EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT ATTITUDES AND ATTRIBUTIONS OF

RESPONSIBILITY AND BLAME IN CASES OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE:

DO MEN AND WOMEN DIFFER?

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Abstract

Although there are many studies that have examined explicit attitudes toward domestic violence, no studies to date have examined participants' implicit attitudes towards this topic. The current research sought to address this absence and examined gender differences in implicit and explicit attitudes toward domestic violence. In addition, gender differences in attributions of responsibility and blame for an instance of domestic violence were examined. Participants' implicit attitudes toward a female victim and male perpetrator of domestic violence were assessed using a modified version of the Implicit Association Test (IAT) (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998). In addition, the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating Scale (Saunders, Lynch, Grayson, & Linz, 1987) and an attribution for violence scale (Dexter, Penrod, Linz, & Saunders, 1997) were used. It was hypothesized that men would hold more negative explicit and implicit attitudes toward victims of domestic violence than women. It was next hypothesized that when compared to women, men would assign more responsibility and blame for an instance of domestic violence to the victim. It was also hypothesized that participants' responses on the explicit and implicit attitude measures would not be correlated with one another. Results for these hypotheses were mixed. Limitations to the current research and implications for future research and practice are discussed.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Domestic violence is defined as "any behavior that is intended to control and subjugate another human being through the use of fear, humiliation, and verbal or physical assaults. It is the systematic persecution of one partner by another" (Berry, 2002, p.1). Domestic violence is a serious problem that occurs every 15 seconds in the United States (Mills, 1998). Roberts and Burman (1998) reported that every year approximately 9 million people of all classes, races and sexes in the United States are victims of domestic violence. Victims of domestic violence often encounter a variety of problems that include intrapersonal problems, physical distress, depression, fear, anger, and even death (Mills, 1998). More than 1,500 women are killed annually by their former husbands or boyfriends. Because approximately 95% of these victims are women injured by male perpetrators (Berry, 1998), the current research will examine attitudes and attributions of responsibility toward domestic violence involving a male perpetrator and a female victim.

Many people deny that domestic violence is a problem (Berkel, Vandiver, & Bahner, 2004). According to Berry (2004), they may do this because it is too agonizing to think about, they may hold negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence, or they may be motivated to attribute responsibility for the violence to the victim because they believe in a "just world". The belief in a just world hypothesis refers to the idea that people want to believe so strongly that the world is just or fair that when they witness an

inexplicable injustice they attempt to rationalize the injustice by searching for things that the victim could have done to deserve it (Lerner, 1966).

Attributing responsibility and blame for domestic violence to the actions of the victim is frequently observed (Riger, 1999). Victim blaming and the negative stereotypes directed toward the victim often perpetuate the misconception that victims of domestic violence are responsible for what happened to them (Riger, 1999). It serves the purpose of taking responsibility for the violence from the perpetrator and placing it on the victim. Female victims of domestic violence are commonly asked "If you were being beaten, why did you stay in that relationship?" They may be told, "It's your fault because you stayed with him" (Gellert, 2002). Victim blaming can be detrimental to the mental health of the victim (Riger, 1999). It can also cause the victims to blame themselves for the violence and to influence them to remain in a damaging romantic relationship (Riger, 1999).

Several factors have been explored in the literature regarding attributions of responsibility for domestic violence. Two prominent factors are alcohol consumption by the victim or the perpetrator (Center for Disease Control, 2005) and prior history of perpetrating violence or being the victim of violence (Gellert, 2002). Those making attributions of responsibility may also be influenced by whether or not the victim had "provoked" the perpetrator through his or her actions (Gellert, 2002). Examples of actions of victims that could provoke perpetrators into violence are "nagging," having a romantic affair, or threatening to end the romantic relationship.

Characteristics of persons making attributions of responsibility in cases of domestic violence also influence the attributions they make. For example, male students

are significantly more likely to attribute responsibility for the violence to the victims than are female students (Bryant & Spencer, 2003). Also, people who have previously experienced or witnessed domestic violence have been found to be more likely to assign blame for instances of domestic violence to the victim of the violence rather than the perpetrator (Bryant & Spencer, 2003). Men are more likely than women to make judgments that are more critical of female victims (Schult & Schneider, 1991). Men have also been found to be more likely to report that women deserved to be beaten than women (Gellert, 2002). In addition, men have been found to be more likely to blame women for domestic violence than women (Riger, 1999).

Not all research supports the idea that men are more likely to assign responsibility and blame for domestic violence than women. Stewart and Maddren (1997), for example, found that women tend to blame female victims of domestic violence more than men. Those men and women who hold supportive attitudes toward women tend to blame men for domestic violence more than those who do not hold supportive attitudes toward women (Fisher, 1986). One of the goals of the present study will be to clarify the confusion regarding possible sex differences in attributing responsibility and blame for domestic male-on-female violence.

Persons' attitudes toward domestic violence can significantly influence the way they treat both victims and perpetrators of domestic violence. For example, persons who hold negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence have been found to be more likely to become perpetrators of domestic violence. While the former finding is not surprising, it is also the case that persons who hold these negative attitudes are also more likely to become victims of domestic violence than those who hold more positive

attitudes toward victims (Gellert, 2002). Other researchers have shown that those who hold negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence may minimize the difficult experiences of the victim (Bryant & Spencer, 2003), be more critical of the victim, and treat the victim with disrespect (Schult & Schneider, 1991).

A review of the attitudes toward domestic violence literature reveals that the majority of studies have utilized self-report, or "explicit" measures. These measures allow researchers to assess attitudes that individuals openly report and are aware that they possess.   While these measures allow researchers to gain insight into participants' expressed attitudes toward domestic violence, they may also be subject to the influence of participants' socially desirable responses (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999).

Explicit measures are particularly vulnerable to socially desirable responses because the purpose of explicit attitude measures is often apparent to participants (Fazio & Olson, 2003). This can lead to participant response distortion. For example, people who hold negative attitudes toward a victim of domestic violence may perceive they are under social pressure to hold positive attitudes toward victims of domestic violence. Participants who are aware that they would be evaluated negatively if they reported their "true" attitude may chose to report a "false" attitude in order to be evaluated more positively (Fazio & Olson, 2003). This problem may make it difficult to accurately determine the extent of potentially negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence when only using explicit attitude measures.

Social psychologists have explored another type of attitude; the "implicit" attitude. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) defined implicit attitudes as "introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) traces of past experience that mediate favorable

or unfavorable feeling, thought, or action toward social objects" (p. 8). Implicit attitudes appear as actions or judgments that are under the control of automatically activated evaluations that often occur outside of peoples' consciousness (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). People may not even be aware that these evaluations occur. The Implicit Association Test (IAT) is a measure that is used to measure the strength of these automatically activated evaluations or associations (Greenwald, Nosek, & Banaji, 2003). Given that these evaluations occur outside of one's consciousness, measures of implicit attitudes are believed to circumvent the social desirability bias commonly associated with explicit attitude measures.

Explicit attitude measures such as The Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating (Saunders, Lynch, Grayson, & Linz, 1987), the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Burt, 1980), the Sex-Role Stereotyping Scale (Burt, 1980), and the Hostility Toward Women Scale (Check & Malamuth, 1983) have been used to assess attitudes toward relationship violence. These measures have demonstrated that men are more likely than women to hold negative attitudes toward women and to approve of behaviors associated with domestic violence. Nevertheless, given the potential biases and risks associated with using explicit attitude measures, this assessment may not be completely accurate (Fazio & Olson, 2003). For instance, men may appear to hold more negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence and women may appear to hold more positive attitudes toward domestic violence due to pressure to conform to social norms. Explicit and implicit attitude assessment toward domestic violence could potentially lead to a more accurate measurement of attitudes toward domestic violence.

To date, no research has examined implicit attitudes toward domestic violence even though it is possible to create an implicit measure of attitudes toward domestic violence using the Implicit Association Test (IAT). The IAT, combined with an explicit attitude measure should provide a more accurate assessment of respondents' overall attitudes toward domestic violence than either measure used alone.

The use of the IAT and other measures may enhance assessment of attitudes that are likely to be subject to social desirability effects. This increased ability to accurately assess information about peoples' attitudes toward domestic violence and their associated behaviors could assist mental health professionals in working with both perpetrators and victims of domestic violence. Determining who may be at risk of becoming a perpetrator or victim of domestic violence can help mental health professionals more accurately identify those who could benefit from interventions geared toward the reduction of domestic violence (Berkel et al., 2004).

Statement of Problem

This study seeks to identify gender differences in attributions of responsibility and blame in situations of domestic violence. Also, gender differences in attitudes toward domestic violence (as measured by an explicit attitude measure and an implicit attitude measure) will be considered. Finally, the correlations among an explicit attitude measure, an implicit attitude measure, and attribution for responsibility and blame measure will be examined.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions will be examined in the current research. Each research question is accompanied by a testable hypothesis supported by previous research (see Chapter 2).

Research Question One: Do male and female participants differ in their implicit attitudes toward the victim and perpetrator of domestic violence as measured by an implicit attitude scale?

Hypothesis One: Female participants will demonstrate a significantly more favorable implicit attitude toward the victim of domestic violence and less favorable implicit attitude toward the perpetrator of domestic violence than will male participants.

Research Question Two: Are there gender differences in participants' support for and acceptance of domestic violence as measured by an explicit attitude scale?

Hypothesis Two: Male participants will demonstrate more support for and acceptance of domestic violence than will female participants on an explicit attitude scale.

Research Question Three: Do male and female participants differ in the amount of responsibility assigned to the victim for an instance of domestic violence?

Hypothesis Three: Male participants will assign more responsibility for the violence to the victim than will female participants.

Research Question Four: Do male and female participants differ in the amount of blame assigned to the perpetrator for an instance of domestic violence?

Hypothesis Four: Female participants will assign more blame to the perpetrator of the violence than will males.

Research Question Five: Will participants' responses on the implicit attitude measure be correlated with participants' responses on the explicit attitude measure or with the attributions of responsibility and blame for violence measures?

Hypothesis Five: Participants' responses on the implicit attitude measure will not be correlated with responses on the explicit attitude subscale or with the attributions of responsibility and blame for violence measures.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

Domestic Violence

Domestic violence involves rape, murder, or physical or emotional assault committed by spouses, ex-spouses, girlfriends, or boyfriends against their partners (Gellert, 2002). One specific form of domestic violence, spousal abuse, will be examined in the present study. Spousal abuse is defined as the "violent victimization of one partner, most often women, by the other partner within a marriage" (Gellert, 2002, p. 146). Examples of behaviors that perpetrators of spousal abuse engage in are repeated beatings of their partners leading to injury, emotional or psychological abuse, sexual assault, socially isolating their victims, and intimidation of the victim.

Domestic violence is a dangerous crime, usually involving some form of assault or the intentional injury on another person (Gellert, 2002). The perpetrator's violent behavior tends to be recurrent and often escalates in frequency and intensity over time (Gellert, 2002). This increase in violence leads to an increase in the level of danger that victims of domestic violence experience (Center for Disease Control, 2005).

In addition to physical violence, the psychological and emotional abuse victims often encounter is also very dangerous (Gellert, 2002). Victims of psychological abuse encounter attempts to limit access to money, friends, transportation, and health care. Victims of emotional abuse may encounter threats, intimidation, humiliation, social isolation, and name-calling.

Prevalence

Domestic violence frequently occurs in the United States (Gellert, 2002). According to the Center for Disease Control (2005), 5.3 million women and 3.2 million men are victims of some form of domestic violence every year. Coker, Davis, Arias, Desai, Sanderson, and Brandt (2002) found that 29% of women and 22% of men had encountered some form of domestic violence during their lifetime. Although men and women both experience domestic violence, women tend to experience more violence than men (Rennison, 2003). Women who also belong to a racial minority group tend to experience more domestic violence than do Caucasian women (Gellert, 2002). Women are at significantly greater risk for becoming victims of domestic violence than men, while men are more likely to become perpetrators of domestic violence than are women (Center for Disease Control, 2005). Given this trend, this study will focus on domestic violence perpetrated by a man against a woman.

The Female Victim: Who are the women most likely to be abused?

Several factors put women at a higher risk for becoming victims of domestic violence. Women who are young (between the ages of 16 and 30), have a prior history of being victimized by domestic violence, engage in high-risk sexual behavior, and are heavy users of alcohol and drugs are at the greatest risk for domestic violence (Center for Disease Control, 2005). Women who have a relatively low level of education but a higher level of education than their partner also run an increased risk for domestic violence. Women who are in a relationship with a male partner who is verbally abusive, jealous, controlling, and possessive also run a high risk of experiencing domestic violence. Finally, couples who are having financial and emotional difficulties run a significant risk for domestic violence to permeate their relationship.

The Male Perpetrator: Who are men most likely to abuse?

Men are by far the most likely perpetrators of domestic violence (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). According to Gellert (2002), 92% of women who were survivors of domestic violence were attacked by men. Men who perpetrate domestic violence against their partner tend to share several characteristics including low income, a prior history of aggressive and delinquent behavior, marital conflict and instability, poor family functioning, emotional dependence, insecurity, belief in strict gender roles, and an exhibition of anger and hostility toward a partner (CDC, 2005). In addition, many men who are perpetrators of domestic violence have been found to refuse to take responsibility for their own actions and emotions within interpersonal relationships (Gellert, 2002).

Potential Causes of Domestic Violence

Common factors found to be involved in domestic violence cases include the perpetrator's perception that he or she is losing control over his or her partner, the perpetrator's suspicion of his or her partner's infidelity, and the consumption of alcohol (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). The consumption of alcohol heightens emotionality and lowers inhibitions, which increases the likelihood of domestic violence occurring (Gellert, 2002). Also, male perpetrators of domestic violence often state they felt they were being "nagged" by their partners (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000).

For the purpose of this study, a scenario depicting an instance of domestic violence was used to assess participants' attributions of responsibility and blame for the domestic violence as well as participants implicit attitudes. This scenario (Appendix D) was constructed by selecting the most common personal and interpersonal factors

associated with a male perpetrator of domestic violence and a female victim of domestic violence as discussed by Tjaden and Thoennes (2000).

Attributions of Blame and Responsibility for Domestic Violence

The attributions made about the causes of another person's behavior can influence the way the perceiver behaves toward that person (Weiner, 1995). It is thus important to have a clear understanding of the factors that influence the attributions of responsibility and blame for domestic violence (Stewart & Maddren, 1997).

Violence is a serious social problem (Gellert, 2002). Nonetheless, there appears to be little agreement as to who is responsible for this violence (Bryant & Spencer, 2003). Generally speaking, persons in the United States have a tendency to blame the victims of domestic violence (Kristiansen & Guilierit, 1990).

Many different factors, however, may affect whether one assigns blame or responsibility to the perpetrator or to the victim of domestic violence. One of these factors that will be examined is the gender of the person making the attributions of responsibility and blame for domestic violence. Several studies have uncovered mixed evidence for the relationship between gender and attribution of blame in cases of domestic violence. For example, Schult and Schneider (1991) found that men are more likely than women to make judgments that are more critical of female victims. On the other hand, Stewart and Maddren (1997) found the opposite results, showing that women tend to blame female victims of domestic violence more than do men. Men and women who hold more supportive attitudes toward women tend to blame men for domestic violence more than those who do not hold supportive attitudes toward women (Fisher, 1986).

Bryant and Spencer (2003) examined the attributions of blame for domestic violence that 346 university undergraduate students made when evaluating whether a male perpetrator or a female victim of domestic violence depicted in a brief vignette were to blame for the incident of domestic violence that occurred. The authors found that male students were significantly more likely than were female students to attribute blame to the victim for the domestic violence. The authors also examined whether or not students' personal experience with domestic violence influenced their attribution of blame. They found that participants who had previously encountered domestic violence were more likely to blame the victim for the violence.

Attribution Theory

To what do we attribute the cause of another's behavior? Is it due to circumstance? Is it due to personality? Is it due to some other cause? These form the basis of attribution theory (Weiner, 1985). For over 40 years, attribution theorists have examined how attributions for behavior are made (Martinko & Thomson, 1998). Theorists have explored how people explain events, as well as the emotional and behavioral consequences associated with these explanations. Many theories of attribution have been proposed (Martinko & Thomson, 1998). Two theories, however, have been particularly influential: Harold Kelley's Covariation Model of Attribution (1973) and Bernard Weiner's Achievement Motivation Model (1985).

Kelley's Attribution Theory. According to Kelley (1967), people make attributions by engaging in a causal analysis that is analogous to the experimental method. In making an attribution, people first examine what information is available to form an attribution. Once people identify exactly what information is available, they can

then evaluate how they can use it (Hewstone, 1983). If an attributor obtains information over time from multiple observations, he or she can observe the covariation between an observed effect and its possible causes (Hewstone, 1983). Yet if the attributor is faced with information from only a single observation, the attributor must decide which of the multiple factors associated with that single observation caused the behavior.

In order to determine why something happened, we must focus on information regarding three major sources of information (Kelley, 1973). The first of these is consensus. Consensus is the extent to which others react to a specific stimulus or event in the same manner that other people do (Baron & Byrne, 2000). The second is consistency. Consistency is the extent to which people react to a stimulus or event in the same manner over a period of time. The third source is distinctiveness. Distinctiveness refers to the extent to which people react in different ways to other, different stimuli.

Different combinations of these three factors lead people to make different causal attributions (Kelley, 1967). For instance, when consistency is high but consensus and distinctiveness are low, people are likely to attribute behavior to internal causes (personal attributes of actors). If consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness are low, people are likely to attribute behavior to external factors (situation). In addition, if consistency and distinctiveness are high but consensus is low, people are likely to attribute behavior to a combination of internal and external factors.

When people only have a single observation from which to gather information, they must rely on a configuration concept, such as the "discounting principle," to make an attribution about the cause of a behavior. According to Kelley (1973), people may "discount" a possible cause of a behavior if other, more probable causes are also present.

For example, Al sees Bob commit an act of domestic violence. If Al is asked to make an attribution for the cause of the violence he may discount the role of one cause (marital instability) if other, more probable causes are also present (alcohol abuse). Conversely, if a potential cause of behavior is known to have been a cause of behavior before, then other potential causes may be seen as less important. For instance, if Bob had previously engaged in an act of domestic violence when intoxicated, Al may attribute the cause of the violence to Bob being intoxicated rather than because Bob had experienced problems at work. Causal attributions become increasingly difficult to make and increasingly less certain as the number of potential causes increases (Hewstone, 1983).

Although Kelley's theory of attribution has been very influential, it is Weiner's Attributional Theory of Achievement Motivation and Emotion (Weiner, 1985) that will be the main framework for this study's examination of attributions. This is so because although Kelley's theory of attribution explains the attribution of causality, Weiner's model offers a more comprehensive explanation for attributions of responsibility and blame.

Weiner's Theory of Attribution. Weiner's (1985) theory of attribution examines the role of motivation for achievement and the emotions associated with achievement in the formation of attributions for behavior. Weiner (1990) stated people want to make causal attributions regarding their own behavior as well as the behavior of others. Their attributions influence their cognitive processes (e.g., expectancies of future success or failure), affective reactions (e.g., feeling confident), and behaviors (e.g., approaching or avoiding similar people or challenges in the future).

According to Weiner (1985), an individual's attributions for past successes or failures affect his or her motivation to attempt future achievement oriented tasks. Three conditions for causal attributions exist in Weiner's model: locus, stability, and controllability. Locus refers to whether the individual perceives the cause of success or failure as being due to factors internal to the individual (e.g., ability and effort) or due to external factors (e.g., task difficulty and chance) (Martinko & Thomson, 1998).

Causes that are invariant over time are perceived as stable. Ability is considered to be a fairly stable causal factor because aptitude for particular tasks tends to be relatively fixed over time. A causal factor that is not constant is unstable. Mood and effort, for example, are considered to be relatively unstable factors because they vary across situations and conditions (Weiner, 1985).

The last factor, controllability, refers to whether the cause could be influenced by the individual's own actions (Weiner, 1985). This dimension captures the primary dimension that defines responsibility: if a person can choose to influence an outcome then he or she is to some degree responsible for that outcome. The responsibility may lie in action or inaction, but if a choice was made the person is to some degree responsible. Effort, for example, is within the control of the actor. Actors who exert high effort are responsible for success, while those who choose not to exert effort are responsible for failure. Events that are not controllable by the actor free the actor from responsibility. Outcomes caused by factors such as intrinsic ability and luck, for example, are not controllable and are hence not the responsibility of the actor.

Weiner (1985) emphasized the importance of controllability and stability in forming attributions regarding achievement motivation. The following diagram

summarizes the causal dimensions emphasized in situations of success and failure in

Weiner's Attributional Theory (1985).

Weiner (1985)
Success

	Internal Locus		External Locus	
	Stable	Unstable	Stable	Unstable
Controllable	Typical Effort	Temporary Effort	Teacher Bias	Unusual Distraction
	Pride	*Relief*	*Contempt*	*Gratitude*
Uncontrollable	Ability	Mood	Task Difficulty	Good Luck
	Arrogance & Pride	*Amusement*	*Boredom*	*Relief*

Weiner (1985)
Failure

	Internal Locus		External Locus	
	Stable	Unstable	Stable	Unstable
Controllable	Typical Effort	Temporary Effort	Teacher Bias	Unusual Distraction
	Regret	*Shame & Regret*	*Anger & Withdrawal*	*Perceived Inequity*
Uncontrollable	Ability	Mood	Task Difficulty	Good Luck
	Despair & Low Self-Esteem	*Frustration*	*Anger Frustration*	*Optimism*

Ability is seen as an internal, stable, and uncontrollable cause of behavior.

Successes and failures due to ability are seen as being characteristic of the individual,

enduring over time, and beyond his or her control. Effort is an internal, unstable, and

controllable cause of behavior. Successes and failures due to effort are seen as being

characteristic of the individual and modifiable by choice. Luck is an external, unstable,

and uncontrollable cause of behavior. Successes and failures due to luck are

characteristic of the environment, not stable, and can't be modified by the individual. Finally, support from others is an external cause of behavior that can be stable or unstable and is not easily changed. Successes and failures are caused by others, could either be stable or unstable depending on the environment, and are not controlled by the individual.

In this model of attribution, expectancy and value are seen as being the two determinants of motivation (Wiener, 1985). Expectancy is the perception of the likelihood of future success or failure while value refers to how important the success is to the individual. If an individual highly values an outcome there are emotional consequences of attaining or not attaining a successful outcome. For example, failure attributed to internal causes may damage the actor's self-esteem, whereas attributing failure to an external cause may work to preserve self-esteem. Yet success that is attributed to an external cause does not enhance self-esteem because the individual has not taken responsibility for the success. Further, if an actor sees the cause as something that is controllable and is due to choice he or she may feel mastery and be motivated to strive for future achievement. In contrast, an individual who perceives the cause as something that cannot be controlled will not be motivated to attempt future achievement.

Types of Attributions

Cause, responsibility, and blame are the three main types of attributions that people make. Although these three types of attributions are all explanations of an event or a behavior, there are several important differences between the three types (Shaver, 1985).

Cause. Shaver defined causal attributions as explanations for the occurrence of an event (1985). Examples of causal attributions made for domestic violence could

include the perpetrator being drunk, the victim yelling at the perpetrator, or the

perpetrator having a bad temper. One can make a causal attribution without having to

make an attribution of responsibility or blame (Shaver, 1985). One could conclude that

the behavior of the perpetrator or the behavior of the victim of domestic violence

contributed to the cause of the domestic violence but this does not necessarily mean that

responsibility and blame for the violence will be attributed to the perpetrator or the

victim. A causal attribution only means that what someone did had an effect on a

situation.

Responsibility. Shaver (1985) defined attributions of responsibility as the

perception of an individual's accountability for an event. Attributions of responsibility

are moral judgments regarding peoples' actions. While cause is physical in nature,

attributions of responsibility are social in nature. Societal norms and moral beliefs

influence peoples' attributions of responsibility.

