPENDIX B: PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION RECRUITMENT

Prenotice Letter

Hello!

You have been selected to participate in an important study at Rutgers University about dating and married relationships. The results of this research will be used to inform services for college students at universities around the country and your responses are critical to our success.

Please click on the link below to learn more about this study and to participate. The results of this anonymous survey will be available in early 2012. No identifying information will be collected and it should take about 15 minutes to complete.

[insert link]

Thank you for your help, and feel free to contact me if you have any questions!

Corinne Warrener, PhD Candidate
[email address]

Invitation to Participate

Hello!

A study being conducted at Rutgers University is interested in your attitudes and beliefs about intimate relationships and you are invited to participate! The results of this anonymous study will be used to inform services for college students at universities around the country and your participation will really help us out. No identifying information will be collected and it should take about 15 minutes to complete.

Please click on the link below to participate in the study. I greatly appreciate your help! Results of this study will be available in early 2012.

[insert link]

Thank you for your help! Please feel free to contact me with any questions.

Corinne Warrener, PhD Candidate

[email address]

Reminder/Thank you

Hello!

You have previously received an email about being selected to participate in a Rutgers University study about dating or married relationships. If you have already completed the survey, thank you very much for your time!

If you would still like to participate, please follow the link below. The results of this anonymous study will be used to inform services for college students at universities around the country and your responses are critical to our success. I greatly appreciate your help!

[insert link]

Thank you for your help! Please feel free to contact me with any questions or technical issues, or to find out the results of the study in early 2012.

Corinne Warrener, PhD Candidate

[email address]

Reminder

Hello,

You have previously received an email inviting you to participate in a study about dating or married relationships. If you have already completed the survey, thank you so much for your time!

If you would still like to participate, please click on the link below. The results of this anonymous study will be used to inform services for college students at universities around the country and your participation will really help us out. I greatly appreciate your help!

[insert link]

Thank you for your help! Please feel free to contact me with any questions or technical issues, or to find out the results of the study in early 2012.

Corinne Warrener, PhD Candidate
[email address]

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

Dating, Marriage, and Relationships: Survey of Beliefs and Behaviors

[Welcome page]

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study! Your responses are really important because the results of this study will be used to inform services on college campuses all over the country. This study is completely anonymous

On the following pages you will find questions asking about your attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors about intimate relationships (dating or married). Please choose the responses that most closely reflect your personal beliefs. You can use the 'Back' button to change or review responses, or move forward by clicking 'Next'. You can skip questions you do not wish to answer. You can quit at any time.

[Next page]

Please mark your answer to the following questions.

1. "I believe jealousy is okay in a relationship"
Do you...
(1) Strongly disagree (2) disagree (3) neutral (4) agree (5) strongly agree
2. How often does your partner try to make you jealous?
(1) never (2) rarely (3) sometimes (4) frequently (5) constantly
3. How often do you try to make your partner jealous?
(1) Never (2) rarely (3) sometimes (4) frequently (5) constantly
4. How jealous do you consider yourself in general?
(1) Not at all jealous (2) not very jealous (3) somewhat jealous (4) very jealous (5) very jealous

Personal beliefs

Please respond to the following items using the number that best reflects your own beliefs. Please use the following 6-point scale.

- (1) Strongly disagree

- (2) Disagree
- (3) Mildly Disagree
- (4) Mildly Agree
- (5) Agree
- (6) Strongly Agree

5. Generally I do what I want to do, as opposed to what my partner wants me to do.
6. When it comes to activities or going out, I prefer to do what I want, rather than what my partner wants.
7. Some people are more dominant in relationships, and others take a more passive role. I am generally more dominant.
8. When a decision needs to be made between my partner and me, I am usually the one making the decision.
9. When there are disagreements in relationships, one person tends to give in more than the other. I generally get what I want after a disagreement.
10. Some think you should put your partner's needs first, while others think you have to put yourself first. I usually put myself first.
11. I think my partner should make time for me, even if it means he or she has to give up something.
12. I don't think I should have to give up my own activities and time in order to see my partner.
13. I think my partner should do things for me, such as taking me out or buying me gifts.
14. People differ in how independent they are in their relationships with others. How do you see yourself?
 - (1) extremely independent
 - (2) very independent
 - (3) somewhat independent
 - (4) not very independent
 - (5) not at all independent

How often was each of the following things true during the PAST WEEK?