Attributions of responsibility can have a significant influence on how individuals

make choices in their lives as well as how they treat others (Weiner, 1995). Attributions

of responsibility that persons who observe domestic violence make regarding the

violence can have significant effects on future behaviors. They will also influence the

way the attributor interacts with both victims and perpetrators of domestic violence. For

example, if a woman was beaten by her husband and attributes responsibility for the

violence to herself, she may also view other women who were beaten by their partners as

also being responsible for the domestic violence they experienced. Conversely, if this

same woman had originally attributed responsibility for the domestic violence to her

partner, she would be more likely to view other perpetrators of domestic violence as being responsible for the violence that they had committed.

Given that attributions of responsibility can influence how people treat one another (Weiner, 1995), it is important to have a clear understanding of factors that may influence attributions of responsibility (Stewart & Maddren, 1997). There has been some confusion in the literature as to whether gender of attributor affects the attributions made for domestic violence. This research examines whether the gender of the attributor significantly affects a person's attributions of responsibility.

Blame. Shaver (1985) defined attributions of blame as a person's liability for punishment and disapproval. An attribution of blame can only be made if a negative event has occurred and if an individual is perceived to have intended to do harm to someone or something (Allison & Wrightsman, 1993). Perpetrators of domestic violence can be blamed if (a) the violence occurred, (b) it is perceived that the perpetrator was aware of the situation, (c) the perpetrator understood the consequences of the behavior, and (d) the perpetrator intended to harm the survivor.

Distinctions between cause, responsibility, and blame. According to Shaver (1985), it is important to distinguish between attributions of cause, responsibility, and blame because these attributions can have different consequences. Attributions of cause are concerned with the factors producing an occurrence, attributions of responsibility are concerned with judgments about a person's accountability for the event, and attributions of blame are concerned with the evaluative judgments that lead to blame being placed on a person and the consequences associated with this blame.

These three types of attributions are hierarchically interconnected. An attribution of blame requires that attributions of cause and responsibility have been previously made. The following diagram demonstrates the hierarchical relationship between the different types of attributions.

<div align="center">

Occurrence
↓
Causal Determination
↓
Responsibility
↓
Blame

</div>
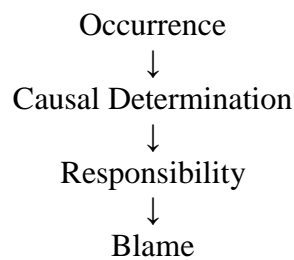
In this hierarchical model, there must be objective information regarding cause before attributions of responsibility and blame can be made (Weiner, 1995). When more information becomes available a person may begin to make more relatively subjective judgments that are influenced by one's own moral values and beliefs (Shaver, 1985). Attributions of responsibility and blame then become social judgments that are based on personal values and ethical standards rather than objective information (Mantler & Page, 2003).

The hierarchical relationship among attributions may be adapted to explain interpretations of domestic violence. An event must first occur (e.g., a person is beaten by his or her partner). Then, a person who has heard of this violence makes a causal determination. For example, the person learning of the violence could perceive the perpetrator of the violence as causing the incident because the perpetrator was acting irrationally. The observer of the violence would then make an attribution of responsibility. The perpetrator could be viewed as being responsible for the domestic

violence because he or she had control over his or her physical actions and should not have committed the act of violence. Finally, an attribution of blame could be made if the perpetrator was aware of the consequences of his or her actions and the perpetrator intended to harm the victim through this violence.

Factors Affecting Attributions of Responsibility

Causality Factors. The factors of causality, controllability, and locus of control determine attributions of responsibility for situations (Weiner, 1995). The first factor is the nature of the event. This includes what actually transpired as well as how it was done. As will be described in the next section, participants in the current study were asked to read a scenario depicting an instance of domestic violence. Participants made causal attributions based on objective information they read in the scenario. In making a causal attribution for the violence, participants may have been interested in what violence actually occurred, how much violence was used, the outcome of the violence, and the physical and emotional experiences of the perpetrator and victim.

Controllability. Controllability is the ability to change or willfully regulate the characteristics of a cause (Weiner, 1995). An event must be perceived as being within someone's control before responsibility for it can be attributed to that person. For example, if a victim of domestic violence was beaten when they did not want to be beaten, responsibility could be attributed to the perpetrator because the perpetrator would be perceived as being in control. Weiner (1995) stated that in most cases, perceptions of responsibility lead to attributions of blame.

Locus of Control. Locus of control refers to beliefs about internal and external control of events (Baron & Byrne, 2000). Individuals with an internal locus of control

tend to feel more responsible for events that happen to them and feel they are able to control, avoid, or master situations based on their own abilities and behaviors (Shaver, 1985). Persons with an external locus of control tend to feel that external sources are responsible for events that happen to them and feel that they do not have the ability to control or avoid situations. They tend to feel that events may occur due to chance rather than something they did (Shaver, 1985). Differences in persons' locus of control may influence perceptions regarding responsibility (Weiner, 1995).

Utility of Attribution Theory in Cases of Domestic Violence

Most researchers exploring attributions for domestic violence have focused on personal and environmental factors influencing attributions of responsibility. Several contributing factors have been identified in the literature and include alcohol consumption (Center for Disease Control, 2005) and prior history of either perpetrating violence or being the victim of violence (Gellert, 2002). Those making attributions appear to be influenced by whether or not the victim was "provoking" the perpetrator through his or her actions (Gellert, 2002). Examples of actions of the victim that could provoke the perpetrator into violence are "nagging," having a romantic affair, or threatening to end the romantic relationship.

Characteristics of persons making attributions of responsibility for domestic violence also influence the attributions they make (Bryant & Spencer, 2003). For example, male students were significantly more likely than female students to attribute responsibility for the violence to the victim. These authors also examined whether domestic violence experience would influence attributions of blame. They found that participants who had previously encountered domestic violence were more likely to

blame the victim for the violence than participants who had not previously encountered domestic violence.

There is additional evidence that men blame women for domestic violence more than women blame women. Men are more likely than women to make judgments that are more critical of victims of domestic violence who are women (Schult & Schneider, 1991). Also, men are more likely to report that women deserved to be beaten than women are (Gellert, 2002). In addition, men were more likely to blame women for domestic violence than were women (Riger, 1999). There is, however, some disagreement within the literature regarding gender differences in making responsibility and blame attributions for domestic violence. For example, Stewart and Maddren (1997) found that women tend to blame female victims of domestic violence more than do men.

Attributing Responsibility to the Perpetrator. Several common factors have been identified in the attribution of responsibility to men for domestic violence. People tend to attribute responsibility to a man if he is perceived to be losing control over his partner (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). In addition, a man is typically assigned responsibility for domestic violence if he is seen as suspecting his partner is being unfaithful. Men are also seen as being responsible for domestic violence if they are thought to have planned the attack (Gellert, 2002). Men are also commonly assigned responsibility for domestic violence if the man is perceived as being intoxicated (Harrison & Willis-Esqueda, 2000).

Attributing Responsibility to the Victim. Blaming battered women for being beaten is relatively common (Riger, 1999). Victim blaming and the negative stereotypes associated with victim blaming are used to perpetuate the misconception that victims of domestic violence are responsible for what happened to them (Riger, 1999). Female

victims of domestic violence are commonly asked, "If you were being beaten, why did you stay in that relationship?" or told, "It's your fault because you stayed with him" (Gellert, 2002).

Female victims of domestic violence are sometimes seen as provoking the violence. For instance, Pavlou and Knowles (2001) found that if a woman who had been beaten had done something that "made" her husband angry, she would most likely be blamed for the violence. Kristiansen and Guilierti (1990) found that women tended to assign responsibility for violence to female victims beaten by their partners. The authors hypothesized that this occurred because of the need of people to believe in a "just world."

Lerner (1980) developed the "Just World Hypothesis" to explain why people blame victims of misfortune as being culpable for their misfortune. In a world that is perceived as just, stable, and orderly, persons will generally get what they deserve. The good will be rewarded, while the bad and the foolish will be punished (Lerner, 1970). Observers who blame victims accept this premise. The victim is either bad or foolish. But because the observer is neither bad nor foolish, he or she can avoid the victim's fate. Those who believe in a just world would also say that those who experience misfortunes must not have been working hard enough to succeed (Lerner, 1980). In the case of domestic violence, those who believe in a just world are more likely to assign responsibility to victims of domestic violence and place less responsibility on the perpetrator of the violence than those who do not believe in a just world (Lerner & Miller, 1978). This is especially true of women (Janoff-Bulman, 1982), who are more likely than men to be victims of violence.

Summary of Attributions. People make attributions in an attempt to understand why something happened or why someone behaved in a certain way. The attributions people make regarding cause, responsibility, and blame for human behavior heavily influence the future interactions that people have with one another (Weiner, 1985).

When people are confronted with information regarding domestic violence, they often try to determine what caused the violence to occur, who is responsible for the violence, and who is to blame for the violence. These attributions allow people to make judgments about the incident of domestic violence and these judgments, in turn, influence the way that people interact with victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

Attitudes

Attitudes are "global and enduring favorable or unfavorable response dispositions toward a person, object, or issue" (Cacioppo, Claiborn, Petty, & Heesacker, 1991, p. 523). They are evaluative beliefs that people have about an attitude object (Fazio, Blascovich, & Driscoll, 1992). Attitudes influence peoples' perceptions of others and affect they way that people interact with one another (Cacioppo et al., 1991). In the case of domestic violence, a person's attitudes toward a victim will influence the way he or she views the victim and interacts with this person.

Explicit Attitudes

Explicit attitudes, in contrast to implicit attitudes, are conscious, cognitive appraisals of an event or an object that one directly communicates and openly expresses to others (Karpinski & Hilton, 2001). These are the attitudes that have been the focus of the majority of attitude research prior to Greenwald and Banaji's development of the implicit attitude distinction. Fazio and Olson (2003) indicated that explicit attitudes

require cognitive effort in order to be activated. Because they are under cognitive control, expressed explicit attitudes may be modified to meet social desirability goals (Fazio & Olson, 2003). For example, Bob, a person who holds negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence, is having a conversation with others about domestic violence and is asked about his attitudes toward domestic violence. If Bob perceives that he will be judged negatively by reporting his explicit attitude, he may censor himself and report an attitude that he thinks others would rather he possess.

Explicit attitudes are measured with conscious, self-report responses (Karpinski & Hilton, 2001). Participants are typically asked to indicate their agreement to a question or give a response to an open-ended question. Although these self-report measures of explicit attitudes are found throughout the counseling literature, results from them may be misleading. This is so because respondents may attempt to present themselves in a flattering or socially desirable manner (Fazio & Olson, 2003; Heppner, et al., 1999).

Implicit Attitudes

Greenwald and Banaji (1995) defined implicit attitudes as "introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) traces of past experience that mediate favorable or unfavorable feelings, thoughts, or actions toward social objects" (p. 8). Implicit attitudes appear as actions or judgments that are under the control of automatically activated evaluations and reflect peoples' underlying attitudes and beliefs about an object or event (Fazio & Olson, 2003). These evaluations occur outside of consciousness and are embedded in the interpretations made regarding the various stimuli persons encounter (Fazio and Olson, 2003). Because the performer is not aware that these evaluations are occurring, they are unable to control these attitudes (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

Implicit attitudes are cognitively efficient processes that require very little time and effort because they occur automatically (Karpinski & Hilton, 2001). These evaluations can function even in those situations where persons have few available cognitive resources and are under time constraints (Gawronski, 2002).

Measuring Implicit Attitudes

If persons are not cognitively aware of the implicit attitudes they possess, they cannot manipulate their expression on a self-report measure. In an attempt to create a measure of implicit attitudes, Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz (1998) created the Implicit Association Test, or the IAT. The IAT is an indirect measure that can be used to assess the relative strength of associations between two target concepts and an evaluative dimension (Fazio & Olson, 2003). The measure is most commonly presented using the Inquisit computer program (Draine, 2003). The IAT measures the amount of time (in milliseconds) it takes a person to associate an evaluative dimension (e.g., a pleasant or unpleasant word) with a target stimulus (e.g., words describing a perpetrator and a victim of domestic violence). Participants are asked to categorize two target concepts, along with an evaluative attribute, into two different categories. These target stimuli are broken down into a dichotomy with each target coming from one of two categories (Fazio & Olson, 2003).

As a preliminary description of how the IAT might be used to assess attitudes toward domestic violence, consider the following where participants are first presented with a sorting task that pairs Cindy and Pleasant on the left side of a computer monitor and John and Unpleasant on the right side. An additional word is shown in the bottom middle of the screen. Participants are asked to rapidly categorize that word by pressing

either the left (D) key if the word displayed at the bottom, center of the screen belonged

with the words on the left or the right (K) key if the word displayed belonged with the

words on the right. The amount of time that participants take to make these evaluative

associations is recorded.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Cindy OR Pleasant	John OR Unpleasant
Jealous	

This is followed by another sorting task that reverses the earlier pairings of words.

Cindy is now paired with Unpleasant and John is paired with Pleasant. As before,

participants would be shown a word at the bottom middle of the screen and be asked to

categorize the displayed word by pressing the D or K keys.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Cindy OR Unpleasant	John OR Pleasant
Victim	

The time it takes participants to complete the first set of pairings is compared to

the time it takes them to complete the second set of pairings. The difference in response

times defines the IAT effect (Greenwald, et al., 1998). The IAT effect is a measure of the

strength of association between a target concept and an evaluative dimension (Fazio &

Olson, 2003).

The IAT has been used to examine implicit attitudes toward numerous attitude

objects including racial attitudes, political attitudes, and attitudes toward men and women

(Nosek, Greenwald, & Banaji, 2007). The IAT has been found to be a valid and reliable

measure of implicit attitudes (Fazio & Olson, 2003). Cunningham, Preacher, and Banaji

(2001) examined implicit racial attitudes using numerous implicit measures and found

evidence for the convergent validity of the IAT by comparing a version of the IAT that

examined implicit racial attitudes to other implicit attitude measures such as priming

procedures and response window priming procedures that examined implicit racial

attitudes. A strong correlation between the implicit measures was discovered. For

example, the IAT and the Response-Window IAT were significantly correlated ($r = .63$).

In addition, two separate confirmatory factor analyses on the measures revealed that the

measures of implicit attitudes "substantially and reliably" correlated and formed a single

latent factor. This demonstrated that all of the implicit measures appeared to be tapping

the same, underlying implicit attitude. Also, when two different IAT experiments

regarding the same topic are given, participants tend to score similarly on both IAT

experiments (Gawronski, 2002).

The discriminant validity of the IAT has also been demonstrated. An IAT

measure used to assess participants' implicit attitudes toward a specific racial group was

correlated with an explicit attitude measure examining attitudes toward the same racial

group (Gawronski, 2002). That same IAT, however, when used to assess participants'

attitudes regarding one specific racial group was not correlated with an explicit attitude measure examining attitudes toward a different racial group.

The IAT has also been found to be a reliable measure. Cunningham, Preacher, and Banaji (2001) obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .78 for the IAT when using the measure to examine implicit racial attitudes. The authors also found the IAT demonstrated adequate test-retest reliability *(r = .68)*. Greenwald and Nosek (2001) found the internal consistency measures of the IAT to *be r = .80*.

Differences Between Explicit and Implicit Attitudes

Explicit attitudes are commonly viewed as attitudes consciously expressed and often believed to be true. Implicit attitudes, in contrast, are thought to occur outside of awareness and manifested through behavior (Fazio & Olson, 2003; Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Although these two types of attitudes differ conceptually, it is likely that both types of attitudes exist for an attitude object (Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000). The implicit attitude is activated automatically and without awareness while the activation of the explicit attitude requires motivation and effort. Given that these two types of attitudes operate differently, are activated differently, and serve different functions, it can be said that implicit and explicit attitudes tap two different components of the attitude construct (Nosek, Greenwald, & Banaji, 2007).

Questions have been raised about the relationship between implicit and explicit attitude measures (Payne, Burkley, & Strokes, 2008). The majority of studies have found that correlations between implicit and explicit measures tend to be relatively low (Fazio & Olson, 2003). For example, the IAT was shown to be minimally related to an explicit measure of racial prejudice (Monteith, 2001). A few studies, however, have shown that

explicit and implicit measures may be correlated. For instance, the IAT was shown to be

moderately correlated to an explicit measure of attitudes toward African-Americans

(McConnell & Lielbold, 2001).

Attitudes Toward Domestic Violence

Persons' attitudes toward domestic violence can influence the way they treat both

victims and perpetrators of domestic violence (Gellert, 2002). For example, those who

hold negative attitudes toward victims of domestic violence tend to be more critical and

disrespectful of victims of domestic violence (Schult & Schneider, 1991) and tend to

minimize the emotional and social struggles that victims of domestic violence experience

(Bryant & Spencer, 2003). A review of the literature addressing attitudes toward

domestic violence reveals that the majority of studies examining attitudes toward

domestic violence have utilized explicit attitude measures. Explicit attitude measures that

examine a specific attitude can be used to predict specific behaviors of specific groups

(Ajzen, 1987). For example, explicit attitude measures have been used to study gender

differences in attitudes toward domestic violence.

Gender Differences in Explicit Attitudes Toward Domestic Violence

Men and women have been shown to hold different explicit attitudes toward

domestic violence. Men have been found to endorse the use of violence against women

more than women (Burt, 1980). Men were also found to hold less supportive explicit

attitudes toward victims of domestic violence than women (Saunders, Lynch, Grayson, &

Linz, 1987). Knowledge about the differences between the attitudes of men and women

toward domestic violence could prove useful in tailoring specific intervention, treatment,

and support programs to specific groups of people.

Summary of Attitudes

The accuracy of explicit attitude measures can be questioned due to the potential for socially desirable responses (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999). Explicit attitude measures assess the attitudes that people are willing to express openly. Implicit attitude measures, in contrast, assess an automatic association between two different categories (Fazio & Olson, 2003). This can provide an unfiltered and unbiased assessment of attitudes toward domestic violence. Because explicit and implicit measures are thought to measure two different components of attitudes (Fazio & Olson, 2003), assessing explicit and implicit attitudes toward domestic violence could lead to a more complete and accurate assessment of one's attitudes toward domestic violence. This increased ability to accurately assess attitudes toward domestic violence could significantly improve psychological services offered to both victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

This current study will use an explicit measure and an implicit measure to assess gender differences in explicit and implicit attitudes toward domestic. The relationship between an explicit measure and an implicit measure will also be examined to determine if the two measures are, in fact, measuring different components of attitudes.

Chapter 3

Method

Structure of the Current Research

This study consisted of three separate phases. The first phase, Focus Group One, was used to generate words for a Q-Sort used in phase two. The second phase, Focus Groups Two, Three, and Four, was used to generate the target words for the IAT used in phase three. The third phase consisted of the main experimental trials for this research. The participants, instruments, and procedure for each phase will be presented below respectively.

Participants for Focus Group One: Generating Words for Q-Sort

The set of target words used in the IAT was created through the use of focus groups. Ten men and ten women, all Ball State University undergraduate students who were enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses, participated in the study in partial fulfillment of a course requirement.

Instruments for Focus Group One

Scenario Depicting Domestic Violence. Participants read a scenario that depicted an incident of domestic violence between a male perpetrator, John, and a female victim, Cindy. The scenario included the most common factors leading up to domestic violence as identified by Tjaden and Thoennes (2000) and Hilton et al. (2004). These factors included the male perpetrator recently losing his job and having financial concerns. In addition, the perpetrator felt that he was losing control of his partner, believed that she was being sexually unfaithful, and believed that she was nagging him. Finally, the female victim was seen by the perpetrator in the arms of another man, confronted him

partner about what his behavior, and initiated physical contact by grabbing the perpetrator's arm first. See Appendix D for the full domestic violence scenario.

Procedure for Focus Group One

Focus groups were utilized instead of one-on-one interviews because focus groups provide participants with an increased sense of anonymity. Participants may actually be more willing to discuss sensitive topics such as domestic violence in the safety of a group environment (Greenbaum, 2000). Participants in the first focus group generated a list of potential target stimuli for the IAT.

Participants read the scenario depicting an incident of domestic violence that was developed to be used in the IAT. Participants were asked to generate a list of as many descriptive words for John (the perpetrator of domestic violence) and Cindy (the victim of domestic violence) in the scenario as possible. Participants were then asked to seal this list in an envelope and return the envelope to the experimenter.

Participants for Focus Group Two, Three, and Four

Fourteen women and 12 men, all Ball State University undergraduate students enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses, participated in the study in partial fulfillment of a course requirement.

Instruments for Focus Group Two, Three, and Four

Domestic Violence Q-Sort. Each word that was generated in the first focus group was typed onto a one-half inch by one inch square piece of paper. Each of these words was placed on a sorting pyramid (Figure 1).

Procedure for Focus Group Two, Three, and Four

Participants were asked to complete two separate Q-sorts: one for words that describe John and one for words that describe Cindy. Q-sort methodology was used because it "enables the participants to create their own meanings of experiences by subjectively rank ordering a series of statements in relationship to each other" (Woosley, Hyman, & Graunke, 2004). This methodology is especially useful in its ability to address qualitative and quantitative concerns. For each Q-sort, participants were asked, "Which of these words accurately describe John/Cindy?" They were then instructed to sort each word into one of three piles: "Most Like," "Most Unlike," and "In Between." The words were placed onto a sorting pyramid (Figure 1) where words that are "Most Like" are placed on the right side, "Most Unlike" words are placed on the left side, and words that are "In Between" are placed toward the middle.

Two more focus groups were conducted using the same methodology. Krueger (1994) stated that three focus groups are typically sufficient to obtain adequate data. A Q-analysis was conducted using PQ Method software (Schmolck, 2002) to allow determination of which 10 words best describe John and Cindy respectively (See Chapter Four). These words became the set of Target words used in the IAT.

Participants for Main Experimental Trials

One hundred and twenty four undergraduate students (63 men, 61 women) participated in this phase of the study. Participants were recruited from three different academic institutions and were all enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses at their respective institution. Thirty-three participants (26.6%) were from Ball State University,

16 participants (12.9%) were from the University of North Carolina at Charlotte, and 75

participants (60.5%) were from Green Mountain College.

Figure 1. Sorting Pyramid for Use With the Q-Sort Tasks.

Most Unlike — Most Like
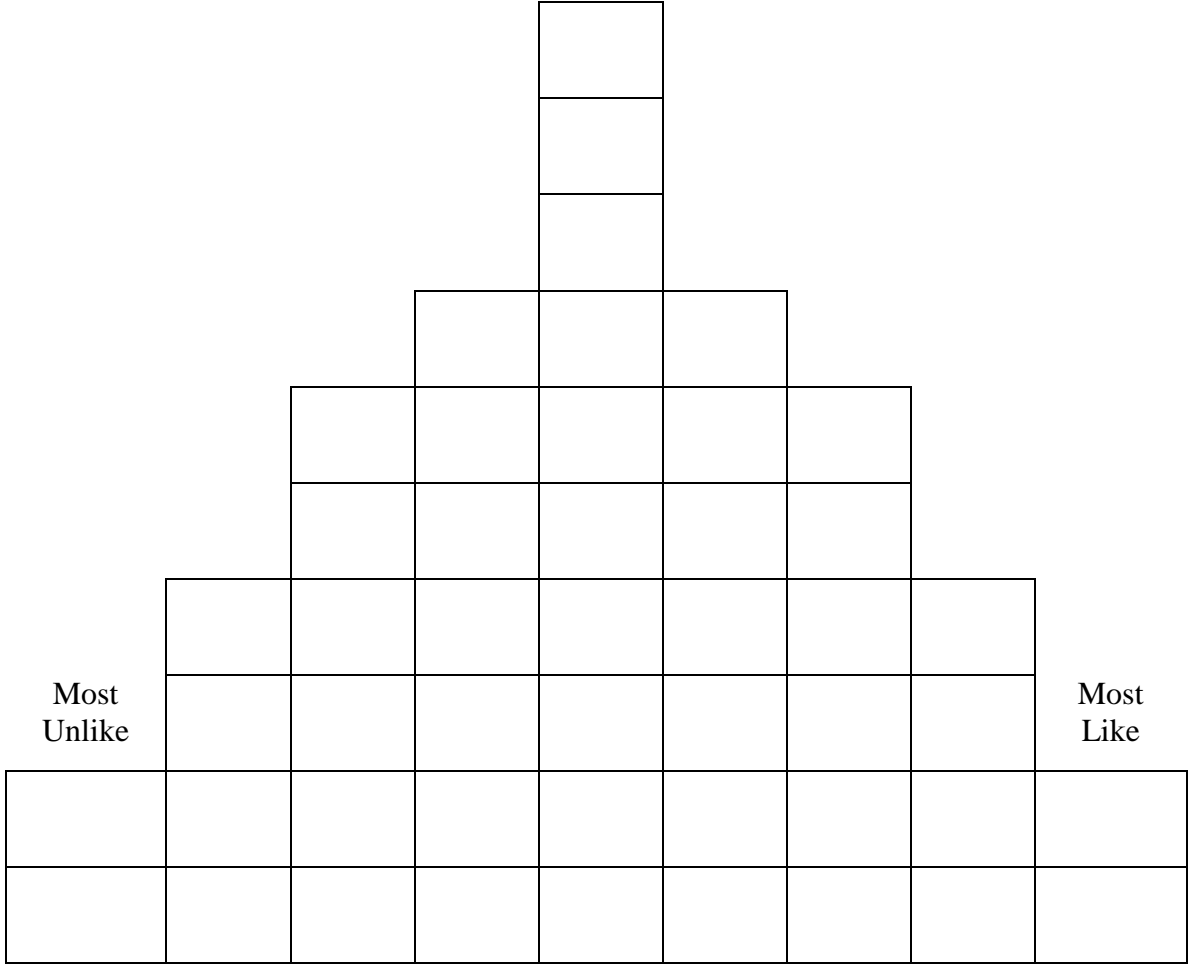
Apparatus for Main Experimental Trials

Students responded to the implicit attitude measure, the explicit attitude measure,

and the attributions for domestic violence measure on one of several IBM-compatible

computers or laptops used throughout the experiment. Inquisit software was used to

administer the IAT and other measures (Version 1.33 or 2.01) in a Windows 98, 2000, or

XP environment (Draine, 2003, 2005).

Instruments for Main Experimental Trials

 Demographic Questionnaire. Participants were asked to provide basic

demographic information about themselves including their sex, ethnicity, education level,

age, their dominant hand, frequency of video game playing, previous personal experience

with domestic violence, and previous experience with the IAT (Appendix B).

 Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating. The Inventory of Beliefs About Wife

Beating (Saunders, Lynch, Grayson, & Linz, 1987) is a 31-item self-report scale designed

to assess participants' explicit attitudes regarding the appropriateness of violence by

husbands against their wives. Using a sample of university students, Saunders et al.

(1987) identified five distinct factors through exploratory factor analysis. These five

factors comprise the five subscales of the measure.   The subscales for the scale are: (1)

Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ), (2) Wife Gains From Beating (WG), (3) Help Should Be

Given To The Wife (HG), (4) Offender Should Be Punished (OP), and (5) Offender Is

Responsible (OR). Saunders et al. report Cronbach's alpha for the scale ranges from .61

to .87 depending on the subscale (Wife Beating Is Justified = .86, Wife Gains From

Beating = .78, Help Should Be Given To The Wife = .73, Offender Should Be Punished

=.61, and Offender Is Responsible =.62).

 The Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ) subscale (12 items) measures the respondent's

level of agreement that wife beating is justified. An example of an item on this subscale

is "A woman who constantly refuses to have sex with her husband is asking to be

beaten." The Wife Gains From Beating (WG) subscale (seven items) assesses whether

participants believe wives gain something from being beaten by their spouses. One such

item that appears on this subscale is "Battered wives try to get their partners to beat them

as a way to get attention from them." The Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) subscale (five items) assesses whether participants think help should be given to wives who have been beaten. An example item would be: "Social agencies should do more to help battered women." The Offender Should Be Punished (OP) subscale (four items) assesses the level to which participants believe offenders should be punished for beating their wives. "The best way to deal with wife-beating is to arrest the husband" is an item from this subscale. The Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscale (four items) assesses the level to which participants believe the offender is responsible for the abuse that occurred. Items from this subscale include the statement "Husbands who batter are responsible for the abuse because they intended to do it." The full scale is in Appendix C.

Participants responded to 30 of the scale items (questions 1-21 and 23-31) using a seven point Likert type scale with responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 7 (Strongly Disagree). For question 22, participants were asked to respond to the question "How long should a man who has beaten his wife spend in prison or jail?" Participants were asked to indicate whether they feel he should spend no time, 1 month, 6 months, 1 year, 3 years, 5 years, 10 years, or don't know. For each subscale, the items were summed. Higher scores on the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ), Wife Gains From Beating (WG), and Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) subscales indicated a greater level of acceptance of violence against their wives. Higher scores on the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) and Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscales indicated a greater level of disapproval of violence by husbands against their wives. Each subscale was assessed separately with no total score for the measure.

The Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating (IBWB) has been found to be a valid measure. Saunders et al. (1987) examined the construct validity of the IBWB. When used with college students, the IBWB subscale scores were significantly correlated with scores on Burt's (1980) Rape Myth Acceptance Scale ($p < .001$). In addition, the IBWB subscale scores were significantly correlated with Burt's (1980) Sex-Role Stereotyping Scale. The authors found that participants who held traditional gender role attitudes tended to endorse spousal abuse. Furthermore, the subscales of the IBWB were significantly positively correlated with the Hostility Toward Women Scale (Check & Malamuth, 1983) and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973).

Saunders et al. (1987) also compared the IBWB scores of college students, men who had been convicted of battering their wives, and advocates for the victims of domestic violence. The three groups differed in their responses to the scale. Scores for the male batterer group and the victims' advocate group fell in extreme opposite directions. The student scores fell between these two groups. These findings further demonstrate the construct validity of the IBWB (Saunders et al., 1987).

Berkel, Vandiver, and Bahner (2004) used the IBWB and a measure of attitudes toward gender roles to explore college students' attitudes toward domestic violence. They found that male college students were more likely than female college students to hold attitudes that were more negative toward the victim of domestic violence and to blame the female victim.

Explicit Attributions of Responsibility Measure. Participants completed an attribution for violence measure developed by Dexter, Penrod, Linz, and Saunders

(1997). The scale consists of 55 self-report items designed to assess participants'

attributions for violence in instances of domestic violence and sexual assault.

Participants responded to all 55 scale items using a seven point Likert type scale with

responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 7 (Strongly Disagree). See Appendix E for

the full scale.

Dexter et al. (1997) conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the scale items

and found that the original 55 items loaded onto 13 distinct factors, which yielded 13

subscales. Each subscale yielded its own subscale score. Dexter et al. (1997) found that

these subscales could be organized around four dependent variable clusters. These

clusters include victim responsibility, perpetrator blame, consequences to the victim, and

victim attractiveness. Given that the current research is examining attributions of

responsibility and blame in instances of domestic violence, the analysis will be limited to

items associated with these constructs.

Specific information about each subscale and reliability estimates for each

subscale as determined by Dexter et al. (1997) is presented in Table 1. The five factor

subscales of the attribution for violence measure used to assess victim responsibility as

outlined by Dexter, Penrod, Linz, and Saunders (1997) were Identify With Victim (Id

With Vic), Victim Is Responsible (Vic Responsible), Victim Deserved Abuse (Vic

Deserve), Victim Could Have Avoided (Vic Avoid), and Victim Begging To Stop (Vic

Beg). These subscales were scored such that higher scores indicated that participants

attributed more responsibility for the violence to the victim. The three factor subscales

used to assess perpetrator blame were Perpetrator Personality (Perpetrator Personality),

Perpetrator Is To Blame For Violence (Perpetrator Blame), and Perpetrator Could Have

Changed Behavior (Perpetrator Behavior). Higher scores on these scales indicated that

participants assigned a greater level of blame for the violence to the perpetrator of the

violence.

Table 1

Reliability Estimates for Attribution of Violence Measure

Subscale Name	# Of Items	Item Example	Reliability Estimate
Identification With Vic	14	I can identify with the victim.	.97
Psychological Injury	7	The injury will last long.	.96
Victim Is Responsible	5	The crime was due to her actions.	.96
Attractiveness	2	The victim is attractive.	.96
Perpetrator Personality	1	The assailant's character was flawed.	.87
Crime Severity	6	The assailant should go to prison.	.95
Victim Deserved Abuse	5	The victim deserved the abuse.	.97
Distress	4	She is afraid.	.97
Victim Avoidance	3	She could have avoided violence.	.95
Begging Perpetrator To Stop	1	Begging would have helped.	.87
Perpetrator Is To Blame	3	The assailant is to blame.	.94
Counseling	3	The victim should be counseled	.93
Perpetrator Behavior	1	Perpetrator could have changed his behavior.	.89

Implicit Association Test (IAT). The IAT (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) is an indirect measure used to assess the relative strength of associations between two target concepts and an evaluative dimension (Fazio & Olson, 2003). The IAT measures participants' implicit attitudes by allowing researchers to bypass cognitive evaluative systems and identify their underlying implicit attitudes. Implicit attitudes are "introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) traces of past experience that are under the control of automatically activated evaluations. These evaluations often occur outside of individuals' consciousness. They may not even be aware of the evaluations they have made (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). The IAT is used to measure the strength of these automatically activated evaluations (Fazio & Olson, 2003). This is most commonly accomplished by using the computer program Inquisit (Draine, 2003).

The IAT measures the amount of time (in milliseconds) it takes a person to associate an evaluative dimension with a target stimulus. Consider a pleasant word such as "gift" and an unpleasant word such as "filth." These two words become the evaluative stimuli for the IAT. In addition, consider two dichotomous target stimuli. For this study, the target stimuli are "John" (the perpetrator of domestic violence in the scenario) and "Cindy" (the victim of domestic violence in the scenario). Participants are asked to categorize two target concepts (i.e., John vs. Cindy) along with an attribute (i.e., pleasant vs. unpleasant words) into two different categories.

The present study was conducted in order to assess participants' implicit attitudes toward domestic violence. Participants were asked to complete a series of trials on a computer as quickly as possible that assessed the strength of evaluative associations between a set of words that were pleasant or unpleasant and words that described a victim

and perpetrator of domestic violence. Participants completed 14 stages of evaluation

during the IAT that assessed participants' implicit attitudes toward John and Cindy, the

characters presented in the domestic violence scenario. The IAT was used to assess

differences in reaction times when participants were asked to make associations between

pairings of targets and stimuli. Larger differences between these pairings indicated that

the participant had a bias toward one target or the other (Greenwald et al., 1998).

The first stage of the IAT is the initial target-concept discrimination stage.

Participants were asked to determine whether a target word presented at the bottom,

center of the screen describes John, the perpetrator in the domestic violence scenario, or

Cindy, the victim in the domestic violence scenario. The twenty *Target* words used in

this stage had been previously empirically identified through the focus groups that were

previously discussed. The ten words that were most frequently used to describe John

included: jealous, stressed, angry, violent, upset, frustrated, suspicious, possessive,

abusive, and aggressive. The ten words that were most frequently used to describe Cindy

included: hurt, flirtatious, weak, victim, abused, outgoing, attacked, afraid, friendly, and

scared. One of the sequences that were used to present the IAT and collect the IAT data

is shown in Figure 2 (Greenwald, Nosek, & Banaji, 2003). The methodology presented

by Greenwald and colleagues (2003) was closely followed in this research. See Figure 2

for a detailed description of the experimental sequence used for the IAT.

Participants were asked to press the "D" key if the word was associated with

Cindy and the "K" key if the word was associated with John. In the example provided in

Figure 2 and below, the correct response was the left key (K) because the word violent

was determined in the focus groups to describe John.

Figure 2. Sample Presentation Sequence for Implicit Association Test.

Sequence (Stage)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stimuli Type	Target Words	Attribute Words	Target Words & Attribute Words Practice	Target Words & Attribute Words Test	Attribute Words	Target Words & Attribute Words Practice	Target Words & Attribute Words Test
Task Description	Initial Target-Concept Discrimination	Initial Attribute Discrimination	Initial Combined Task Practice	Initial Combined Task Test	Reversed Attribute Discrimination	Reversed Combined Task Practice	Reversed Combined Task Test
Task Instructions	●Cindy; John●	●Pleasant; Unpleasant●	●Cindy or Pleasant; John or Unpleasant●	●Cindy or Pleasant; John or Unpleasant●	●Unpleasant; Pleasant ●	●Cindy or Unpleasant; John or Pleasant ●	●Cindy or Unpleasant; John or Pleasant ●

Sample Stimuli (Complete stimuli sets are not shown). Twice as many stimuli were used in the actual IAT trial	○Hurt Stressed ○ ○Weak Angry○ ○Victim Upset○ ○Abused Possessive○ ○Scared Aggressive○	○Diamond Rotten○ ○Lucky Evil○ ○Loyal Poverty○ ○Freedom Disaster ○ Vomit○ ○Gift	Stressed ○ ○Lucky ○Loyal ○Abused Evil○ ○Diamond ○Weak Angry○ Disaster ○ Aggressive○	○Hurt Stressed ○ Hatred○ ○Gift ○Victim Frustrated○ Abusive ○ ○Diamond ○Attacked Evil○ ○Happy Vomit○ ○Friendly Angry○ ○Scared	Gift○ ○Disaster Vomit Honor○ Loyal○ ○Evil Lucky○ ○Rotten ○Poverty Freedom ○	○Hurt Rotten Honor ○ ○Flirtatious Angry ○ ○Poverty Rich○ Abusive ○ Freedom○ ○Weak	○Hurt Diamond○ ○Rotten Jealous ○ ○Abused Gift○ ○Disaster Angry○ ○Afraid Freedom ○ ○Scared Loyal○ ○Hatred Possessive○ ○Weak Love○

				Possessive○			○Greedy
				○Rich			Abusive ○
				Worthless○			○Dirty
				○Honor			Aggressive○
				Disaster ○			

Note. The above is a sample of the IAT procedure. First, participants were shown the first sequence using the target words associated with John and the words associated with Cindy and a single word displayed in the middle of the screen. The black circles (●) show the placement of the target words on the screen where words associated with Cindy were on the left side of the screen while words associated with John were on the right. Participants identified whether the word in the center of the screen corresponded with the left or right word by pressing the "D" or "K" key. In the above figure, correct responses are indicated by the open circle (○). Following the first sequence, the second sequence using the pair of attribute words (Pleasant – Unpleasant) were shown. Next, the third sequence using the list of target words and the list of attribute words was shown. This sequence required participants to identify whether the attribute words or target words were associated with the left or right target words. This sequence served as a practice sequence. Next, the fourth sequence utilized 40 more trials that served as the test trials and were identical to sequence three. Participants then completed the reversed attribute discrimination task in the fifth sequence. In sequence five, sequence two and four will be combined. The sixth and seventh sequences were identical to sequences three and four with the exception that the placement of the attribute word was reversed.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Cindy	John
	Violent

If the participant responded correctly, he or she was immediately taken to the next

trial. If the participant responded incorrectly, "Error" flashed on the screen for 400

milliseconds followed by the next trial. Participants completed a total of 20 trials in this

stage.

The second stage of the IAT is known as the initial evaluative attribute

discrimination stage. Participants were asked to determine whether stimulus words they

were presented with were either pleasant or unpleasant. In this stage, the word pleasant

appeared on the left side of the screen and the word unpleasant appeared on the right side

of the screen. Twenty *Attribute* words appeared in random order one at a time centered

below the pair of words. The *Attribute* words, or the evaluative dimensions, chosen for

this study have been used in numerous studies using the IAT (Fazio & Dunton, 1997;

Greenwald, et al., 1998) and have been identified as being pleasant or unpleasant

(Bellazza, Greenwald, & Banaji, 1986). The following were the *Pleasant* words: honor,

diamond, lucky, gift, jolly, loyal, love, freedom, happy, and rich. The *Unpleasant* words

were: rotten, vomit, poverty, evil, disaster, hatred, sad, worthless, greedy, and dirty.

Participants were again asked to press the left (D) key if the word displayed at the

bottom, center of the screen was a pleasant word or the right (K) key if the word

displayed was an unpleasant word. In the example provided in Figure 2 and shown

below, the correct response was the left key (D) because the word diamond has below,

the correct response was the left key (D) because the word diamond has previously been

empirically shown to be a pleasant word (Greenwald et al., 1998).diamond, lucky, gift,

jolly, loyal, love, freedom, happy, and rich. The *Unpleasant* words were: rotten, vomit,

poverty, evil, disaster, hatred, sad, worthless, greedy, and dirty.

Participants were again asked to press the left (D) key if the word displayed at the

bottom, center of the screen was a pleasant word or the right (K) key if the word

displayed was an unpleasant word. In the example provided in Figure 2 and shown

below, the correct response was the left key (D) because the word diamond has

previously been empirically shown to be a pleasant word (Greenwald et al., 1998).

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Diamond	

If the participant responded correctly, he or she was taken to the next trial. If the

response provided was incorrect, "Error" flashed on the screen for 400 milliseconds

followed by the next trial. Participants completed a total of 20 trials in this stage.

In the third stage of the IAT, participants were asked to combine the first two

steps of the experiment so that a response key was shared. In the example provided in

Figure 2 and below, the phrase "Cindy or Pleasant" appeared on the left side of the

screen. The phrase "John or Unpleasant" appeared on the right side of the screen. In

addition, a randomly selected word from the list of attribute words or a word from the list

of target words describing John or Cindy was displayed below the above mentioned

phrases and in the center of the screen.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Diamond	

If the participant responded correctly, he or she was taken to the next trial. If the response provided was incorrect, "Error" flashed on the screen for 400 milliseconds followed by the next trial. Participants completed a total of 20 trials in this stage.

In the third stage of the IAT, participants were asked to combine the first two steps of the experiment so that a response key was shared. In the example provided in Figure 2 and below, the phrase "Cindy or Pleasant" appeared on the left side of the screen. The phrase "John or Unpleasant" appeared on the right side of the screen. In addition, a randomly selected word from the list of attribute words or a word from the list of target words describing John or Cindy was displayed below the above mentioned phrases and in the center of the screen.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Cindy	John
OR	OR
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Jealous	

In the example provided, the correct response was the right (K) key because the word Jealous was used to describe John. No error feedback was provided to participants to prevent interference with responses. After the participant responded to one trial, the

next trial immediately followed. Participants completed a total of 20 trials in this stage.

The trials in this step served as practice trials for the fourth stage of this experiment.

In the fourth stage, participants completed the same sorting task as described in

part three. Rather than being practice trials, these trials were the "test" trials for this

particular pairing of words. Participants completed 40 trials because the four categories

(unpleasant, pleasant, John target words, and Cindy target words) were used.

In the fifth stage of the experiment, the target words "Pleasant" and "Unpleasant"

were presented in the reverse order as step two in order to prepare participants for the

upcoming reversed combined tasks. Participants pressed, as quickly as possible, either

the left (D) key if the word displayed at the bottom, center of the screen was an

unpleasant word or the right (K) key if the word displayed was a pleasant word. In the

example provided below, the correct response was the 'K' key because diamond is a

pleasant word. If the participant responded correctly, he or she was taken to the next

trial. If the participant responded incorrectly, "Error" flashed on the screen for 400

milliseconds followed by the next trial. There were 20 items included in this sorting task.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Unpleasant	Pleasant
Diamond	

The sixth stage of this block of trials was similar to the third and fourth stage, but

with one exception. As shown in the example provided below and in Figure 2, the target

was presented with the attributes reversed where "Cindy" or "Unpleasant" appeared on

the left side of the screen while "John" or "Pleasant" appeared on the right side of the

screen. As in the third and fourth stages, a randomized list of attribute words or target

words from the target list was displayed at the bottom center.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Cindy	John
OR	OR
Unpleasant	Pleasant
Victim	

In the example provided, the correct response was the left (D) key because the

word Victim has been shown to describe Cindy. Participants were not shown any error

feedback to prevent interference with responses. After participants responded to one

trial, the next trial immediately followed. Participants completed a total of 20 trials in

this stage. The trials in this step served as practice trials for stage seven.

In the seventh stage, participants were asked to complete the same sorting task as

described in part six. There were 40 trials in this stage and these trials were considered to

be the "test" trials for this particular pairing of words.

An additional IAT block was used to test for position effects. This second block

was administered immediately after the seventh stage of Block One. Using the example

in Figure 2, the first IAT block utilized the pairing of Cindy and Pleasant on the left in

the third and fourth stages and the pairing of Cindy and Unpleasant on the left in the sixth

and seventh stages. In the second IAT block, the positioning of the target-attribute on the

left or right side utilized in the first block was reversed. The target-attribute pairs for the

second IAT block can be seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Domestic Violence IAT Trials – Version One.

Version One Block One

Block #	Left Side	Right Side	# of Trials	Practice or Test
1	Cindy	John	20	Practice
2	Pleasant	Unpleasant	20	Practice
3	Cindy or Pleasant	John or Unpleasant	20	Practice
4	Cindy or Pleasant	John or Unpleasant	40	Test
5	Unpleasant	Pleasant	20	Practice
6	Cindy or Unpleasant	John or Pleasant	20	Practice
7	Cindy or Unpleasant	John or Pleasant	40	Test

Version One Block Two

Block #	Left Side	Right Side	# of Trials	Practice or Test
8	John	Cindy	20	Practice
9	Unpleasant	Pleasant	20	Practice
10	John or Unpleasant	Cindy or Pleasant	20	Practice
11	John or Unpleasant	Cindy or Pleasant	40	Test
12	Pleasant	Unpleasant	20	Practice
13	John or Pleasant	Cindy or Unpleasant	20	Practice
14	John or Pleasant	Cindy or Unpleasant	40	Test

Figure 4. Domestic Violence IAT Trials – Version Two.

Version Two Block One

Block #	Left Side	Right Side	# of Trials	Practice or Test
1	Cindy	John	20	Practice
2	Unpleasant	Pleasant	20	Practice
3	Cindy or Unpleasant	John or Pleasant	20	Practice
4	Cindy or Unpleasant	John or Pleasant	40	Test
5	Pleasant	Unpleasant	20	Practice
6	Cindy or Pleasant	John or Unpleasant	20	Practice
7	Cindy or Pleasant	John or Unpleasant	40	Test

Version Two Block Two

Block #	Left Side	Right Side	# of Trials	Practice or Test
8	John	Cindy	20	Practice
9	Pleasant	Unpleasant	20	Practice
10	John or Pleasant	Cindy or Unpleasant	20	Practice
11	John or Pleasant	Cindy or Unpleasant	40	Test
12	Unpleasant	Pleasant	20	Practice
13	John or Unpleasant	Cindy or Pleasant	20	Practice
18	John or Unpleasant	Cindy or Pleasant	40	Test

The targets and attributes that appeared on the left side of the screen for the seven steps of the second IAT block were: John, Unpleasant, John-Unpleasant, John-Unpleasant, Pleasant, John-Pleasant, and John-Pleasant. The targets and attributes on the right side of the screen for the seven steps of the second IAT block were: Cindy, Pleasant, Cindy-Pleasant, Cindy-Pleasant, Unpleasant, Cindy-Unpleasant, and Cindy-Unpleasant.

This new block created a within-subjects independent variable called target-attribute placement and was used to test for position effects. Blocks One and Two taken together constitute Version One of the IAT measure. Half of the participants were given Version One while the other half were given Version Two.