- 1=Rarely or never
- 2=Some of the time

3=Occasionally
4=Most or all of the time

15. You felt depressed.
16. You felt that you could not shake off the blues, even with help from your family and friends.
17. You were happy.
18. You enjoyed life.
19. You felt sad.

Social Questions

Please rate on a scale of 1-7 how much you agree with the statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Not true</i>			<i>somewhat true</i>			<i>complete true</i>

20. I sometimes feel irritated when I don't get my own way.
21. I could never enjoy being cruel.
22. Seeing any attractive person of the opposite sex makes me think about sex.

(section removed after pilot)

23. I have never felt joy over someone else's failure.
24. I have gotten so angry at a friend that I felt like hitting him/her.
25. I have never felt like I wanted to kill someone.
26. There have been occasions when I was mean to someone unimportant.

27. I never enjoy watching sexy scenes in movies.
28. I enjoy it when obnoxious people get put down.
29. I rarely have sexual fantasies.
30. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.
31. I have never wanted to rape or be raped by someone.
32. More than once it felt good when I heard on the news that someone had been killed.
33. I can't think of anyone I hate deeply.
34. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.
35. Few of the things I do are simply for my own gain.
36. I must admit that revenge can be sweet.
37. I never get jealous over the good fortune of others.
38. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against authorities, even though I knew they were right.
39. I have never done anything that I'm ashamed of.

Relationship behaviors

40. Are you currently in a dating, cohabiting, or marital relationship?

Yes – (SNAP takes the respondent to item #41)

No – (SNAP takes the respondent to item #97)

41. How long have you been in your current relationship? Please answer in months.

_____ months (If fewer than 2 months, SNAP takes respondent to #97)

Thinking about your current relationship, indicate how frequently you did the following in the last TWO MONTHS. Using the following code, mark the number which best describes your actions toward your partner.

1=Never
2=Rarely
3=Sometimes
4=Often
5=Always

- 42. Did things to keep your partner from going to his or her job (removed after pilot study)
- 43. Threatened your partner to make him or her leave work (removed after pilot study)
- 44. Demanded that your partner quit his or her job (removed after pilot study)
- 45. Made your partner ask you for money
- 46. Took money from your partner's purse, wallet or bank account without permission
- 47. Forced your partner to give you money or let you use his/her checkbook, ATM card or credit card
- 48. Took your partner's property without permission (e.g. cell phone, cash, ipod)
- 49. Did things to keep your partner from having money of his or her own
- 50. Decided how your partner could spend money rather than letting your partner spend it how he or she saw fit
- 51. Demanded that your partner give you receipts and/or change when your partner spent money (removed after pilot study)
- 52. Kept your partner from having the money he or she needed to buy food, clothes or other necessities (removed after pilot study)
- 53. Gambled with your partner's money
- 54. Insisted that your partner ask friends or family for money
- 55. Convinced your partner to lend you money

- 56. Built up debt under your partner's name (e.g. use his or her credit card or running up the phone bill) (removed after pilot study)
- 57. Physically hurt your partner if he or she said s/he needed to go to work (removed after pilot study)

Thinking about your current relationship, indicate how frequently you did the following in the last TWO MONTHS. Using the following code, mark the number which best describes your actions toward your partner.