The second version of the IAT was nearly identical to Version One with one exception. In the first block of Version Two, the target-attribute pairs in Stage Three and Four were John-Pleasant on the left side and Cindy-Unpleasant on the right side.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
John	Cindy
OR	OR
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Diamond	

The target-attribute pairs in Stages Six and Seven were John-Pleasant on the left side and Cindy-Unpleasant on the right side.

Press 'D' For	Press 'K' For
Cindy	John
OR	OR
Pleasant	Unpleasant
Poverty	

In the second block of Version Two, the positioning of the target-attribute on the left or right side utilized in the first block was reversed. The addition of this second version of the IAT in the current research made it possible to test familiarity order as a between-subjects variable. See Figure 3 for a full description of IAT versions and blocks.

In stages three and four of Version One, Block One, participants were asked to make associations that, for those who hold positive implicit attitudes toward victims of domestic violence, would be a familiar pairing of the name of the victim with a pleasant word and the name of the perpetrator with an unpleasant word. In stages six and seven, participants were asked to make associations that, for those who demonstrated positive implicit attitudes toward victims of domestic violence, would be an unfamiliar pairing of an unpleasant word with the name of the victim and a pleasant word with the name of the perpetrator. The difference in response latency for familiar pairings and unfamiliar pairings constituted the IAT dependent variable or "IAT effect" (Greenwald et al., 1998). The IAT effect is a measure of the relative strength of association between a target concept and an evaluative dimension (Fazio & Olson, 2003). It is, therefore, a measure of a person's relative implicit attitude toward a target concept. See Table 4 for a full description of IAT effect pairings.

Procedure for Main Experimental Trials

Participants were recruited from three institutions. Participants from Ball State University were recruited through the posting of an announcement informing students of the opportunity to participate in the experiment. In exchange for their participation, participants were given one hour of research participation credit. Participation in this study was voluntary.

Participants from The University of North Carolina at Charlotte and at Green Mountain College were recruited in a different manner. The principal investigator personally visited several undergraduate psychology courses at each institution and described the experiment. A signup sheet was presented to potential participants offering numerous times in which they could participate. In exchange for their participation, participants were offered extra credit for their class that was worth one percent of participants' overall grade in the class. Participation in this study was voluntary.

Data from all sites were collected individually. The experimenter greeted the participants and provided them with a brief description of the study and a consent form that they were asked to sign (Appendix A). Participants were randomly assigned into trial blocks for the IAT (Version One or Version Two) and then seated in front of either a desktop or laptop computer placed on a desk in front of them. All tasks required of this study were completed on the computer.

Initial instructions for the study were presented to participants. These instructions were then followed by the first seven questions of the demographic questionnaire (Appendix B). After participants completed this questionnaire, they were asked to respond to the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating (see Appendix C). Following this questionnaire, a scenario describing a domestic disturbance was presented (see Appendix D). After this, an explicit attribution scale was administered (see Appendix E). Instructions on how to complete the IAT were then given followed by the IAT sorting tasks. Next, the eighth question on the demographic survey was completed (See Appendix B). Finally, participants were thanked for their participation in the study, given debriefing information regarding community resources for victims of domestic violence

(Appendix F), and given their research participation or extra credit form. The time needed to complete all components of the study was approximately 30 minutes.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents the results for all three phases of the study. In addition, the five hypotheses presented earlier will be addressed (see Chapter 1).

Results for Focus Group One: Generating Words for Q-Sort

Ten men and ten women, all Ball State University undergraduate students, participated in the first focus group. After reading the scenario depicting an incident of domestic violence, participants generated 68 unique words describing John and 57 unique words describing Cindy. The 48 most commonly used words to describe John and Cindy are presented in Table 2. These words were then used in the second set of focus groups.

Table 2

Top 48 Words for John and Cindy Generated in Step One

	John	Cindy
1	Jealous	Drunk
2	Abusive	Unfaithful
3	Stressed	Stressed
4	Violent	Selfish
5	Angry	Scared
6	Lonely	Outgoing
7	Lazy	Innocent
8	Unstable	Flirtatious
9	Upset	Sick

10	Unmotivated	Shocked
11	Suspicious	Not Understanding
12	Scared	Hurt
13	Possessive	Argumentative
14	Jerk	Abused
15	Jealousy	Worried
16	Irrational	Upset
17	Frustrated	Sociable
18	Defensive	Sleazy
19	Argumentative	Sad
20	Worried	Pushy
21	Untrusting	Pain
22	Selfish	Nagging
23	Rejected	Lonely
24	Quickly Angered	Interrogating
25	Loser	Ill-Tempered
26	Loner	Easy
27	Judgmental	Frightened
28	Intoxicated	Confused
29	Ill-Tempered	Confrontational
30	Idiot	Stunned
31	Fighter	Angry

32	Faithless	Alcoholic
33	Explosive	Unhappy
34	Drinker	Normal
35	Depressed	Irrational
36	Dependent	Instigator
37	Dead beat	Frustrated
38	Controlling	Friendly
39	Confrontational	Emotional
40	Aggressive	Defensive
41	Uncontrolled	Caring
42	Temper	Attacked
43	Outraged	Ashamed
44	Non-Trusting	Annoying
45	No Self Control	Afraid
46	Irrational	Accuser
47	Impatient	Hit
48	Hard-ass	Beaten

Results for Focus Groups Two, Three, and Four

Fourteen women and 12 men participated in the second set of focus groups. Participants completed two separate Q-sorts using the words generated in the previous focus group. A Q-analysis was conducted on the obtained Q-sorts for John and the Q-sorts for Cindy using software called PQ Method. This software utilizes Q-methodology

and produces a cluster analysis of the results using person-to-person correlations rather

than item-to-item correlations (Flathman, 1999). Because ten words were needed to

describe both John and Cindy, the top ten clusters for both John and Cindy were obtained

and the words were generated to describe these clusters. These words were then used as

the target words in the IAT. The words generated by the Q-analysis are listed in Table 3.

Table 3

Top Ten Words for John and Cindy Generated by Q Analysis

Rank Order	Words Describing John	Words Describing Cindy
1	Jealous	Hurt
2	Stressed	Flirtatious
3	Angry	Weak
4	Violent	Victim
5	Upset	Abused
6	Frustrated	Outgoing
7	Suspicious	Attacked
8	Possessive	Afraid
9	Abusive	Friendly
10	Aggressive	Scared

Results for Main Experimental Trials

Demographic data. Of the 124 individuals who participated in this phase of the

study, four participants were identified as outliers and were dropped from the analysis.

The outliers were identified using the systematic elimination process for the IAT

identified by Greenwald et al. (2003), where participants for whom more than 10% of trials had latencies less than 300 ms were eliminated. After these outliers were removed, the total N for the study was 120. Of these participants, 60 were male and 60 were female. These participants were from three academic institutions. Thirty-one participants (25.8%) were from Ball State University, 15 participants (12.5%) were from the University of North Carolina at Charlotte, and 74 participants (61.7%) were from Green Mountain College. This distribution is shown in Figure 5.

Of these participants, self-reported ethnicities were as follows: Caucasian ($N = 88$, 73.3%), African-American ($N = 14$, 11.7%), Hispanic ($N = 8$, 6.7%), Native-American ($N = 2$, 1.7%), Asian-American ($N = 1$, 0.83%), Other ($N = 3$, 2.5%), and those who preferred not to say ($N = 4$, 3.33%). Levels of education ranged from first year undergraduate students to undergraduates with senior standing. The sample consisted of Freshmen ($N = 25$, 20.8%), Sophomores ($N = 21$, 17.5%), Juniors ($N = 31$, 25.8%), and Seniors ($N = 43$, 35.8%). Male participants were between the ages of 18 and 33 years old with a mean age of 21.42 years ($SD = 3.40$). Female participants were between the ages of 18 and 52 years old with a mean age of 22.18 years old ($SD = 6.25$). The respective age distributions for men and women are displayed in Figure 6 and Figure 7. Fourteen participants (11.7%) reported they were left handed, while 106 participants (88.3%) reported they were right handed. Participants were also asked if they had significant experience playing video games. Thirty-three participants (27.5%) reported that they did have significant experience playing video games while 87 participants (72.5%) indicated that they did not. Also, 33 participants (27.5%) indicated that they had personally witnessed or experienced domestic violence, 83 participants (69.2%) indicated that they

had not personally encountered domestic violence, and 4 participants (3.3%) indicated that they preferred not to say if they had or had not personally encountered domestic violence. After the IAT trials had been concluded, participants were asked if they had previously completed any task resembling the IAT. Fifteen participants (12.5%) reported they had previously completed an IAT while 105 participants (87.5%) reported that they had not.

Figure 5. Participants in Main Experimental Trials by Institutions.

Participants by Institutions
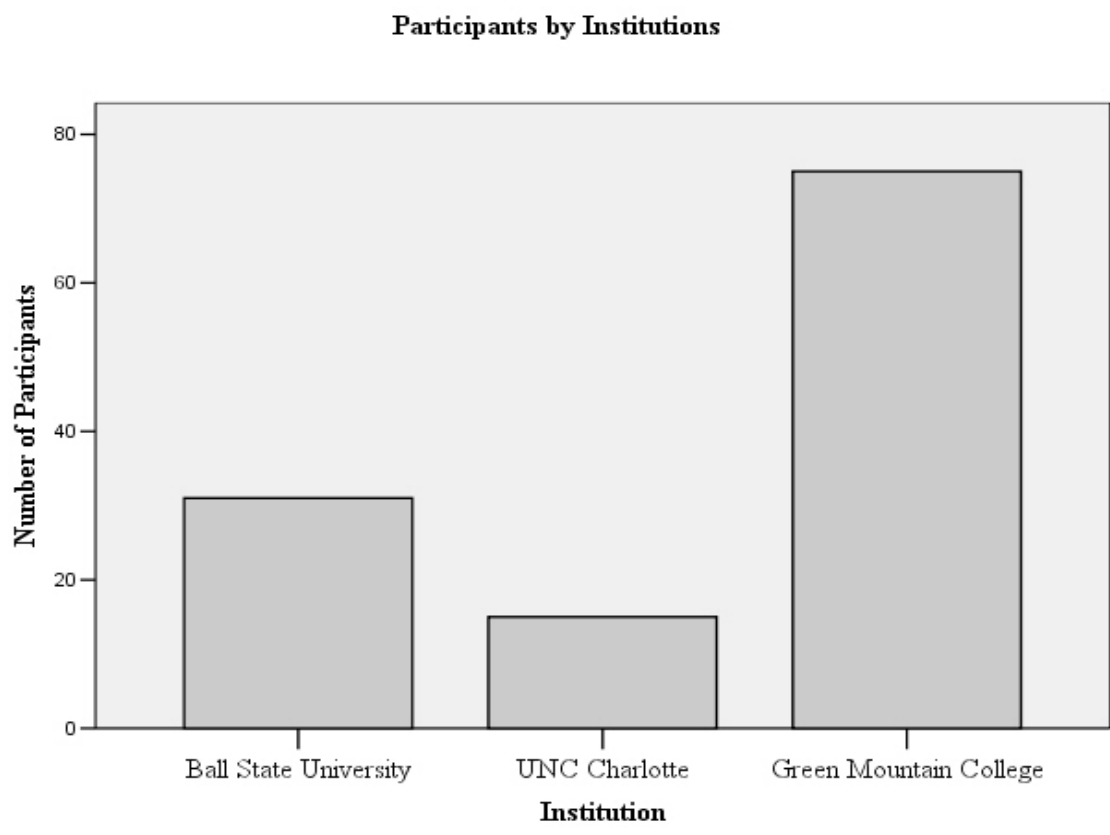
Note. Ball State University (*N* = 31), University of North Carolina at Charlotte (*N* = 15), and Green Mountain College (*N* = 74).

Figure 6. Age Distribution for Men in Main Experimental Trials.
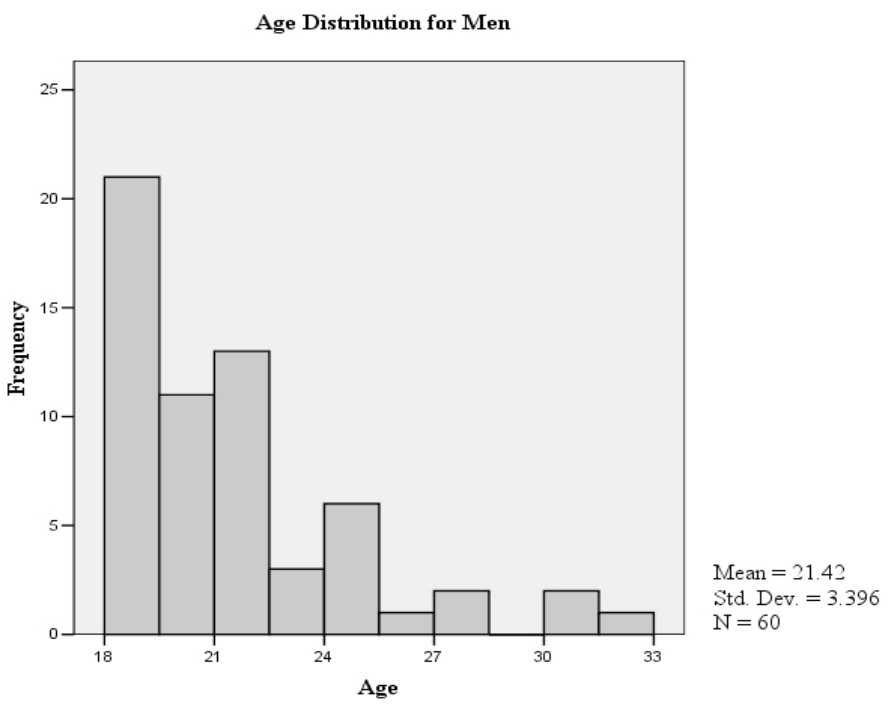
Figure 7. Age Distribution for Women in Main Experimental Trials.
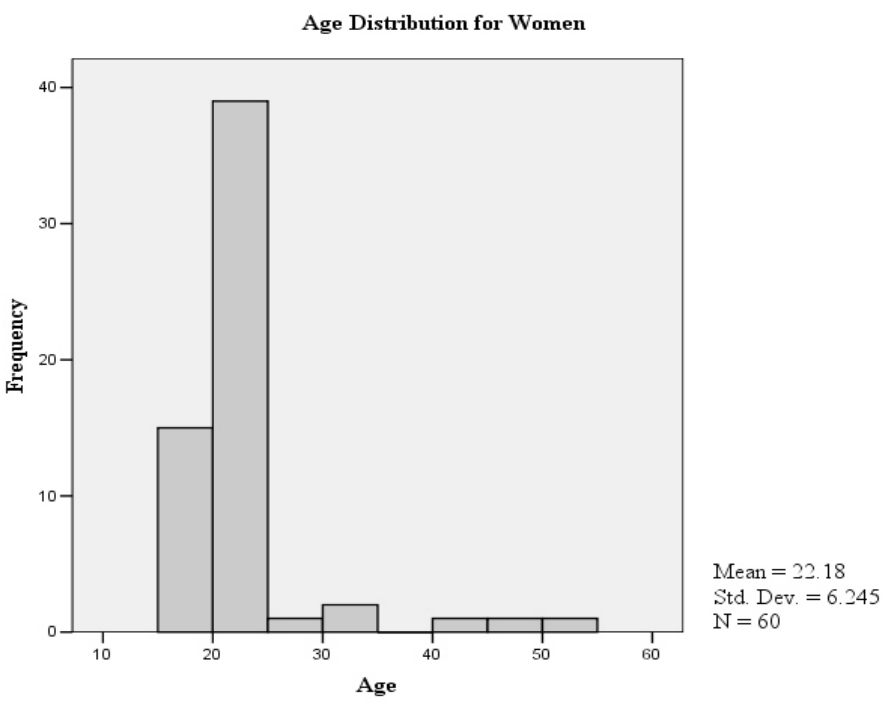
IAT effect

As noted earlier, the IAT effect was based on participants' response latencies to computer presented stimuli. Participants completed 14 different associative tasks where they were asked to make discriminations between a target concept and an evaluative dimension. (See Figures 3 and 4 for a complete description of the stages.) The speed and accuracy of participants' associations were measured in order to obtain an overall IAT effect. Delays in response time and inaccurate responses were thought to be indicative of differences in implicit attitudes toward the target concepts being measured. The improved IAT scoring algorithm outlined by Greenwald et al. (2003) was followed. The primary differences between the improved scoring algorithm and the conventional scoring algorithm are that the improved algorithm uses practice trials, individual standard deviations, and penalties for errors. In addition, the improved algorithm does not use log-transformations for latencies. The new scoring algorithm is recommended in lieu of the conventional scoring algorithm for several reasons. The new IAT algorithm generally provides a better reflection of underlying association strengths, provides more overall power in the analysis, and better reveals individual differences due to association strengths than the conventional algorithm does (Greenwald et al., 2003).

Of the seven steps in each block of the IAT, four steps were utilized in the analysis. Steps 3 and 6 were practice steps that included 20 trials each while steps 4 and 7 were "test" steps that included 40 trials each. Steps 1, 2, and 5 consisted of non-critical trials. In scoring the IAT data, an IAT effect score was calculated for each participant. The first step was to eliminate outlier data by eliminating latencies greater than 10,000 milliseconds and also to completely eliminate subjects for whom more than 10% of trials

had a response latency less than 300 ms as these are viewed as "extreme" values

(Greenwald et al., 2003). In the present study, this resulted in the elimination of four

participants from the data analysis. The next step involved computing the mean of

correct latencies for each step. Then, one pooled standard deviation was computed for all

trials in steps 3 and 6 and another pooled standard deviation was calculated for all trials

in steps 4 and 7. Next, all error latencies in each step were replaced with its respective

step mean + 600 ms. Once these values had been added, the means for all trials in each

of the four steps were computed.

The next step was to compute two difference scores. This was done by

subtracting the mean of the first "unfamiliar" combined task from the mean of the second

"familiar" combined task. The first difference that was calculated was for the practice

trials while the second difference that was calculated was for the "test" trials. For

example, in Version One, Block One, the difference scores were calculated by the

following equations: (*M*Step 6 – *M*Step 3) and (*M*Step 7 – *M*Step 4). Once these

differences were calculated, each difference was divided by its associated pooled-trials

standard deviation that was calculated earlier. These two quotients were then averaged to

give the IAT effect for Version One, Block One. This effect represents the relative

strength of the association between the target words and stimuli. Higher IAT effect

scores indicate either a greater association between the victim's name and pleasant words

or the perpetrator's name and unpleasant words.

As discussed earlier, two additional independent variables (target attribute

placement and familiarity order) were used to test for procedural bias. Participants

completed a second block of the IAT to test for position effects. In this second block, the

target-attribute placement seen in the first block was reversed. This was the within-subjects independent variable of target-attribute placement. Blocks One and Two taken together constituted Version One. One-half of all participants completed Version One while one-half of participants completed Version Two. Version Two was identical to Version One with the exception that in both Blocks One and Two, the familiar target-attribute pairings were shown first and the unfamiliar target-attribute pairings were shown second. The use of these two versions made it possible to test for familiarity order as a between-subjects variable. Both IAT blocks in both versions of the IAT were scored such that the means of unfamiliar trials were subtracted from the means of familiar trials. Therefore, a larger IAT effect score is indicative of a more favorable implicit attitude toward Cindy and a less favorable implicit attitude toward John (Table 4).

A mixed-model repeated measures analysis of variance was conducted in order to test for the procedural effects of target-attribute placement order and familiarity order. Target-attribute placement order, a within subjects variable, was not statistically significant as a main effect, $F(1, 116) = .301$, $p = .585$, $\eta^2 = .003$, or in interaction with other variables. In addition, the between-subjects variable of familiarity order was not statistically significant, $F(1, 116) = .310$, $p = .578$, $\eta^2 = .003$. These two results indicate there were no meaningful differences between attributable to procedure in the IAT results.

The reliability of the IAT was also assessed. Cronbach's alpha for the IAT was .949. This provides strong support for the reliability of the IAT as used in this study. In addition, several variables unrelated to the major hypotheses were tested to examine whether participants' experience or lack of experience in certain areas affected their IAT

Table 4

IAT Scoring

Version and Block	Step 3 (Practice)	Step 4 (Test)	Step 6 (Practice)	Step 7 (Test)	Score Practice	Score Test
Version One Block One	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Familiar	Familiar	Steps 6 – 3	Steps 7 – 4

Version and Block	Step 10 (Practice)	Step 11 (Test)	Step 13 (Practice)	Step 14 (Test)	Score Practice	Score Test
Version One Block Two	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Familiar	Familiar	Steps 13 – 10	Steps 14 – 11

Version and Block	Step 3 (Practice)	Step 4 (Test)	Step 6 (Practice)	Step 7 (Test)	Score Practice	Score Test
Version Two Block One	Familiar	Familiar	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Steps 3 – 6	Steps 4 – 7

Version and Block	Step 10 (Practice)	Step 11 (Test)	Step 13 (Practice)	Step 14 (Test)	Score Practice	Score Test
Version Two Block Two	Familiar	Familiar	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Steps 10-13	Steps 11-14

scores. A 2 X 2 X 2 X 3 ANOVA (Handedness X Previous video game Experience X Previous IAT experience X Personal experience with domestic violence) was conducted with participants' mean IAT score serving as the dependent variable. Results were not significant for any of these variables (Handedness, F (3, 116) = .256, p = .614, Previous video game experience, F (3, 116) = .003, p = .959, Previous IAT experience, F (3, 116) = .112, p = .738, and Personal experience with domestic violence, F (3, 116) = 2.841, p = .063).

Hypothesis One. It was expected that women would demonstrate a significantly more favorable implicit attitude toward the victim of domestic violence and less favorable implicit attitude toward the perpetrator of domestic violence than men would. As previously mentioned, a mixed-model repeated measures analysis of variance was conducted in order to test for procedural effects as well as sex of participant. The between-subjects variable of participant sex was significant, F (1, 116) = 41.75, p = .000, η2 = .265. This indicates that women demonstrate a more positive implicit attitude toward the female victim than men do. Hypothesis one was supported. See Figure 8 for a comparison of group means. It is important to note that Participant IAT effect scores can be positive or negative. Positive IAT effect scores indicate a favorable implicit attitude toward the victim while negative IAT effect scores indicate an unfavorable implicit attitude toward the victim.

The strengths of these IAT Effects were assessed using Cohen's taxonomic suggestions with effects less than .2 being "weak", between .2 and .5 as "moderate", and larger than .8 being "large" (Cohen, 1992). Women demonstrated "moderate" IAT effects for Block One (IAT effect = .56) and Block Two (IAT effect = .61) indicating

Figure 8. IAT Effect Sizes by Gender.

IAT Effect Scores by Gender
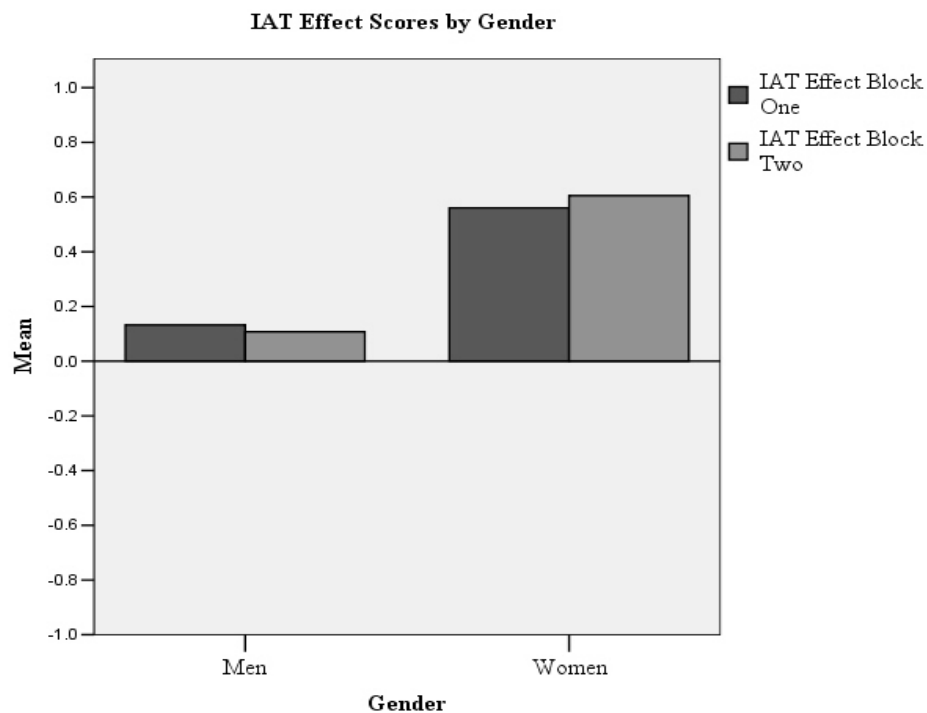
Note. IAT Effect Block One consisted of the first seven steps of the IAT. IAT Effect Block Two consisted of steps eight through fourteen. Positive IAT effect scores indicate a favorable implicit attitude toward the victim while negative IAT effect scores indicate an unfavorable implicit attitude toward the victim.

Table 5

IAT Effect Sizes by Gender

Gender	IAT Effect One Mean	IAT Effect One SD	IAT Effect Two Mean	IAT Effect Two SD	IAT Total Mean	IAT SD
Male	.13	.48	.11	.44	.120	.45
Female	.56	.34	.61	.33	.58	.32

Note. Men ($N = 60$) and Women ($N = 60$).

that women held a moderately favorable implicit attitude toward the victim. In contrast, men reported "weak" IAT effects for Block One (IAT effect = .13) and Block Two (IAT effect = .11) indicating that men held a weakly favorable to near neutral implicit attitude toward the victim.

Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating

The first three subscales (Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ), Wife Gains From Beating (WG), and Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) were scored such that higher scores indicated a greater level of acceptance of violence by husbands against their wives. The last two subscales (Offender Should Be Punished (OP), and Offender Is Responsible (OR) were scored such that higher scores demonstrated a greater level of disapproval of violence by husbands against their wives. Reliability estimates for all five subscales of the IBWB were assessed. Cronbach's alpha for the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ) subscale (α = .843) and Wife Gains From Beating (WG) subscale (α = .770) were high and Cronbach's alpha for the Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) subscale (α = .658) was acceptable. Cronbach's alpha values for the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) subscale (α = .526) and the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscale (α = .608) were low, however.

An initial 2 (experimental version) X 3 (previous experience with domestic violence) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between the two experimental versions of the main experiment or if previous experience with domestic violence would significantly affect participants' responses. No differences between the two versions were observed for the IBWB, Wilks' Lambda = .96, F (5,110) = .917, p = .473. Prior experience with domestic

violence did not significantly affect participants' responses on any of the five subscales, Wilks' Lambda = .927, F (10, 220), = .855 p = .576. Also, no interaction effects between version or prior experience with domestic violence were found, Wilks' Lambda = .921, F (10, 220) = .918, p = .519. As a result, the scores were pooled across the two versions of the experiment and across the previous experience with the domestic violence variable.

Hypothesis Two. It was expected that men would demonstrate more support for and acceptance of domestic violence than would women as measured by the five subscales of the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were gender differences for the five subscales. Multivariate gender differences were found to be present, Wilks' Lambda = .866, F (5,114) = 3.53, p = .005). Analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA. In addition, effect sizes were calculated to assess the strength of the relationship between each IBWB subscale and gender. According to Green and Salkind (2003), η^2 values ranging from .0 to .059 represent small effects, values ranging from .06 to .139 represent medium effects, and values greater than .14 represent large effects.

Comparisons of participants' scores on each subscale of the IBWB by gender are presented in Figures 9 through 13. Results for the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ) subscale are presented in Figure 9, the Wife Gains From Beating (WG) subscale in Figure 10, Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) subscale in Figure 11, the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) subscale in Figure 12, and the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscale in Figure 13. Results indicated that men and women differed on the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ) subscale, F (1, 118) = 13.18, p = .000, η^2 = .10, the Wife Gains

From Beating (WG) subscale, $F(1, 118) = 11.479$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$, and the Help Should Be Given To Wife (HG) subscale, $F(1, 18) = 4.04$, $p = .047$, $\eta^2 = .03$. The higher scores obtained for men indicated that men demonstrated a greater level of acceptance of violence by husbands against their wives than did women. Men were more likely than women to agree that wife beating was justified, that the wife gained something from the beating, and that less help should have been given to the victim. "Medium" effect sizes were found for the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ) subscale and the Wife Gains From Beating (WG) subscale while a "small" effect size was found for the Help Should Be Given To Wife (HG) subscale.

These results lend only partial support for the hypothesis. When examining the remaining two subscales, men and women did not significantly differ on the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) subscale, $F(1, 118) = .543$, $p = .463$, $\eta^2 = .03$, or on the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscale, $F(1, 118) = .175$, $p = .677$, $\eta^2 = .01$. "Small" effect sizes were found for both of these scales. The high scores for men and women on these scales indicated that they were equally likely to agree that the offender should be punished and that the offender was responsible for the violence.

Attributions of Responsibility and Blame for Domestic Violence

As noted earlier, eight of the 13 factor-subscales of the Attributions for Violence Measure were used for this analysis (Dexter, Penrod, Linz, & Saunders, 1997). To assess if there were differences between the two experimental versions and if previous encounters with domestic violence influenced participants' responses, an initial 2 X 3 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. No differences between the two versions were observed for the Attributions for Violence Measure, Wilks'

Figure 9. Wife Beating Is Justified Subscale Score by Gender.
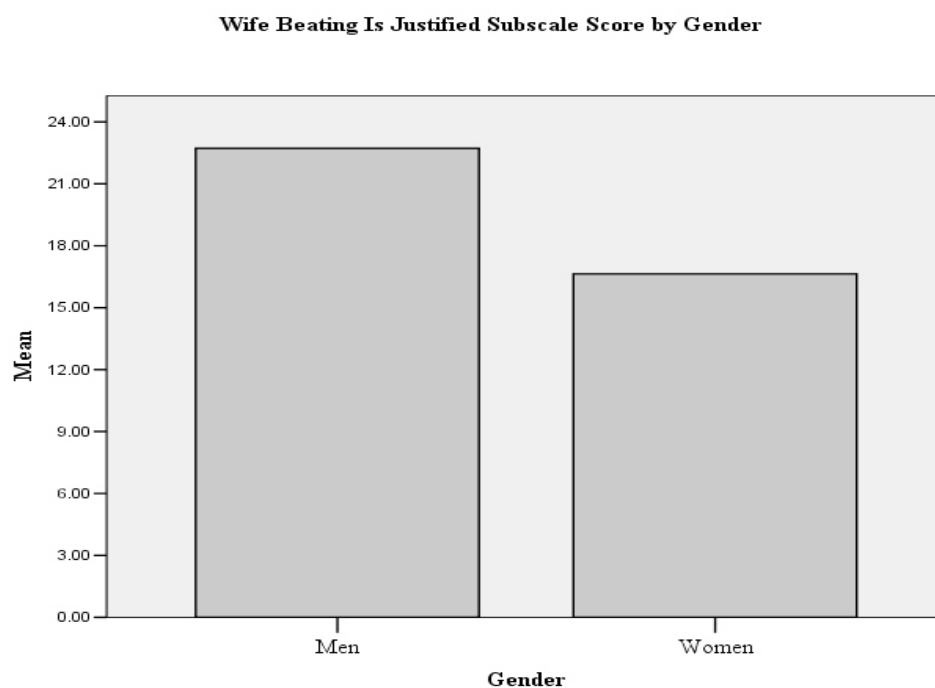
Note. This subscale of the IBWB consisted of 12 Likert-type items with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores ranged from 12 to 84. Participants' responses were scored such that higher scores indicated greater agreement with the idea that wife beating is justified.

Table 6

Wife Beating Is Justified Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Wife Beating Is Justified	22.71	11.67	16.63	5.66

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Figure 10. Wife Gains From Beating Subscale Score by Gender.

Wife Gains From Beating Subscale Score by Gender
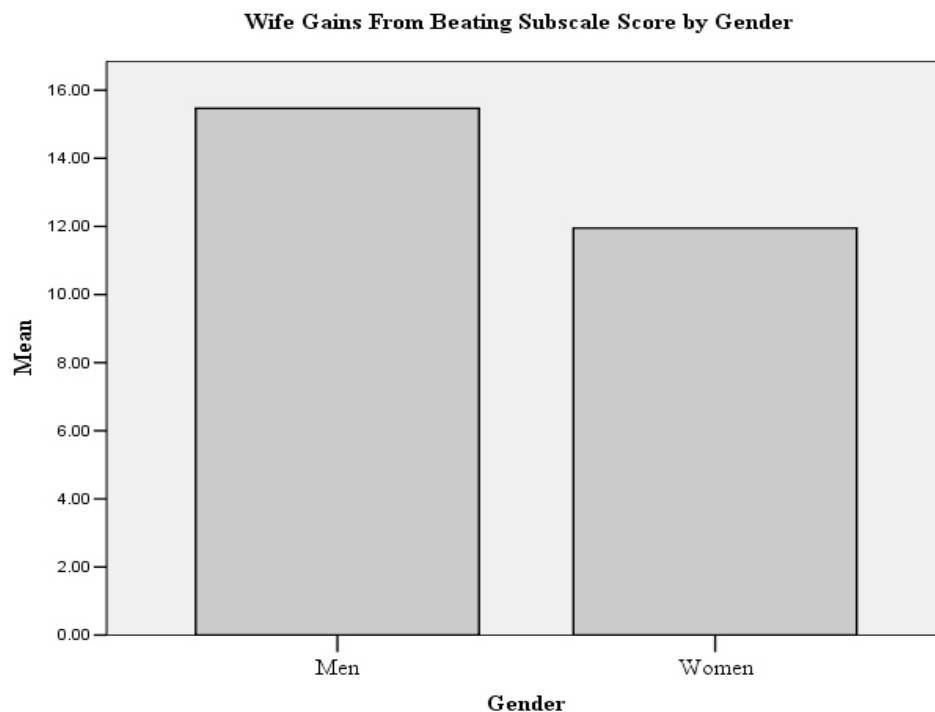
Note. This subscale of the IBWB consisted of seven Likert-type items. Participants'

responses ranged from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total

possible scores ranged from seven to 49. Total responses were scored such that higher

scores indicated greater agreement with the idea that a wife gains from being beaten.

Table 7

Wife Gains From Beating Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Wife Gains From Beating	15.46	6.73	11.95	4.39

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Figure 11. Help Should Be Given To The Wife Subscale Score by Gender.
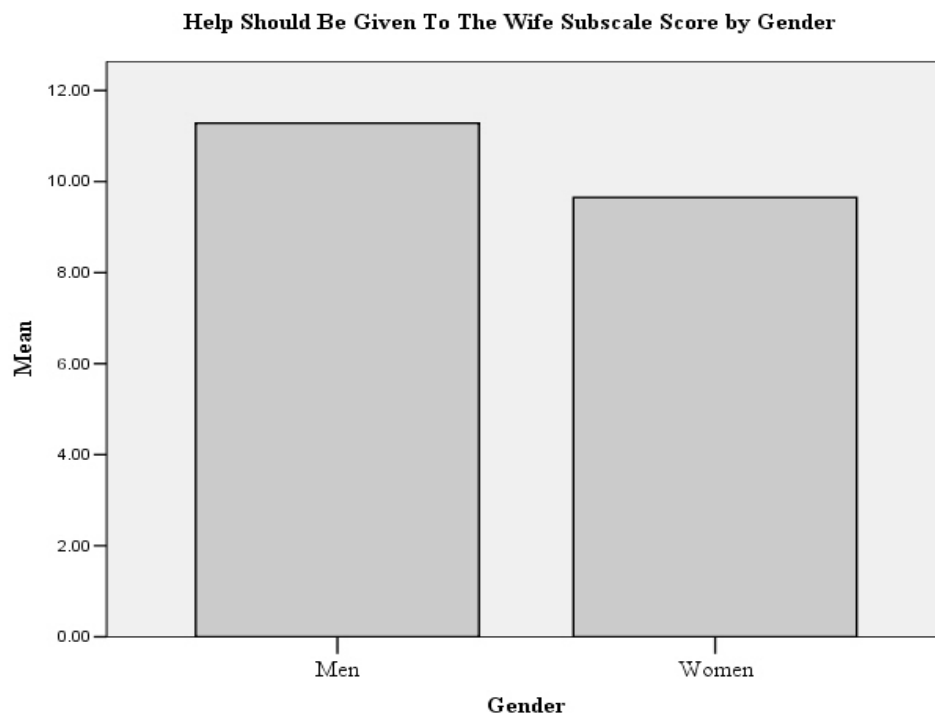
Help Should Be Given To The Wife Subscale Score by Gender

Note. There were five Likert-type items on this subscale of the IBWB. Response choices ranged from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores ranged from five to 35. Participants' responses were scored such that higher scores indicated greater agreement with the idea that help should *not* be given to the wife.

Table 8

Help Should Be Given To The Wife Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Help Should be Given to Wife	11.28	4.89	9.65	3.95

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Figure 12. Offender Should Be Punished Subscale Score by Gender.
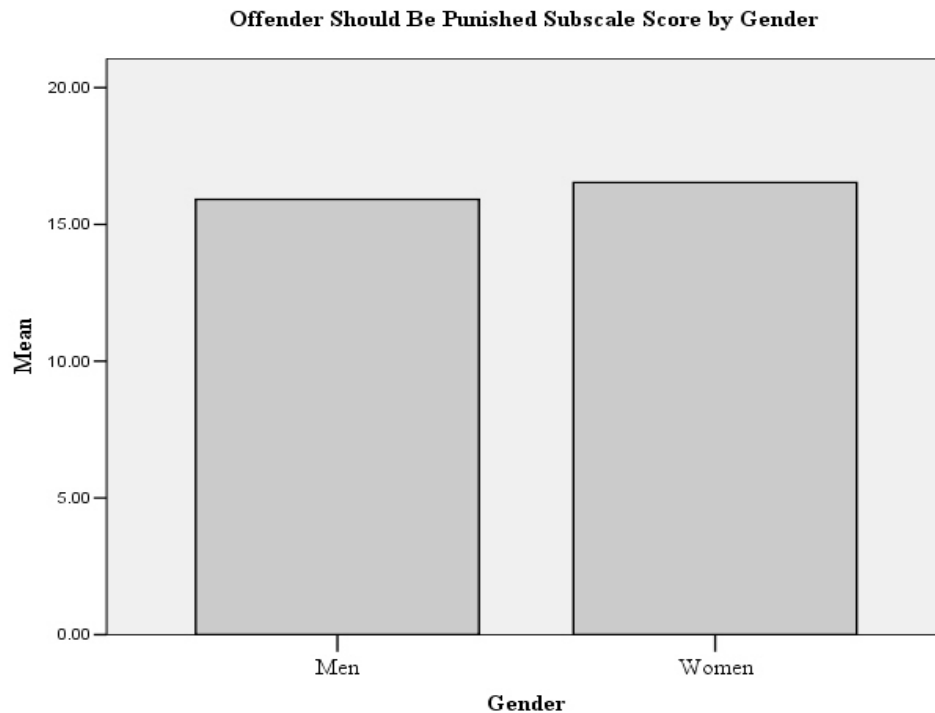
Note. This subscale of the IBWB consisted of four Likert-type items with responses

ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores

ranged from four to 28. Participants' responses were scored such that higher scores

indicated greater agreement with the idea that the offender should be punished.

Table 9

Offender Should Be Punished Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Offender Should Be Punished	15.91	5.01	16.53	4.10

Note. Men ($N = 60$) and Women ($N = 60$).

Figure 13. Offender Is Responsible Subscale Score by Gender.
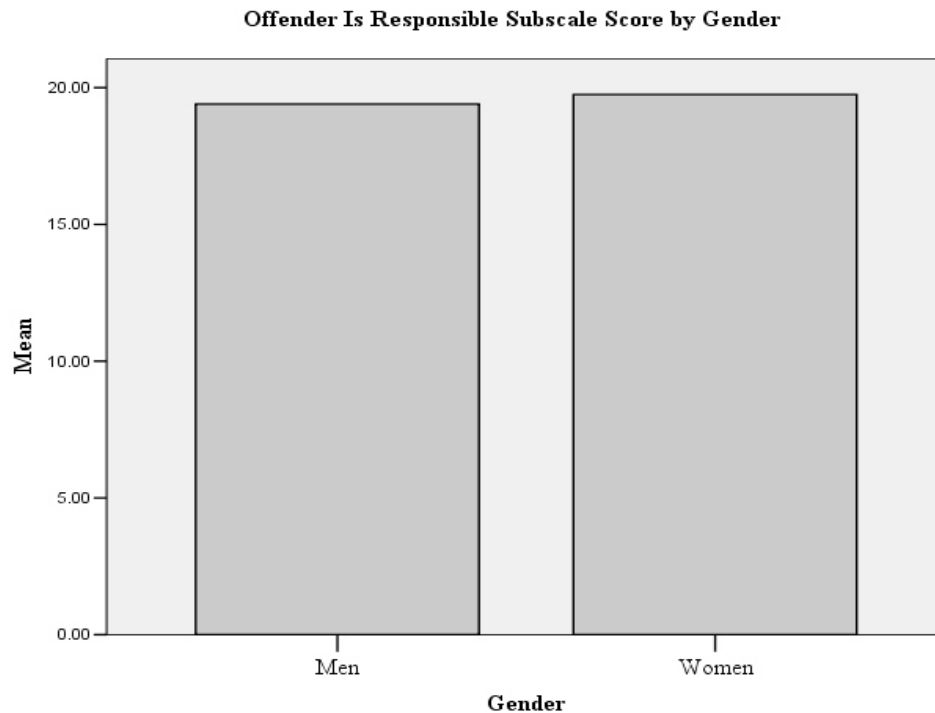
Note. There were four Likert-type items on this subscale of the IBWB. Response

choices ranged from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible

scores ranged from four to 28. Participants' responses were scored such that higher

scores indicated greater agreement with the offender is responsible for the violence.

Table 10

Offender Is Responsible Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Offender Is Responsible	19.40	5.06	19.75	4.04

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Lambda = .96, *F* (8,107) = .568, *p* = .802. Also, prior experience with domestic violence

did not significantly affect participants' responses on any of the factor subscales, Wilks'

Lambda = .905, *F* (16, 214), = .685, *p* = .808. No interaction effects between version or

prior experience with domestic violence were found, Wilks' Lambda = .916, *F* (16, 214)

= .600, *p* = .882. Given this information, the scores were pooled across the two versions

and across the previous experience with domestic violence variable.

Hypothesis Three. It was expected that men would assign more responsibility for

the violence in the scenario to the victim than women. The five factor subscales of the

Attribution for Violence measure used to assess victim responsibility as outlined by

Dexter et al. (1997) were Identify With Victim, Victim Is Responsible, Victim Deserved

Abuse, Victim Could Have Avoided, and Victim Begging To Stop. These subscales were

scored such that higher scores indicated that participants attributed more responsibility

for the violence to the victim. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

was conducted to determine if men and women differed on the five subscales.

Significant multivariate gender differences were found, Wilks' Lambda = .813, *F* (5,114)

= 5.24, *p* = .000). As a result, follow up analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted.

In Figures 14 through 18, comparisons of participants' scores on each subscale of

the Attributions for Violence measure that examined victim responsibility are presented.

Results for the Identify With Victim subscale are presented in Figure 14, the Victim Is

Responsible subscale in Figure 15, the Victim Deserved Abuse subscale in Figure 16, the

Victim Could Have Avoided subscale in Figure 17, and the Victim Begging To Stop

subscale in Figure 18.

Figure 14. Identify With Victim Subscale Score by Gender.
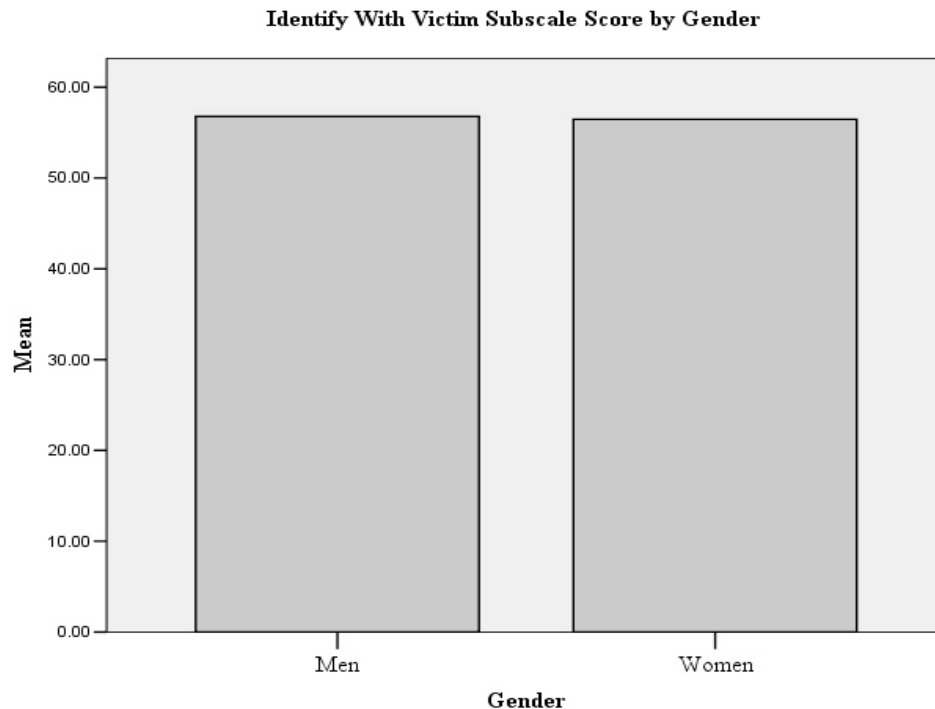
Note. This subscale of the Attribution for Violence measure consisted of 14 Likert-type items with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores ranged from 14 to 98. Responses were scored such that higher scores indicated greater agreement with the idea that they could identify with the victim.

Table 5

Identify With Victim Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Identify With Victim	56.78	9.32	56.46	10.08

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Figure 15. Victim Is Responsible Subscale Score by Gender.
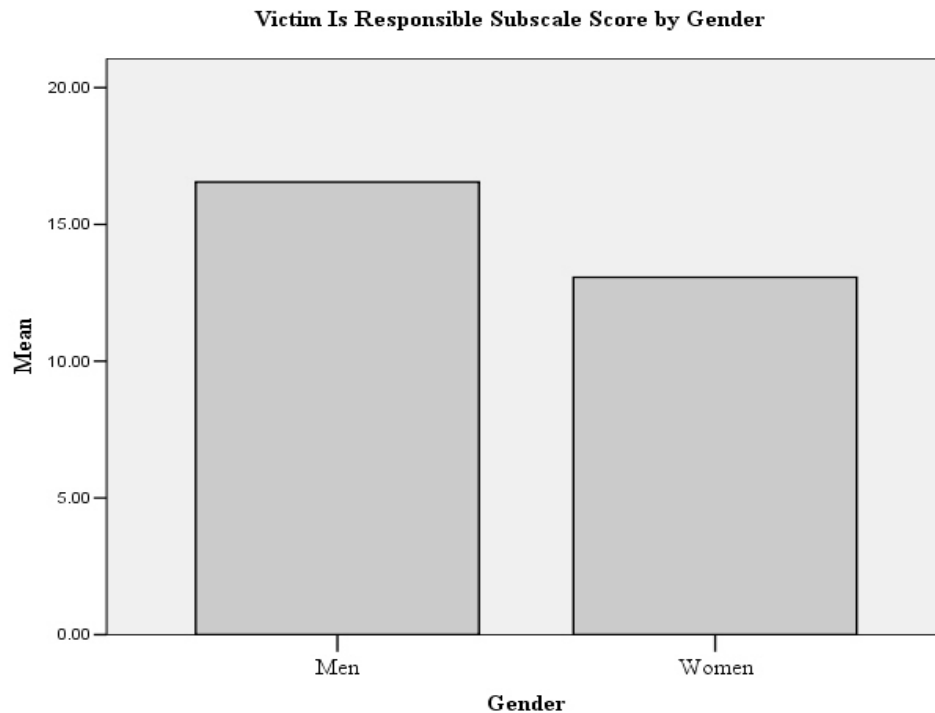
Victim Is Responsible Subscale Score by Gender

Note. There were five Likert-type items on this subscale of the Attribution for Violence

measures. Response choices ranged from one to seven with four serving as a neutral

midpoint. Total possible scores ranged from five to 35. Higher total scores indicated

participants assigned more responsibility for the violence to the victim.