1=Never
 2=Rarely
 3=Sometimes
 4=Often
 5=Always

- 58. Tried to make your partner do things he or she didn't want to do
- 59. Used nasty looks and gestures to make your partner feel bad or silly
- 60. Damaged your partner's property when annoyed/angry (e.g. breaking a cell phone, scratching paint on their car)
- 61. Was rude to your partner's friends or family
- 62. Vented anger on pets
- 63. Tried to put the other down when he or she was getting too cocky
- 64. Told your partner they were going crazy (to their face, through text, email, facebook/myspace)
- 65. Called your partner names (to their face, through text, email, facebook/myspace)
- 66. Tried to restrict time your partner spent with family or friends
- 67. Wanted to know who your partner spoke to when not together

- 68. Tried to limit the number of activities outside the relationship your partner engaged in
- 69. Acted suspicious and jealous of your partner (for example, asking who a friend on myspace or facebook is)
- 70. Checked up on your partner's movements (includes frequently checking facebook or myspace to see who they are talking to, or logging into their account)
- 71. Tried to make your partner feel jealous
- 72. Threatened to leave the relationship
- 73. Threatened to disclose damaging or embarrassing information
- 74. Threatened to harm yourself
- 75. Threatened to harm your partner

Thinking about your current relationship, indicate how frequently you did the following in the last TWO MONTHS. Using the following code, mark the number which best describes your actions toward your partner. Only include times that you *initiated* such behavior, not times when you acted defensively.

1=Never
2=Rarely
3=Sometimes
4=Often
5=Always

- 76. Threw something at my partner
- 77. Pushed, grabbed, or shoved my partner
- 78. Slapped my partner
- 79. Kicked, bit, or hit with a fist
- 80. Hit or tried to hit with something

- 81. Beat up my partner
- 82. Threatened with a weapon (e.g., a knife)
- 83. Used a weapon (e.g. a knife).

Thinking about your current relationship, indicate how frequently you did the following in the last TWO MONTHS. Using the following code, mark the number which best describes your actions toward your partner.

- 1=Never
- 2=Rarely
- 3=Sometimes
- 4=Often
- 5=Always

***The following questions ask the same content as the previous version approved by IRB, however the ordering format has changed from asking each question individually to grouping the questions with the various actions.

- 84. Insisted that your partner “sext” (e.g., send messages or pictures in sexual positions, partially clothed, etc.) when partner was unwilling
- 85. Fondled or kissed your partner when s/he was unwilling because you:
 - 1. insisted (e.g., persuaded, demanded)
 - 2. used your position of authority (supervisor, teacher, boss)
 - 3. threatened physical force
 - 4. used physical force (e.g. twisting arm, holding down)
- 86. Attempted intercourse (i.e., penis in vagina) when your partner was unwilling when you:

(Removed after pilot)

 - 1. insisted (e.g., persuaded, demanded)
 - 2. threatened physical force
 - 3. used alcohol or drugs
 - 4. used physical force

87. Had sexual intercourse when your partner was unwilling because you:

1. insisted (e.g. persuaded, demanded)
2. used alcohol or drugs
3. threatened physical force
4. used physical force

88. Engaged in other sex acts (e.g., anal sex, oral sex, penetration by objects) when your partner was unwilling when you:

1. insisted (e.g. persuaded, demanded)
2. used alcohol or drugs
3. threatened physical force
4. Used physical force (e.g., twisting arm, holding down)

89. What was your main source of information about dating during adolescence? Please choose one.

(In pilot were able to select more than one)

1. Mother
2. Father
3. Sibling(s)
4. Other family members
5. Peers
6. Family friends
7. Teachers
8. Health professionals (e.g. therapist)
9. No one
10. Other (please describe)

90. Who do you mainly turn to for advice when you aren't sure how to handle something in your relationship? Please choose one.

(In pilot were able to select more than one)

1. Mother
2. Father
3. Sibling(s)
4. Other family members
5. Peers
6. Family friends

7. Teachers
8. Health professionals (e.g. therapist)
9. No one
10. Other (please describe)

91. Growing up, where did you learn (or who taught you) about acceptable or unhealthy behaviors in relationships? Please choose one.