Table 62

Victim Is Responsible Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Victim Is Responsible	16.55	5.88	13.06	4.94

Note. Men ($N = 60$) and Women ($N = 60$).

Figure 16. Victim Deserved Abuse Subscale Score by Gender.
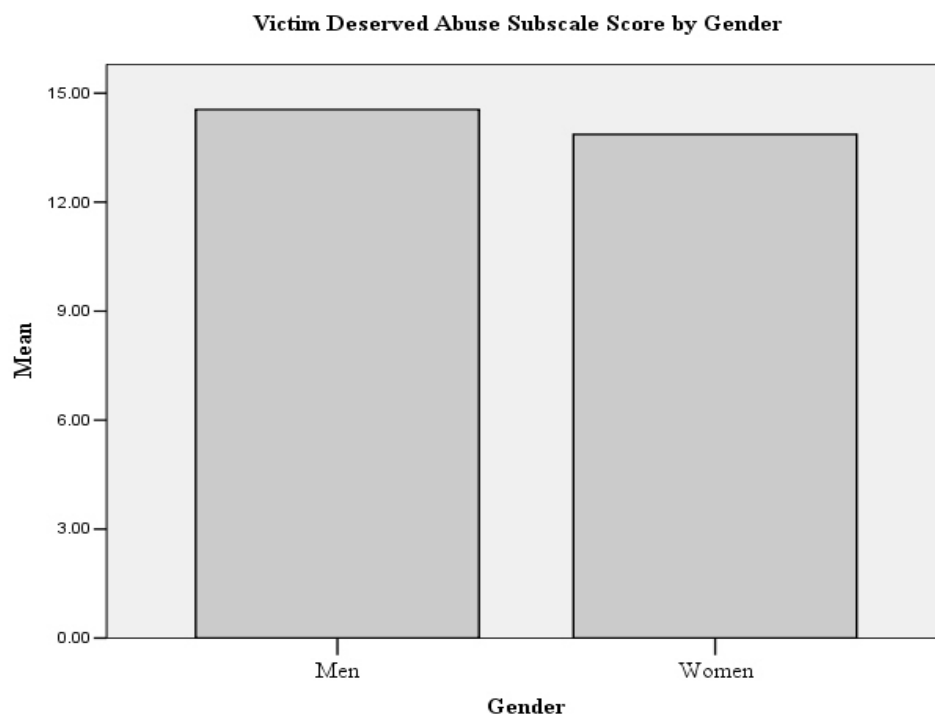
Note. This subscale consisted of five Likert-type items with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores ranged from 5 to 35. Participants' responses were scored such that higher scores indicated a larger amount of agreement with the idea that the victim deserved the abuse.

Table 73

Victim Deserved Abuse Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Victim Deserved Abuse	14.55	3.70	13.86	3.08

Note. Men ($N = 60$) and Women ($N = 60$).

Figure 17. Victim Could Have Avoided Subscale Score by Gender.

Victim Could Have Avoided Subscale Score by Gender
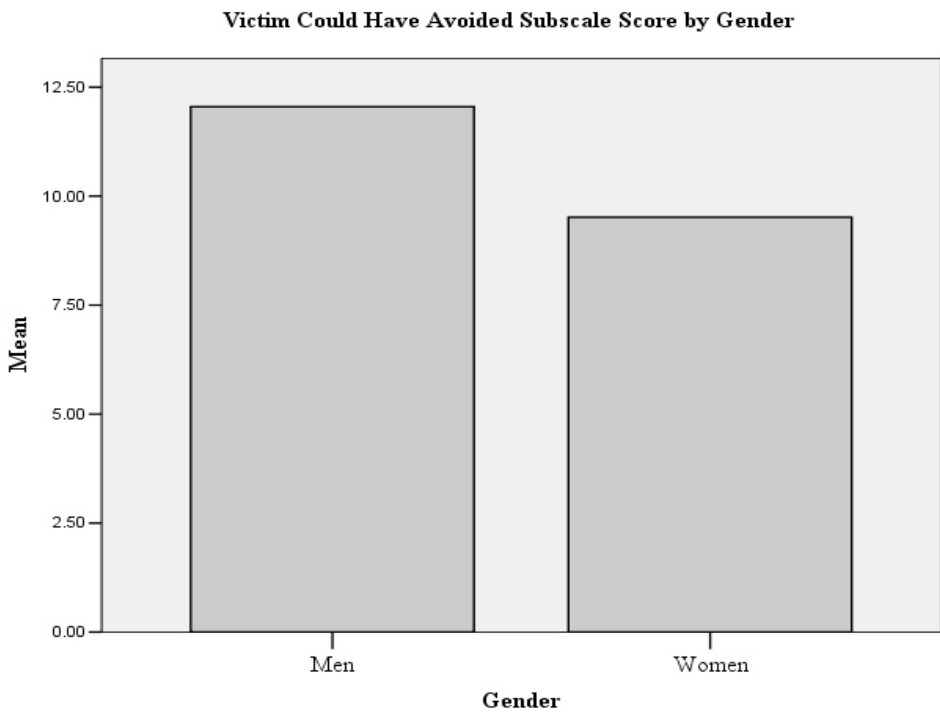
Note. There were three Likert-type items on this scale with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Scores could range from 3 to 21 and responses were scored such that higher scores indicated more agreement with the idea that the victim in the scenario could have avoided the violence.

Table 84

Victim Could Have Avoided Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Victim Could Have Avoided	12.05	2.91	9.51	3.51

Note. Men ($N = 60$) and Women ($N = 60$).

Figure 18. Victim Begging To Stop Subscale Score by Gender.
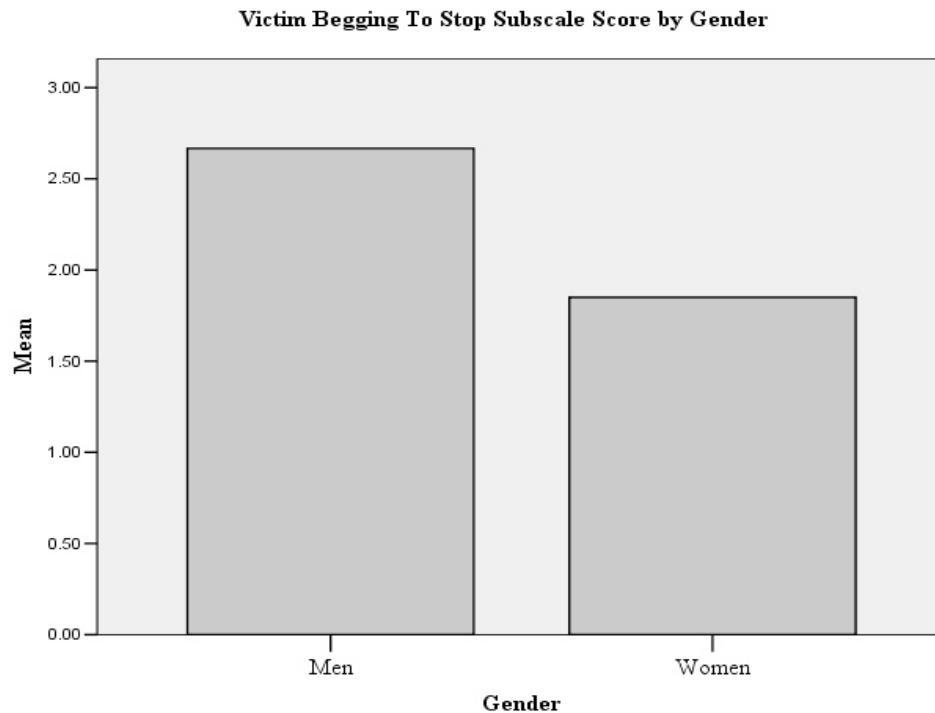
Victim Begging To Stop Subscale Score by Gender

Note. This subscale consisted of one Likert-type item with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. As there was one item, total possible scores ranged from one to seven. Higher total responses indicated more agreement that the victim could have ended the violence if she begged the perpetrator to stop.

Table 95

Victim Begging To Stop Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Victim Begging To Stop	2.66	1.27	1.85	1.02

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Hypothesis three was partially supported. Men and women significantly differed on the Victim Is Responsible Subscale, $F (1, 118) = 12.33$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .10$. This was a "medium" effect size. Men also assigned more responsibility for the violence to the victim than women did. Men and women differed on the Victim Could Have Avoided Subscale, $F (1, 118) = 18.503$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .14$. This "large" effect size indicated that men were more likely to indicate that the female victim could have avoided the violence if she had wanted. In addition, as measured by the Victim Begging To Stop subscale, men were more likely than women to indicate that the female victim could have prevented the violence by begging the perpetrator not to harm her, $F (1, 118) = 15.04$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .11$. This was a "medium" effect size. Men and women did not differ on the Identify With Victim Subscale, $F (1, 118) = .003$, $p = .86$, $\eta^2 = .01$ or the Victim Deserved Abuse Subscale, $F (1, 118) = 1.20$, $p = .27$, $\eta^2 = .00$. "Small" effect sizes were found for both the Identify With Victim and Victim Deserved Abuse subscales.

Hypothesis Four. It was expected that women would assign more blame to the perpetrator of the violence in the scenario than would men. Three factor subscales of the Attribution for Violence measure, Perpetrator Behavior, Perpetrator Personality, and Perpetrator Is To Blame, were used to assess perpetrator blame. These scales were scored such that higher scores indicated that participants assigned a greater level of blame for the violence to the perpetrator of the violence. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were gender differences for the three subscales. No multivariate gender differences were present, Wilks' Lambda = .943, $F (3,116) = 2.35$, $p = .076$. Hypothesis four was not supported. Comparisons of scores on each subscale are presented in Figures 19 through 21.

Figure 19. Perpetrator Behavior Subscale Score by Gender.
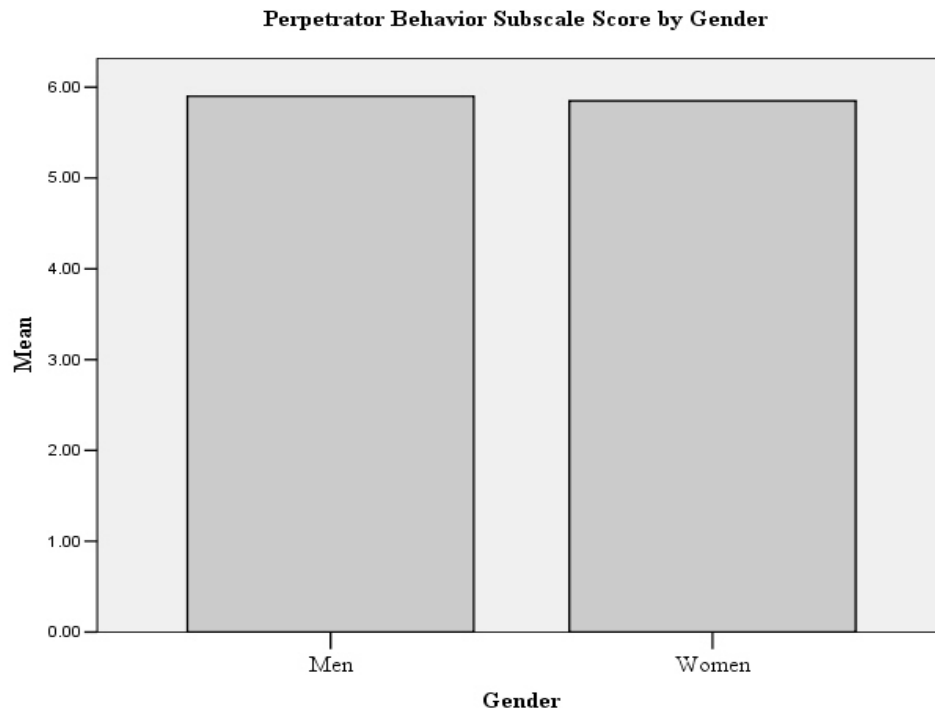
Perpetrator Behavior Subscale Score by Gender

Note. This subscale consisted of one Likert-type item with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores ranged from one to seven. Participants' responses were scored such that higher scores indicated greater agreement with the idea that the perpetrator was to blame because of his behavior.

Table 106

Perpetrator Behavior Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Perpetrator Behavior	5.90	1.14	5.85	1.35

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Figure 20. Perpetrator Personality Subscale Score by Gender.
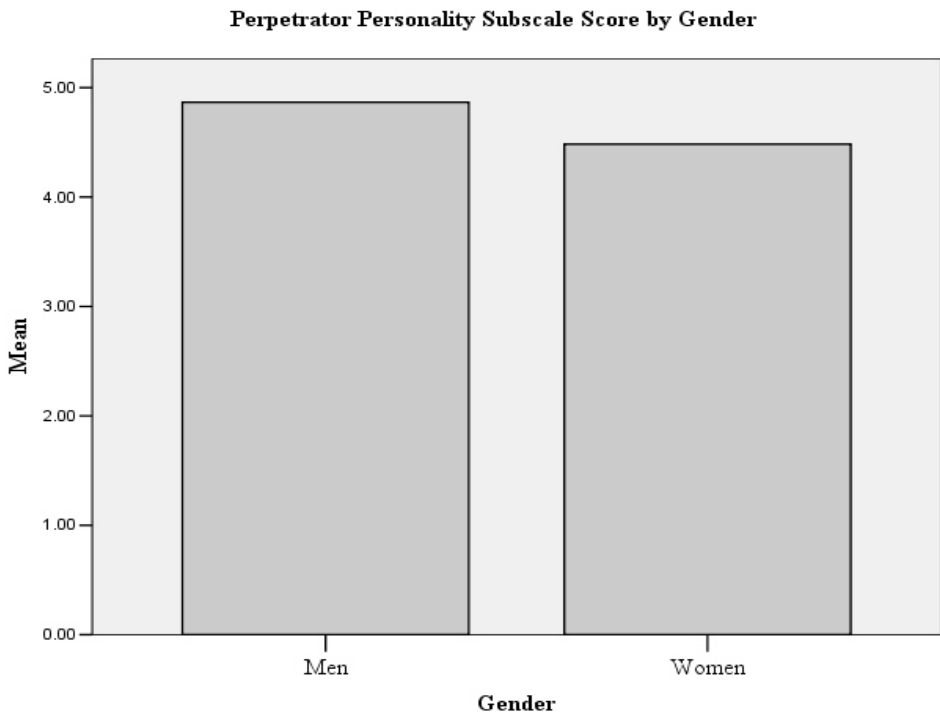
Note. This subscale consisted of one Likert-type item with responses ranging from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Since there was one item, total possible scores ranged from one to seven. Higher total responses indicated more agreement with the idea that the violence occurred partly due to the perpetrator's personality.

Table 117

Perpetrator Personality Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Perpetrator Personality	4.86	1.22	4.48	1.38

Note. Men ($N = 60$) and Women ($N = 60$).

Figure 21. Perpetrator Is To Blame Subscale Score by Gender.

Perpetrator Is To Blame Subscale Score by Gender
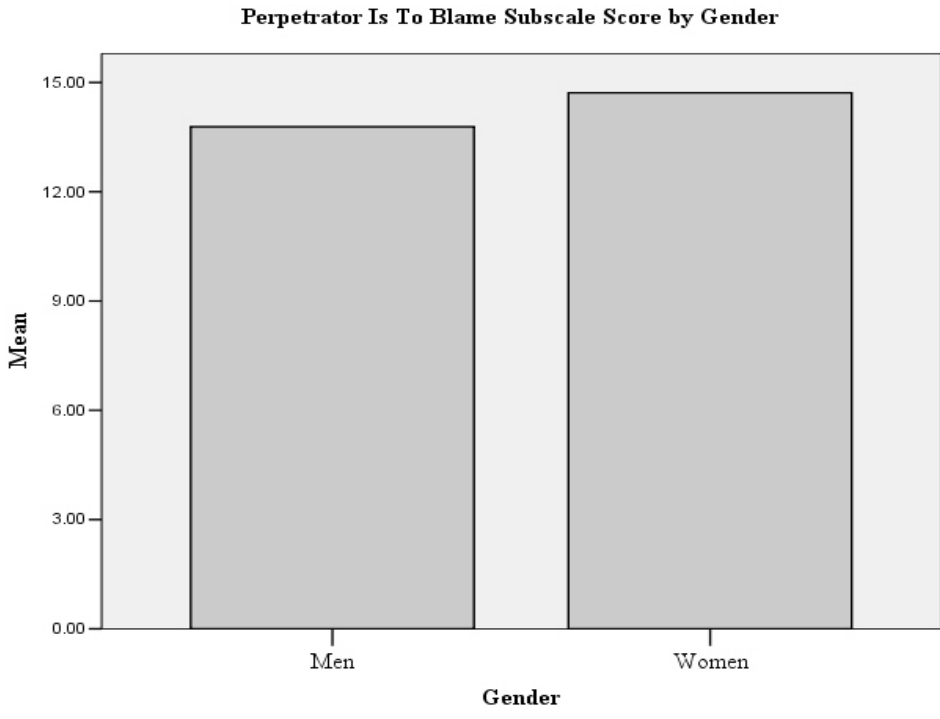
Note. There were three Likert-type items on this subscale. Response choices ranged

from one to seven with four serving as a neutral midpoint. Total possible scores ranged

from three to 21. Participants' responses were scored such that higher scores indicated

more agreement with the idea that the perpetrator is to blame for the violence.

Table 128

Perpetrator Is To Blame Subscale Score by Gender

Subscale	Mean for Men	SD for Men	Mean for Women	SD for Women
Perpetrator Is To Blame	13.78	3.16	14.71	3.38

Note. Men (*N* = 60) and Women (*N* = 60).

Correlations

A series of Pearson correlations were calculated to examine relationships among the measures. Before these relationships could be examined, several items were recoded specifically for these correlations in order to maintain connotative consistency. Scales were coded such that higher scores on the scales were indicative of support for the victim. Items on the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ), Wife Gains From Beating (WG), and Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) subscales of the IBWB were recoded so that lower scores indicated a greater level of acceptance of violence against women and higher scores indicated greater disapproval of violence by husbands against their wives (more supportive of the victim). The Offender Should Be Punished (OP) and Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscales of the IBWB were coded such that lower scores demonstrated a greater level of approval of violence by husbands against their wives while higher scores demonstrated a greater level of disapproval of this violence.

For the Attributions for Violence measure, the items on the Identify With Victim, Victim Is Responsible, Victim Deserved Abuse, Victim Could Have Avoided, and Victim Begging To Stop subscales were recoded so that lower scores indicated that participants attributed a greater level of responsibility for the violence to the victim while higher scores indicated that participants attributed a smaller level of responsibility for the violence to the victim. The Perpetrator Personality, Perpetrator Is To Blame, Perpetrator's Behavior subscales were scored such that higher scores indicated that participants assigned a greater level of blame for the violence to the perpetrator of the violence. Also, high scores on both versions of the IAT were indicative of more supportive attitudes toward the victim of the violence. Significant relationships within

measures are discussed below. Correlations between all variables and significant

relationships are displayed in Table 19 and 20. In addition, correlations between the

variables for men and women are displayed in Tables 21, 22, 23, and 24.

Correlations between Gender and All Dependent Measures Correlations

Significantly positive correlations were identified between gender and the Wife

Beating Is Justified subscale, ($r = .322$, $p < .01$), the Wife Gains From Beating subscale ($r = .302$, $p < .01$), and the Help Should be Given subscale ($r = .186$, $p < .05$) of the IBWB.

This indicates that on these subscales, men demonstrated a significantly greater level of

acceptance of violence by husbands against their wives than did women. In addition,

significant positive correlations were identified between gender and the Victim Is

Responsible subscale ($r = .308$, $p < .01$), Victim Could Have Avoided subscale ($r = .368$, $p < .01$), and the Victim Begging To Stop subscale ($r = .336$, $p < .01$) of the Attribution

for Violence measure. This indicates that on these subscales, men assigned a

significantly greater level of responsibility for the violence depicted in the scenario than

women. Also, significant positive correlations were identified between gender and

participants scores on Version One of the IAT ($r = .544$, $p < .01$) and Version Two of the

IAT ($r = .497$, $p < .01$). See Table 19 for these results.

Explicit measures correlations

IBWB: The relationships between participants' scores on the five subscales of the

IBWB were examined. All subscale scores on the IBWB had statistically positive

correlations with each other indicating that participants tended to score similarly on all

subscales of the IBWB. The correlation matrix for all participants can be found in Table

19, for male participants in Table 21, and for female participants in Table 23.

Attributions of Responsibility Subscales

The relationships between participants' scores on the five factor subscales of the Attributions for violence measure that examined attributions of responsibility (Identify With Victim, Victim Is Responsible, Victim Deserved Abuse, Victim Could Have Avoided, and Victim Begging) were assessed. Of these comparisons, the Victim Is Responsible, Victim Deserved Abuse, Victim Could Have Avoided, and Victim Begging subscales were significantly positively correlated with each other. The Identify With Victim subscale was significantly negatively correlated with the Victim Deserved Abuse subscale ($r = -.260$, $p < .01$) and the Victim Could Have Avoided subscale ($r = -.181$, $p < .05$). See Table 20 for all participants, Table 22 for male participants, and Table 24 for female participants.

Attribution of Blame Factor Subscales

The relationships between participants' scores on the three subscales of the Attributions for Violence measure that examined attributions of blame (Perpetrator Personality, Perpetrator Is To Blame, and Perpetrator's Behavior) were examined. Of these comparisons, the Perpetrator Personality subscale was significantly positively correlated with the Perpetrator Is To Blame subscale ($r = .272$, $p < .01$) and the Perpetrator's Behavior subscale ($r = .200$, $p < .05$). Correlations for all participants can be found in Table 20, Table 22 for male participants, and Table 24 for female participants.

IAT Correlations

Given that IAT scores for the whole population were obtained from two different samples (Version One and Version Two), correlations across the two different versions

Table 19

Correlations between IBWB Subscales and Dependent Measures for All Participants

Measure	Gender	WJ	WG	HG	OP	OR
WJ	.322**	1				
WG	.302**	.687**	1			
HG	.186*	.663**	.555**	1		
OP	.068	.238**	.388**	.213*	1	
OR	.038	.361**	.439**	.256**	.711**	1
ID	.016	-.082	-.083	-.153	-.158	-.188*
Vicresp	.308**	.434**	.479**	.314**	.163	.260**
Vicdesr	.101	.561**	.576**	.522**	.227*	.335**
Vicavoid	.368**	.271**	.393**	.150	.165	.198*
Vicbeg	.336**	.364**	.358**	.216*	.172	.208*
Perpper	-.146	.052	.090	.021	.141	.206*
Perpblm	.142	.255**	.406**	.367**	.235**	.296**
Perpbh	-.020	.091	.131	.148	.074	.086
IATV1	.544**	.079	.052	-.058	-.102	-.133
IATV2	.497**	.300*	.128	.188	.039	.054

Note: <u>Gender</u> = Gender of participant, <u>WJ</u> = Wife Beating Is Justified, <u>WG</u> = Wife Gains From Beating, <u>HG</u> = Help Should Be Given To The Wife, <u>OP</u> = Offender Should Be Punished, <u>OR</u> = Offender Is Responsible, <u>ID</u> = Identify With Victim, <u>Vicresp</u> = Victim Is Responsible, <u>Vicdesr</u> = Victim Deserved Abuse, <u>Vicavoid</u> = Victim Could Have Avoided, <u>Vicbeg</u> = Victim Begging To Stop, <u>Perpper</u> = Perpetrator Personality, <u>Perblm</u> = Perpetrator Is To Blame, <u>Perpbh</u> = Perpetrator's Behavior. All participants completed the above scales (N = 120) and either IATV1 (N = 60) or IATV2 (N = 60). <u>IATV1</u> = Implicit Association Test Version One, <u>IATV2</u> = Implicit Association Test Version Two.

 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 13

Correlations between Attribution For Violence Measures and Dependent Measures for

All Participants

Measure	ID	Vicresp	Vicdesr	Vicavoid	Vicbeg	Perpper	Perpblm	Perpbh
ID	1							
Vicresp	-.156	1						
Vicdesr	-.260*	.432**	1					
Vicavoid	-.181*	.658**	.214*	1				
Vicbeg	.030	.396**	.334**	.396**	1			
Perpper	-.096	.044	.142	.045	.083	1		
Perpblm	-.315*	.429**	.415**	.373**	.373**	.272**	1	
Perpbh	.030	.121	.187*	.028	-.010	.200*	.157	1
IATV1	-.115	.147	-.046	.098	.000	-.033	-.019	-.153
IATV2	-.065	.198	.014	.271*	.113	-.204	-.049	.049

Note: <u>Vicresp</u> = Victim Is Responsible, <u>Vicdesr</u> = Victim Deserved Abuse, <u>Vicavoid</u> = Victim Could Have Avoided, <u>Vicbeg</u> = Victim Begging To Stop, <u>Perpper</u> = Perpetrator Personality, <u>Perblm</u> = Perpetrator Is To Blame, <u>Perpbh</u> = Perpetrator's Behavior. All participants completed the above scales (N = 120) and either IATV1 (N = 60) or IATV2 (N = 60). <u>IATV1</u> = Implicit Association Test Version One, <u>IATV2</u> = Implicit Association Test Version Two.

 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 14

Correlations between IBWB Subscales and Dependent Measures for Male Participants

Measure	WJ	WG	HG	OP	OR
WJ	1				
WG	.680**	1			
HG	.824**	.751**	1		
OP	.284*	.604**	.333**	1	
OR	.411**	.604**	.364**	.845**	1
ID	-.122	-.217	-.190	-.306*	-.265*
Vicresp	.390**	.450**	.295*	.245	.338**
Vicdesr	.692**	.707**	.684**	.384**	.462**
Vicavoid	.139	.354**	.071	.365**	.399**
Vicbeg	.232	.324*	.173	.236	.305*
Perpper	.166	.226	.164	.375**	.390**
Perpblm	.291*	.512**	.380**	.590**	.512**
Perpbh	.234	.125	.353**	.058	.048
IATV1	.092	-.027	-.033	-.280	-.233
IATV2	-.026	-.220	-.153	-.181	-.146

Note: <u>WJ</u> = Wife Beating Is Justified, <u>WG</u> = Wife Gains From Beating, <u>HG</u> = Help Should Be Given To The Wife, <u>OP</u> = Offender Should Be Punished, <u>OR</u> = Offender Is Responsible, <u>ID</u> = Identify With Victim, <u>Vicresp</u> = Victim Is Responsible, <u>Vicdesr</u> = Victim Deserved Abuse, <u>Vicavoid</u> = Victim Could Have Avoided, <u>Vicbeg</u> = Victim Begging To Stop, <u>Perpper</u> = Perpetrator Personality, <u>Perblm</u> = Perpetrator Is To Blame, <u>Perpbh</u> = Perpetrator's Behavior. All participants completed the above scales (N = 60) and either IATV1 (N = 30) or IATV2 (N = 30). <u>IATV1</u> = Implicit Association Test Version One, <u>IATV2</u> = Implicit Association Test Version Two.

 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 15

Correlations between Attribution For Violence Measures and Dependents for Males

Measure	ID	Vicresp	Vicdesr	Vicavoid	Vicbeg	Perpper	Perpblm	Perpbh
ID	1							
Vicresp	-.145	1						
Vicdesr	-.349**	.529**	1					
Vicavoid	-.185	.592**	.323*	1				
Vicbeg	-.072	.428**	.317*	.279*	1			
Perpper	-.200	.159	.327*	.173	.268*	1		
Perpblm	-.347**	.459**	.492**	.460**	.431**	.494**	1	
Perpbh	.056	.223	.255*	.115	.093	.147	.134	1
IATV1	-.034	-.080	-.025	-.189	-.171	-.178	-.240	-.278
IATV2	-.036	-.015	-.240	.014	-.211	-.199	-.334	.005

Note: <u>Vicresp</u> = Victim Is Responsible, <u>Vicdesr</u> = Victim Deserved Abuse, <u>Vicavoid</u> = Victim Could Have Avoided, <u>Vicbeg</u> = Victim Begging To Stop, <u>Perpper</u> = Perpetrator Personality, <u>Perblm</u> = Perpetrator Is To Blame, <u>Perpbh</u> = Perpetrator's Behavior. All participants completed the above scales (N = 60) and either IATV1 (N = 30) or IATV2 (N = 30). <u>IATV1</u> = Implicit Association Test Version One, <u>IATV2</u> = Implicit Association Test Version Two.

 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 16

Correlations between IBWB Subscale and Dependent Measures for Female Participants

Measure	WJ	WG	HG	OP	OR
WJ	1				
WG	.594**	1			
HG	.257*	.123	1		
OP	.112	-.014	.009	1	
OR	.289*	.157	.082	.505**	1
ID	-.053	.077	-.127	.002	-.105
Vicresp	.366**	.389**	.243	.010	.147
Vicdesr	.297*	.345**	.262*	-.015	.141
Vicavoid	.279*	.307*	.112	-.061	-.002
Vicbeg	.453**	.216	.154	.041	.054
Perpper	.020	.041	-.075	-.085	.025
Perpblm	.138	.231	.324*	-.181	.045
Perpbh	-.099	.184	-.050	.097	.132
IATV1	-.302	-.127	-.106	.057	.035
IATV2	.454*	.191	.295	.296	.252

Note: WJ = Wife Beating Is Justified, WG = Wife Gains From Beating, HG = Help Should Be Given To The Wife, OP = Offender Should Be Punished, OR = Offender Is Responsible, ID = Identify With Victim, Vicresp = Victim Is Responsible, Vicdesr = Victim Deserved Abuse, Vicavoid = Victim Could Have Avoided, Vicbeg = Victim Begging To Stop, Perpper = Perpetrator Personality, Perblm = Perpetrator Is To Blame, Perpbh = Perpetrator's Behavior. All participants completed all scales (N = 60) and either IATV1 (N = 30) or IATV2 (N = 30). IATV1 = Implicit Association Test Version One, IATV2 = Implicit Association Test Version Two.

$* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 17

Correlations between Attribution For Violence Measures and Dependents for Females

Measure	ID	Vicresp	Vicdesr	Vicavoid	Vicbeg	Perpper	Perpblm	Perpbh
ID	1							
Vicresp	-.199	1						
Vicdesr	-.171	.275*	1					
Vicavoid	-.215	.660**	.067	1				
Vicbeg	.138	.176	.326*	.357**	1			
Perpper	-.008	.030	-.015	.059	.008	1		
Perpblm	-.298*	.360**	.318*	.263*	.262*	.138	1	
Perpbh	.010	.047	.131	-.017	-.106	.239	.183	1
IATV1	-.284	.048	-.178	-.045	-.292	.316	.092	.053
IATV2	-.134	.191	.131	.211	.166	-.117	.072	-.017

Note: Vicresp = Victim Is Responsible, Vicdesr = Victim Deserved Abuse, Vicavoid = Victim Could Have Avoided, Vicbeg = Victim Begging To Stop, Perpper = Perpetrator Personality, Perblm = Perpetrator Is To Blame, Perpbh = Perpetrator's Behavior. All participants completed the above scales (N = 60) and either IATV1 (N = 30) or IATV2 (N = 30). IATV1 = Implicit Association Test Version One, IATV2 = Implicit Association Test Version Two.
* p < .05 ** p < .01

were not possible. Correlations between each participant group's implicit attitude.

measure, explicit attitude measure subscales, and attribution subscales were possible,

however.

Hypothesis Five. It was expected that participants' responses on the IAT would

not be correlated with responses on the IBWB subscales or with the Attributions for

Violence subscales. This hypothesis was fully supported. Of these comparisons, the

only significant correlations found were between IAT Version Two and the Wife Beating

Is Justified subscale of the IBWB, $r = .300$, $p = .020$ and the IAT Version Two and the

Victim Could Have Avoided subscale of the Attribution for Violence measure, $r = .271$, p

$= .036$. When taking gender into account, the only measure that the IAT was

significantly correlated with was the WJ subscale of the IBWB for women, $r = .454$, $p =$

.012. Given the large number of correlations coupled with only three significant

correlations, the hypothesis that explicit and implicit measures would not be correlated

was supported.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Major Findings

   Implicit Association Test. No previous research has explored participants'
implicit attitudes toward victims of domestic violence. The hypothesis that women
would demonstrate a significantly more favorable implicit attitude toward the victim of
domestic violence and less favorable implicit attitude toward the perpetrator of domestic
violence than men would was supported. Women were more favorable toward the
domestic violence victim than were men. The moderately positive IAT effect for women
indicated they had a somewhat favorable implicit attitude toward Cindy and a somewhat
unfavorable implicit attitude toward John. The weakly positive IAT effect for men
demonstrated only a slightly favorable implicit attitude toward Cindy and a slightly
unfavorable implicit attitude toward John. Although men and women both supportive of
the victim of domestic violence, women were significantly more supportive than men.

   Inventory of Beliefs about Wife Beating (IBWB). Results for participants'
responses on the IBWB, an explicit measure of attitudes toward domestic violence, were
mixed. As demonstrated by their higher subscale scores, men were more likely than
women to agree that wife beating was justified on the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ)
subscale, that the wife gained something from the beating on the Wife Gains From
Beating (WG) subscale, and that little help should have been given to the victim on the
Help Should be Given to Wife (HG) subscale. This is consistent with previous research
that suggests women hold more supportive explicit attitudes toward victims of domestic

violence than do men (Berkel, Vandiver, & Bahner, 2004; Saunders, Lynch, Grasyon, & Linz, 1987). It is worth noting that gender differences were observed for the subscales of the IBWB focused on the victim of the violence. The other two subscales of the IBWB, the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) subscale and the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscale, concentrated on the male perpetrator of the violence. No differences were observed between men and women on these subscales. Both men and women scored relatively high on these subscales indicating that men and women agreed that the perpetrator should be punished and that the perpetrator was responsible for the violence. This contradicts previous research that found men held more supportive explicit attitudes toward a male perpetrator of domestic violence than did women (Berkel et al., 2004, Saunders et al., 1987).

Reliability estimates for certain subscales of the IBWB for this study were low. This may explain why the results for the subscales of the IBWB focusing on the victim of the violence supported hypothesis one while the results for the scales focusing on the perpetrator did not. Cronbach's alpha for the Offender Should Be Punished subscale (OP) and the Offender Is Responsible subscale (OR) was low. O'Neal and Wenzler-Dorn (1998) found similar results. They obtained acceptable reliability estimates for the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ), Wife Gains From Beating (WG), and Help Should Be Given To The Wife (HG) subscales, but low reliability estimates for the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) and Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscales. It is possible that problems with the reliability of the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) and the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscales may explain the lack of gender differences on these subscales.

An interesting trend emerged when participants' scores on the Implicit Association Test were compared to the Wife Gains From Beating (WG), Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ), and Help Should Be Given (HG) Subscales of the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating scale. Women were relatively *consistent* in their positive support of the female victim of domestic violence as shown by their positive support on the implicit attitude measure, the IAT, and the explicit attitude measure, the IBWB. Men, however, were *inconsistent* in their attitudes toward the victim. On the IAT, men displayed slightly supportive attitudes toward victims of domestic violence. In contrast, men reported unsupportive explicit attitudes toward female victims of domestic violence on the explicit measure. This demonstrates that a person may hold differing explicit and implicit attitudes regarding the same attitude object and supports the idea that explicit and implicit measures are assessing two different components of the attitude construct.

Attributions of Responsibility and Blame. Results for the Attributions for Violence measure were mixed. Men were more likely than women to assign responsibility for the violence depicted in the scenario to the victim, state that the female victim could have avoided the violence, and state that the female victim should have begged the perpetrator to not harm her. These results are consistent with previous research that found men tend to assign more responsibility for domestic violence to the victim of the violence than do women (Kristiansen & Guilierit, 1990; Schult & Schneider, 1991). Men and women, however, did not significantly differ on the Identify With Victim or the Victim Deserved Abuse subscales of the Attributions for Violence measure. This contradicts previous research that found that men were more likely to report that women deserved to be beaten than women were (Gellert, 2002). These results

indicate that even though men are more likely than women to assign responsibility for domestic violence to the female victim, they don't think that the female victim deserved the abuse. This suggests that both men and women believe that the female victim did not deserve to be abused regardless of who they believe was responsible for the violence.

Results for the subscales of the Attributions for Violence measure that assessed attributions of blame for the violence (Perpetrator Personality, Perpetrator Blame, and Perpetrator Behavior) indicated that men and women did not significantly differ on the amount of blame that participants assigned to the perpetrator of the violence in the scenario. Men and women both assigned more blame for the violence to the male perpetrator than to the female victim. This is inconsistent with previous research that found that men were more likely than women to blame the female victim for domestic violence (Riger, 1999) and that male students were significantly more likely than female students to attribute blame to the victim for the domestic violence (Bryant & Spencer, 2003). In addition, personal experience with domestic violence did not significantly affect participants' responses on the Attribution for Violence measure. This is inconsistent with research that demonstrated that participants who had previously encountered domestic violence were more likely to blame the victim for the violence (Bryant & Spencer, 2003).

The fact that men and women both blamed the perpetrator for the violence may be explained by the scenario that was used in this study. The scenario described a "typical" instance of domestic violence and utilized the most common factors that precipitate domestic violence as described by Tjaden and Thoennes (2000) and Hilton et al. (2004). The scenario was written in a way that clearly dichotomized the female as the victim and

the male as the perpetrator. This may have prompted participants to respond to the female as the victim and the male as the perpetrator and may have dictated participants' responses on the Attribution for Violence measure.

While women tended to assign responsibility and blame for the violence to the perpetrator, men tended to assign responsibility to the victim but assign blame to the perpetrator. One explanation for the sex differences in attributions of responsibility involves the amount of control over the situation that men and women assigned to the victim and perpetrator of the violence (Weiner, 1995). While women may have assigned the perpetrator more control over the situation, men may have assigned more control over the situation to the victim. Attributions of responsibility are made when a person is viewed as being accountable for what has occurred while attributions of blame are made when a person is viewed as being liable for something that is punishable (Shaver, 1985). These results indicated that women viewed the perpetrator as being accountable and men viewed the victim as being accountable for the violence. In making an attribution of blame for the violence, however, men and women indicated that the perpetrator was aware of the consequences of his actions and intended to harm the victim through this violence. Therefore, both men and women viewed the perpetrator as being liable for the violence.

It is also important to note that support for the "Just World Hypothesis" (Lerner, 1980) in explaining attributions of responsibility and blame for the violence in this study was mixed. While men tended to view the female victim as provoking the violence, women did not assign responsibility or blame for the violence to the victim. This contradicts previous research that found women tended to assign responsibility for

violence to female victims beaten by their partners (Kristiansen & Guilierti, 1990). In a world that is considered "just", the good will be rewarded while the bad will be punished (Lerner, 1970). It is possible that by assigning more responsibility for the violence to the female victim, men were attempting to justify the violence that another man was using against a woman to explain what they may have otherwise considered to be inappropriate.

One goal of this study was to determine if gender differences existed in the attributions of responsibility and blame toward the victim and perpetrator of domestic violence. The results for this study were mixed. Several of the results were consistent with existing literature, while other results contradicted the findings of previous literature. The mixed nature of these results suggests the need of additional research in this area.

Relationship between Implicit and Explicit Attitudes. No previous research has explored the relationship between the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating (explicit attitude measure) and the Implicit Association Test (implicit attitude measure). Most studies examining domestic violence have relied upon self-report measures that focused exclusively on explicit attitudes (O'Neal & Wenzler-Dorn, 1998). Both implicit and explicit attitudes toward domestic violence were examined. It was assumed that the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating would tap participants' explicit attitudes toward domestic violence, while the Implicit Association Test would tap participant's implicit attitudes toward domestic violence. The majority of the relationships between participants' scores on the Implicit Association Test (IAT) and the subscales of the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating (IBWB) scale were not significant. The only significant relationship between the scales that was found was for women between

Version Two of the IAT and the Wife Beating Is Justified (WJ) subscale of the IBWB. Given the large number of comparisons that were made, it is possible that this significant relationship was due to chance.

These results are consistent with previous research that found that results on explicit and implicit attitude measures tend to diverge (Payne, Burkley, & Stokes, 2008). One explanation for the lack of significant relationships between the implicit and explicit measures is that the two different types of measures are measuring two different components of the attitude construct. If two instruments do not measure similar components of a construct, an accurate assessment of the relationship between the measures is not possible (Gawronski, 2002). Even if two instruments are designed to measure the same construct (i.e., prejudice), they must assess the same characteristics of prejudice (Gawronski, 2002). The fact that the two different measures were assessing two different types of attitudes may explain the lack of correlation between the two measures.

Further evidence for the importance of conceptual correspondence between measures can be found in Hofmann, Gawronski, Geschwendner, Le, and Schmitt's (2005) meta-analysis of studies that examined the correlation between the IAT and explicit attitude measures. Implicit and explicit measures tend to be generally related but the lack of conceptual correspondence between measures can reduce the influence of automatic associations on explicit measures (Hofmann et al., 2005).

It is possible that the IBWB and the IAT did not accurately correspond to one another. The IBWB measured attitudes toward victims and perpetrators of domestic violence in general. The measure did not assess attitudes toward any specific individuals

or actions. The IAT, as constructed for this study, measured specific attitudes related to the actions of the two individuals in the domestic violence scenario that was presented. These measures may therefore not measure the same characteristics of domestic violence. It is possible that this contributed to the lack of correlation between the measures.

The lack of significant relationships between the Implicit Association Test and the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating may also be related to the cognitive resources needed to override an attitude. If people do not have the necessary resources to override the initial attitude, the original attitude will be expressed. Therefore, a person will endorse the attitude that he or she has the cognitive capacity to retrieve. In the current study, participants were able to take as long as needed to answer the questions on the IBWB. For the IAT measure, the participants were urged to sort each item into its correct category as quickly as possible. As a result, participants may not have had adequate time to override their implicit attitudes with the explicit attitude. This may explain why most of the relationships between implicit attitudes on the IAT and explicit attitudes as measured by the IBWB were non-significant.

Limitations of the Current Study

There were several limitations to the current study. One limitation pertains to the relatively low reliability estimates that were obtained for the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) and the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscales of the IBWB. These low reliability estimates lead to too much error and too little true variance. In addition, the low reliability may result in a reduction of the power of the MANOVA that was conducted and alter the results (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999).

Also, the scenario describing the violence may have presented several problems. The scenario described only a few aspects of domestic violence. People may form differing attitudes toward domestic violence depending on the severity and the circumstances surrounding the violence (Gellert, 2002). Also, the fact that the scenario utilized the most common factors precipitating instances of domestic violence may have skewed participants' responses by prompting them to answer in a certain way. This limitation can be seen when examining the words participants generated to describe the female victim and male perpetrator. Participants generated a list of words that created a clearly dichotomous picture of the female victim and the male perpetrator and may have dictated participants' responses on the Attribution for Violence measure as well as the IAT.

Another limitation involves the demographic variables of the individuals from the scenario. The male perpetrator and female victim were both Caucasian, heterosexual, and younger (early 20's). Gellert (2002) suggested that attitudes toward perpetrators and victims of domestic violence might change depending on the demographic characteristics of these individuals. The demographics of the perpetrator and victim in the scenario limit the generalizability of these results. Future research exploring different demographic variables could be valuable.

In addition, the presentation order of the scales may have influenced the results. All participants completed the IBWB, then the Attributions for Violence measure, and then the IAT. The presentation of these measures was not counterbalanced. Seeing the items on the IBWB first may have primed participants' negative perceptions toward

domestic violence and distorted their reactions to the scenario. Counterbalancing these measures would solve these concerns.

Implications for Future Research

Current findings have several implications for future research. Further research examining the role of implicit attitudes with respect to domestic violence is necessary. No previous research had explored participants' implicit attitudes toward victims of domestic violence. This study has provided evidence that it is possible to measure participants' implicit attitudes toward domestic violence. While the majority of research on attitudes toward domestic violence has utilized self-report measures that are vulnerable to self-presentation biases, the Implicit Association Test provides a way to bypass these biases. Further exploration of implicit attitudes could provide researchers with a more complete understanding of attitudes toward domestic violence. Continued examination of the link between implicit and explicit attitudes will assist researchers in understanding the complicated relationship between implicit and explicit attitudes.

Also, the need for improvements in measures that are used to assess explicit attitudes toward domestic violence has been highlighted. The low reliability ratings that were obtained for the Offender Should Be Punished (OP) and the Offender Is Responsible (OR) subscales of the IBWB are evidence of the need for the development of more reliable measures of explicit attitudes toward domestic violence. In addition, relatively few measures of explicit attitudes toward domestic violence exist (Johnson & Ferraro, 2000). The development of new, more effective measures of explicit attitudes toward domestic violence may provide a better overall understanding of how people view victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

These results also indicate that the relationship between attributions of responsibility and blame in cases of domestic violence warrants further investigation. Men were more likely than women to assign responsibility to the victim than women were. This sex difference disappeared when attributions of blame were examined. Men and women both assigned more blame for the violence to the male perpetrator than to the female victim. It will be helpful to examine reasons why men and women tend to assign responsibility for domestic violence differently. It would also be beneficial to continue to examine the role of the "just world hypothesis" with respect to gender differences in these attributions of responsibility and blame for domestic violence.

Implications for Practice

The findings of the current research have several implications for practitioners. The results of the current study indicated that men and women differ with regard to their explicit attitudes, implicit attitudes, and attributions of responsibility in domestic violence situations. Because implicit attitudes are thought to be more affectively based and explicit attitudes are thought to be more cognitively based (Fazio & Olson, 2003), different strategies should be employed in order to change these different attitudes. It would be appropriate for practitioners to consider developing different psychoeducational prevention programs for men and women to target the differing attitudes and attributions that practitioners may wish to alter. Furthermore, men and women who are seeking treatment for domestic violence may have differing attitudes toward domestic violence. It will be important to take these different attitudes into consideration when developing different treatment programs for both the victims and perpetrators of domestic violence that are both effective and focused. Also, these results may prove useful in helping

victims of domestic violence find allies and avoid victim blamers while engaging in the difficult coping process.

In addition, given that these results suggest that persons may hold differing explicit and implicit attitudes regarding the same attitude object, it is important for practitioners to consider social roles for men and women when working with issues of domestic violence. These results indicated that men may be unconsciously supportive of women, but when they think about the legal and social implications of spousal abuse, they become protective of men. It will be important for practitioners to consider this trend when developing different psychoeducational prevention programs and treatment programs for both perpetrators and victims of domestic violence.