(In pilot were able to select more than one)

1. Mother
2. Father
3. Sibling(s)
4. Other family members
5. Peers
6. Family friends
7. Teachers
8. Health professionals (e.g. therapist)
9. No one
10. Other (please describe)

Demographics

92. Are you...

- (1) Male (2) Female (3) Transgender/transsexual

93. How old are you?

94. Is it a....

- (1) Same Sex Relationship (2) Heterosexual Relationship

95. What year of college is this for you? (# of years in college, including time at other schools, undergraduate and graduate)

_____years

96. Are you...

- 1 full time
2 part time

97. What is your mother's educational level?

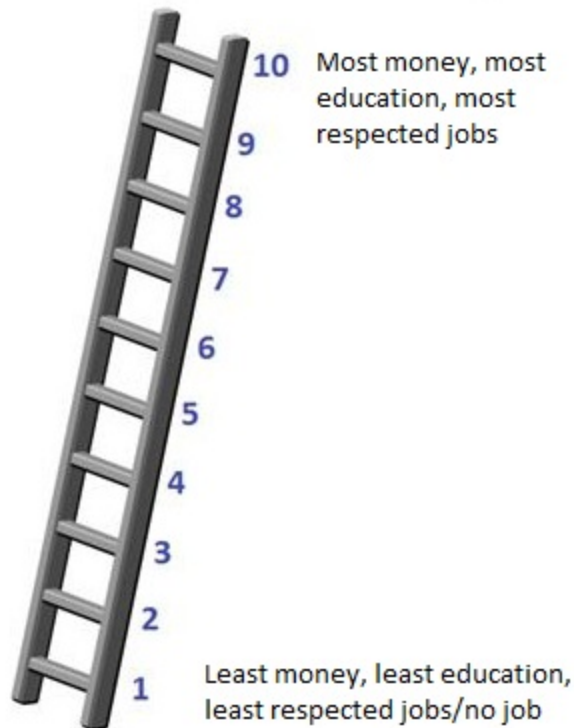
- | | |
|----|--|
| 1 | None |
| 2 | Elementary |
| 3 | Some high school |
| 4 | High school graduate or GED |
| 5 | Some college |
| 6 | College degree (e.g. BS or BA) |
| 7 | Some graduate school |
| 8 | Masters level degree (e.g. MA, MS, MBA, MSW) |
| 9 | Doctoral degree (e.g. PhD) |
| 10 | Professional degree (e.g. MD, JD-Law, DOS, EdD, DSW) |
| 99 | Don't know |

98. What is your father's education level?

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1 | None |
| 2 | Elementary |
| 3 | Some high school |
| 4 | High school graduate or GED |
| 5 | Some college |
| 6 | College degree (BS or BA) |
| 7 | Some graduate school |
| 8 | Masters level degree (MA, MS, MBA, MSW) |
| 9 | Doctoral degree (PhD) |
| 10 | Professional degree (MD, JD-Law, DOS, EdD) |
| 99 | Don't know |

99. At the top of the ladder are those who are the best off (the most money, most education, most respected jobs). At the bottom are those who are the worst off (least money, least education, least respected jobs or no job).

Where would you place your family on this ladder?



100. Are you receiving financial aid for your college tuition?

- 1 yes
- 2 no

101. Are you:

- 1. Hispanic
- 2. Non-Hispanic

102. Please check your race:

- 1 American /Alaskan Native
- 2 Asian
- 3 Black or African American
- 4 Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
- 5 White
- 6 2 or more races
- 7 Other

103. Are you currently participating or planning to participate in...(circle all that apply)

- 1. Music or arts club

2. Sports Team
3. Fraternity or Sorority
4. Religious Group
5. Other club or organization

What type of club? _____

(For FDU students only, Rutgers will not have this question)

104. At which campus do you attend classes?

- 1 Metropolitan/Teaneck Campus
- 2 Florham Park/Madison Campus

[Thank you page]

Thank you very much for your participation! We value your answers and appreciate your taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

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