The results for the attribution for violence measure have several implications that should be considering when designing new counseling interventions and prevention programs for men and women. These results indicated that while men and women both assigned blame for the domestic violence to the male perpetrator, women assigned responsibility to the perpetrator and men assigned responsibility to the victim. Given the fact that men and women appear to approach attributions of responsibility differently, different intervention and prevention programs for men and women targeting attributions of responsibility need to be created.

Attributions of responsibility are made when a person is viewed as being accountable for his or her actions and is seen as being in control of his or her actions (Shaver, 1985). The results indicated that men were more likely than women to assign responsibility for the violence to victim. Given these results, it would be helpful to design intervention and prevention programs for men that emphasize the control that

perpetrators of domestic violence have in the situation and focus on shifting the accountability in instances of domestic violence to the perpetrator and away from the victim. Attributions of blame, on the other hand, are made when a person is viewed as being liable for something that is punishable (Shaver, 1985). Given that men and women both viewed the perpetrator of the violence as being liable for punishment, future prevention programs for men and women should continue to reinforce the idea that domestic violence is a crime for which the perpetrator is liable for punishment.

These results may also provide some insight for practitioners into just how complicated working with perpetrators and victims of domestic violence can be. While a person may openly express one attitude, his or her automatic and uncontrolled response to the attitude object may be very different. Also, while some participants assigned a significant amount of responsibility for the violence to the victim, they also assigned a significant amount of blame to the perpetrator. Practitioners need to be aware of the complicated nature of domestic violence and be willing to consider both explicit and implicit attitudes toward domestic violence.

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be drawn from these results. Men and women differed in the amount of responsibility that was assigned to a victim of domestic violence but did not differ in the amount of blame assigned to the perpetrator of the violence. These sex differences provide support for the need for an increase in prevention efforts aimed at men that focus on redirecting attributions of responsibility away from the victim.

In terms of attitudes in general, empirical support was provided for the idea that implicit and explicit attitude measures are indeed measuring different constructs. This

relationship, however, is very complicated. With respect to implicit attitudes, this study provided evidence that men and women significantly differ in their implicit attitudes toward the female victim and male perpetrator of domestic violence. Women demonstrated more supportive implicit attitudes toward the victim of domestic violence than men did. Furthermore, men and women significantly differed in their explicit attitudes toward the victim but did not significantly differ in their explicit attitudes toward the perpetrator of domestic violence. This knowledge can be used to expand psychoeducational domestic violence prevention programs as well as develop gender specific treatment programs for perpetrators and victims of domestic violence.

This study demonstrated that assessing both explicit and implicit attitudes toward domestic violence leads to a more complete and accurate assessment of attitudes toward domestic violence. The increased ability to fully evaluate information about peoples' attitudes toward domestic violence can be extremely valuable to mental health professionals in working with both perpetrators and victims of this crime. These results can be used to develop new, gender specific prevention and treatment programs that focus on altering negative attitudes and promote positive attitudes toward victims of domestic violence. Programs such as these may ultimately lead to a reduction in domestic violence.

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Appendix A: Statement of Informed Consent

Statement of Consent – First Focus Group

"Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence"

The purpose of this research project entitled "Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence" is to examine the implicit and explicit attitudes and attributions of responsibility that individuals have for victims of domestic violence. To participate in this study, you will be asked to read a scenario depicting and instance of domestic violence and then generate a list of words that you feel describe the victim of domestic violence and a perpetrator of domestic violence. This study should last approximately 30 minutes.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. You will receive one hour of research participation class credit for your participation in this study. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this study.

The potential risks in this study are minimal. There is a small possibility that reading the scenario and/or answering some of the questions could evoke some feelings of emotional discomfort. If this should occur, you are encouraged to contact the Ball State University Counseling Center at (765) 285-1736. Your name will not appear in any publication or presentation of this research. Data will be reported without any information linked to specific individuals.

One benefit you may gain from your participation in this study may be a better understanding of your own attitudes toward domestic violence. In addition, this study may help researchers identify new things to consider when working with victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing the informed consent form and beginning the study, and at any time during the study.

For one's rights as a research participant, or for one's rights in research related injuries, the following person may be contacted: Melanie Morris, Coordinator for Research Compliance, Academic Research and Sponsored programs, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, 47306, (765) 285-5070.

****

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   Date

Principal Investigator: Faculty Supervisor:
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Doctoral Candidate   Professor of Psychology
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Statement of Consent – Focus Groups Two, Three, and Four

Statement of Informed Consent
"Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence"

The purpose of this research project entitled "Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence" is to examine the implicit and explicit attitudes and attributions of responsibility that individuals have for victims of domestic violence. To participate in this study, you will be asked to read a scenario depicting an instance of domestic violence and then sort into categories a list of words that describe the victim of domestic violence and a perpetrator of domestic violence. This study should last approximately 30 minutes.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. You will receive one hour of research participation class credit for your participation in this study. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this study.

The potential risks in this study are minimal. There is a small possibility that reading the scenario and/or answering some of the questions could evoke some feelings of emotional discomfort. If this should occur, you are encouraged to contact the Ball State University Counseling Center at (765) 285-1736. Your name will not appear in any publication or presentation of this research. Data will be reported without any information linked to specific individuals.

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Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing the informed consent form and beginning the study, and at any time during the study.

For one's rights as a research participant, or for one's rights in research related injuries, the following person may be contacted: Melanie Morris, Coordinator for Research Compliance, Academic Research and Sponsored programs, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, 47306, (765) 285-5070.
****

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   Date

Principal Investigator: Faculty Supervisor:
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Statement of Consent – Second Data Collection Phase

Statement of Informed Consent
"Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence"

The purpose of this research project entitled "Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence" is to examine the implicit and explicit attitudes and attributions of responsibility that individuals have for victims of domestic violence. To participate in this study, you will be asked to respond to a series of questions presented on a computer screen, assessing your attitudes related to a scenario depicting an instance of domestic violence. This study should last approximately 30 minutes.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. You will receive one hour of research participation class credit for your participation in this study. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this study.

The potential risks in this study are minimal. There is a small possibility that reading the scenario and/or answering some of the questions could evoke some feelings of emotional discomfort. If this should occur, you are encouraged to contact the Ball State University Counseling Center at (765) 285-1736. Your name will not appear in any publication or presentation of this research. Data will be reported without any information linked to specific individuals.

One benefit you may gain from your participation in this study may be a better understanding of your own attitudes toward domestic violence. In addition, this study may help researchers identify new things to consider when working with victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing the informed consent form and beginning the study, and at any time during the study.

For one's rights as a research participant, or for one's rights in research related injuries, the following person may be contacted: Melanie Morris, Coordinator for Research Compliance, Academic Research and Sponsored programs, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, 47306, (765) 285-5070.
****

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   Date

Principal Investigator: Faculty Supervisor:
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Statement of Consent – UNC Charlotte

Statement of Informed Consent
"Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence"

The purpose of this research project entitled "Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence" is to examine the implicit and explicit attitudes and attributions of responsibility that individuals have for victims of domestic violence. To participate in this study, you will be asked to respond to a series of questions presented on a computer screen, assessing your attitudes related to a scenario depicting an instance of domestic violence. This study should last approximately 30 minutes.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. You will receive one hour of research participation class credit for your participation in this study. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this study.

The potential risks in this study are minimal. There is a small possibility that reading the scenario and/or answering some of the questions could evoke some feelings of emotional discomfort. If this should occur, you are encouraged to contact the University of North Carolina at Charlotte Counseling Center at (704) 687-2105. Your name will not appear in any publication or presentation of this research. Data will be reported without any information linked to specific individuals.

One benefit you may gain from your participation in this study may be a better understanding of your own attitudes toward domestic violence. In addition, this study may help researchers identify new things to consider when working with victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing the informed consent form and beginning the study, and at any time during the study.

For one's rights as a research participant, or for one's rights in research related injuries, the following person may be contacted: Dixie Airey, Compliance Manager, UNC Charlotte Office of Research Services, 9201 University City Blvd. 311 Cameron Applied Research Center, Charlotte, NC 28223, (704) 687-3311. Also, you may contact the following person if you need further assistance. Melanie Morris, Coordinator for Research Compliance, Academic Research and Sponsored programs, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, 47306, (765) 285-5070.
****

_____   _____
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Statement of Consent – Green Mountain College

Statement of Informed Consent
"Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence"
The purpose of this research project entitled "Attitudes Toward and Attributions of Responsibility for Domestic Violence" is to examine the implicit and explicit attitudes and attributions of responsibility that individuals have for victims of domestic violence. To participate in this study, you will be asked to respond to a series of questions presented on a computer screen, assessing your attitudes related to a scenario depicting an instance of domestic violence. This study should last approximately 30 minutes.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. You will receive five extra credit points in one Psychology course for your participation in this study. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this study.

The potential risks in this study are minimal. There is a small possibility that reading the scenario and/or answering some of the questions could evoke some feelings of emotional discomfort. If this should occur, you are encouraged to contact The Wellness Center at Green Mountain College at (802) 287-8376. Your name will not appear in any publication or presentation of this research. Data will be reported without any information linked to specific individuals.

One benefit you may gain from your participation in this study may be a better understanding of your own attitudes toward domestic violence. In addition, this study may help researchers identify new things to consider when working with victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason without penalty or prejudice from the investigator. Please feel free to ask any questions of the investigator before signing the informed consent form and beginning the study, and at any time during the study.

For one's rights as a research participant or for one's rights in research related injuries, the following person may be contacted: Tom Stuessy, Compliance Manager, Green Mountain College, One College Circle, Poultney, VT, 05764, 802-287-8323. Also, you may contact the following person if you need further assistance. Melanie Morris, Coordinator for Research Compliance, Academic Research and Sponsored programs, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, 47306, (765) 285-5070.
****

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Appendix B: Demographic Questions

1. What is your gender?

   Please type 1 for male, 2 for female, or 3 if you would prefer to not answer this question. Press enter once you have made your response.

2. What is your ethnicity?

   Please type 1 for African- American, 2 for Asian-American, 3 for Caucasian, 4 for Hispanic, 5 for Native American, 6 for other, or 7 if your would prefer to not answer this question.

3. What is your education level?

   Please type 1 for freshman, 2 for sophomore, 3 for junior, or 4 for senior. Press enter once you have made your response.

4. What is your age?

5. Which hand is your dominant hand?

   Please press 1 for left or 2 for right.

6. Do you play video games on a regular basis?

   Please type 1 for yes or 2 for no.

7. Have you ever personally encountered domestic violence in the past?

   Please type 1 for yes, 2 for no, or 3 if you would prefer to not answer this

   question. Press enter once you have made your response.

8. Have you ever participated in an experiment that asked you to complete the

   categorization tasks you were asked to complete in this study?

   Please press 1 for yes or 2 for no.

Question 8 is asked at the conclusion of the IAT program

Appendix C: Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating

Instructions
For the next several questions, please indicate your level of agreement with each statement by selecting the number on the rating scale that best matches your opinion about the statement.

Please use the following rating scale when answering these questions.
1=Strongly Agree
2=Agree
3=Moderately Agree
4=Neutral
5=Moderately Disagree
6=Disagree
7=Strongly Disagree

To indicate your response, type the number that corresponds to your rating using the appropriate number key. You may change your answer by pressing a different number. Press the enter key to record your response and continue to the next page.

1. Social agencies should do more to help battered women.
<div style="text-align:center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

2. There is no excuse for a man beating his wife.
<div style="text-align:center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

3. Wives try to get beaten by their husbands in order to get sympathy from others.
<div style="text-align:center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

4. A woman who constantly refuses to have sex with her husband is asking to be beaten.
<div style="text-align:center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

5. Wives could avoid being battered by their husbands if they knew when to stop talking.
<div style="text-align:center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

6. Episodes of a man beating his wife are the wife's fault.
<div style="text-align:center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

7. Even when women lie to their husbands they do not deserve to get a beating.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

8. Women should be protected by law if their husbands beat them.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

9. Wife-beating should be given a high priority as a social problem by government agencies.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

10. Sometimes it is OK for a man to beat his wife.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

11. Women feel pain and no pleasure when beat-up by their husbands.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

12. A sexually unfaithful wife deserves to be beaten.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

13. Causes of wife-beating are the fault of the husband.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

14. Battered wives try to get their partners to beat them as a way to get attention from them.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

15. Husbands who batter should be responsible for the abuse because they should have foreseen that it would happen.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

16. If I heard a woman being attacked by her husband, it would be best that I do nothing.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

17. Battered wives are responsible for their abuse because they intended it to happen.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

18. If a wife is beaten by her husband, she should divorce him immediately.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

19. Husbands who batter are responsible for the abuse because they intended to do it.

$$1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7$$

20. The best way to deal with wife-beating is to arrest the husband.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

21. Even when a wife's behavior challenges her husband's manhood, he's not justified in beating her.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

**For question 22, please indicate your level of agreement with the statement by selecting the number on the rating scale that best matches your opinion about the statement.
Please use the following rating scale when answering these questions.
1=0 Days
2=1 Month
3=1 Year
4=3 Years
5=5 Years
6=10 Years
7=Don't Know
To indicate your response, type the number that corresponds to your rating using the appropriate number key. You may change your answer by pressing a different number. Press the return key to record your response and continue to the next page.

22. How long should a man who has beaten his wife spend in prison or jail? (Circle one):

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

23. When a wife is beaten, it is caused by her behavior in the weeks before the battering.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

24. A wife should move out of the house, if her husband beats her.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

25. Wives who are battered are responsible for the abuse, because they should have foreseen it would happen.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

26. A husband has no right to beat this wife even if she breaks agreements she has made with him.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

27. Occasional violence by a husband toward his wife can help maintain the marriage.

                  1   2   3   4   5   6   7

28. A wife doesn't deserve a beating even if she keeps reminding her husband of his weak points.

                  1   2   3   4   5   6   7

29. Most wives secretly desire to be beaten by their husbands.

                  1   2   3   4   5   6   7

30. If I heard a woman being attacked by her husband, I would call the police.

                  1   2   3   4   5   6   7

31. It would do some wives some good to be beaten by their husbands.

                  1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Scales: WJ: 2,4,5,6,7,10,12,21,26,27,28,31; WG: 3,11,14,17,23,25,29; HG: 1,8,9,16,30; OP: 18,19,20,22; OR: 13,15,19,20

Appendix D: Domestic Violence Scenario

John and Cindy are college students who have been married for two years. Both John and Cindy have been experiencing a high amount of stress recently. Cindy has been having some health problems lately and has been to several doctors appointments in the last few days.

John was recently fired from his evening job. Instead of being at work at night, he now sits at home alone because Cindy is used to going out with some of her friends while John is at work. John tends to get jealous of her friends. He is particularly jealous of one of her male friends who John thinks has a crush on Cindy.

One Thursday evening, John decided to go out to a bar with a friend while Cindy was out at a bar with her friends. They both drank four beers that night. While out at the bar, John saw Cindy with her arm around another man. John immediately left the bar.

When Cindy returned home, John immediately started to question her actions. She promised him she wasn't cheating on him. John continued to argue with her about the incident. Cindy decided she wanted to discuss a few things with him too. Cindy started to ask John questions about why he was "always sitting at home and being lazy" since he lost his job. He told her to leave him alone but Cindy kept pressing him for information.

The argument quickly escalated and the couple began screaming at one another. John told her he was tired of being nagged and started to leave. Cindy grabbed his arm to try to keep him from leaving. John then drew his arm back and slapped Cindy very hard across the face. John left and returned several hours later to find Cindy had a large bruise on her face.

Press the spacebar to proceed with the next phase of the study.

Appendix E: Explicit Attribution of Responsibility Scale

For the next several questions, please consider the scenario you read involving John and Cindy. Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement by selecting the number on the rating scale that best matches your opinion about the statement.

Please use the following rating scale when answering these questions.
1=Strongly Agree
2=Agree
3=Moderately Agree
4=Neutral
5=Moderately Disagree
6=Disagree
7=Strongly Disagree

To indicate your response, type the number that corresponds to your rating using the appropriate number key. You may change your answer by pressing a different number. Press the enter key to record your response and continue to the next page.

1. I could be in the victim's shoes.

                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

2. I can identify with the victim.

                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

3. My beliefs and values are similar to the victim.

                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

4. = "This crime could happen to you.

                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

5. The victim is intelligent.

                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

6. She would fit in with my friends.

                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

7. The victim behaved intelligently.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

8. My opinion of her is positive.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

9. The crime happened by chance.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

10. The victim is respectable.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

11. The victim could have fought him off.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

12. The victim is likable.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

13. The victim did her best to resist.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

14. The victim is a kind person.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

15. The victim needs psychological help.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

16. I feel there was psychological injury to the victim.

<div align="center">1   2   3   4   5   6   7</div>

17. The psychological injury will last long.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

18. I feel the crime was severe.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

19. I feel public agencies could help the victim.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

20. I pity the victim.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

21. I sympathize with her.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

22. She should have behaved differently.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

23. The crime was due to her actions.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

24. The victim is to blame.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

25. The victim could have foreseen the crime.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

26. The crime was due to a character flaw in the victim.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

27. The victim is physically attractive.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

28. The victim is personally attractive.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

29. The assailant's character was flawed.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

30. The assailant should go to prison.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

31. He should be arrested.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

32. She should hire an attorney.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

33. She can overcome psychological injury.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

34. The physical harm was severe.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

35. The victim should call the police.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

36. The abuse was a ploy for sympathy.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

37. The victim gets pleasure from abuse.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

38. The victim deserved the abuse.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

39. The victim should seek revenge.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

40. The abuse was unjust.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

41. The victim is angry.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

42. She is upset.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

43. She is afraid.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

44. She is sad.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

45. She could have avoided the violence.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

46. She could have done something otherwise.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

47. Screaming would have helped.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

48. Begging would have helped.

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7

49. The assailant is to blame.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

50. The perpetrator should be excused for his behavior.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

51. I am threatened by this crime.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

52. The victim exaggerated.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

53. The victim should be counseled.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

54. The victim needs a support group.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

55. The perpetrator could have changed his behavior.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Appendix F: Debriefing Information

Thank you for your participation in this study! Your responses are very valuable and will contribute to a greater understanding about attitudes and attributions of responsibility in instances of domestic violence. You will find factual information on domestic violence as well as a list of community resources for those who have encountered domestic violence attached to this sheet. Again, I greatly appreciate your participation in this study.

The information you have provided will be used for my doctoral dissertation. If you would like to learn more about this study or have other questions, please feel free to contact me at zvjackson@bsu.edu. Thanks again!

Sincerely,

Z. Vance Jackson

<u>Domestic Violence Facts and Resources</u>

Berry (2002, p.1) defines domestic violence as "any behavior that is intended to control and subjugate another human being through the use of fear, humiliation, and verbal or physical assaults. It is the systematic persecution of one partner by another." (Berry, 2002, p.1)   Domestic violence is a serious problem that occurs every 15 seconds in this country (Mills, 1998). Roberts and Burman (1998) reported that every year approximately 9 million people of all classes, races and sexes in the United States are victims of domestic violence. Victims of domestic violence often encounter a variety of problems including, but not limited to, intrapersonal problems, physical distress, depression, fear, anger, and even death (Mills, 1998). Given that domestic violence is so prevalent in our society, here is some information about domestic violence and some resources that may prove useful if you or someone else you know ever come in contact with domestic violence.

What Is Domestic Violence

Domestic Violence can occur in many forms. The most common forms are:

- physical abuse (domestic violence)
- verbal or nonverbal abuse (psychological abuse, mental abuse, emotional abuse)
- sexual abuse
- stalking or cyberstalking

What are the causes of domestic abuse or domestic violence?

There are many causes of domestic violence. It is important to note that men and women can be both a victim or a perpetrator of domestic violence. However, the majority of victims are women and the majority of perpetrators are men. One of the strongest predictors of domestic violence is domestic violence in the household in which the person grew up. Individuals living with domestic violence in their households have learned that violence and mistreatment are the way to vent anger. Other strong predictors of perpetrating domestic violence include having have solved their problems in the past with violence, they have effectively exerted control and power over others through violence, and no one has stopped them from being violent in the past.

Some immediate causes that can set off a bout of domestic abuse are:

- stress
- feeling provoked by their partner
- economic struggles
- different emotions like depression, desperation, jealousy, and anger

What to do if you have encountered domestic violence:

1. **Call the police.**

If you are in immediate physical danger, call 911. Many police agencies are now trained to deal with domestic violence situations. Many cities even have volunteer liaisons for victims of domestic violence and rape. Inquire about getting a restraining order.

2. **Talk to someone you trust.**

Tell a close friend or family member what is going on in your relationship. You can ask this person to help you make a safety plan or help you find services.

3. **Talk to a counselor.**

There are numerous ways counselors can help you or someone else cope with this painful. Some of the ways are through

- individual counseling
- group counseling
- community outreach programs

4. **Make a Safety Plan.**

• Find a place you can go to if you need to leave quickly—a friend's house, family member, hotel or domestic violence shelter.
• Consider how one will leave or escape if necessary
• Stash away some emergency money
• Have an emergency bag prepacked in case you need to leave
• Arrange with a friend to have an "emergency phrase" that your partner will not recognize. For example, set in up in advance that if you ask, "How's your dog," that your friend will know to call the police.

All information extracted from the following websites
http://www.helpguide.org/mental/domestic_violence_abuse_help_treatment_prevention.htm

http://lesbianlife.about.com/od/lesbianhealth/a/DVVictim.htm

For more information on domestic violence:

http://www.abanet.org/domviol/stats.html
http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/factsheets/ipvfacts.htm

<u>Domestic Violence Resources in the Ball State University Area</u>

Emergency

Muncie Police Department	911 or 747-4838
BSU Campus Police	765-285-1111
Delaware Count Sheriff's Office	911 or 747-7748

Hotlines & Help Lines

A Better Way	288-4357
Community and Crisis Center	288-4357
National Domestic Violence Hotline	1-800-799-7233

Legal Services

Delaware County Victim Advocate	747-4777
Ball State Student Legal Services	285-1888

Hospitals/Clinics

BSU Student Health Center	285-8431
BSU Women's Health Center	285-5451
Ball Memorial Hospital	747-3111

Counseling Services

Ball State University Counseling and Psychological Services	285-1736
BSU Practicum Clinic	285-8047
Meridian Services	288-1928

<u>Domestic Violence Resources in the University of North Carolina at Charlotte Area</u>

Emergency

Charlotte Police Department	911 or 704-432-3801
UNC Charlotte Campus Police	704-687-2200
Mecklenburg County Sheriff's Office	911 or 704-336-8100

Hotlines & Help Lines

North Carolina Coalition Against Domestic Violence Crisis Line	704-332-2513
National Domestic Violence Hotline	1-800-799-7233
Division of Social Services	704-336-2273

Legal Services

United Family Services Domestic Violence Court Advocate	704-336-4126
Legal Aid of North Carolina for Concord	704-786-4145

Hospitals/Clinics

UNCC Student Health Services	704-687-4617
Carolinas Medical Center-University	704-863-6000

Counseling Services

University of North Carolina at Charlotte Counseling Center	704-687-2176
Donna Davis, LMFT	704-333-3341
Support Works www.supportworks.org	704-377-2055

<u>Domestic Violence Resources in the Green Mountain College Area</u>

Emergency

Fair Haven Police Department	911 or 802-265-4531
Green Mountain College Campus Police	802-287-8911
Rutland County Sheriff's Office	911 or 802-786-0033

Hotlines & Help Lines

Vermont Network Against Domestic and Sexual Violence	802-223-1302
National Domestic Violence Hotline	1-800-799-7233

Legal Services

Rutland United Neighborhoods Community Justice Center	802-770-5364
Vermont Legal Aid	1-800-889-2047

Hospitals/Clinics

Rutland Regional Medical Center	802-775-7111
Dartmouth-Hitchcock Medical Center	603-650-5000

Counseling Services

Wellness Center at Green Mountain College	802-287-8376
Rutland Mental Health Services	802-775-4388
Rutland County Women's Network and Shelter	802-775-6788