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The Correlation Between Feminist Identity Development and Psychological Maltreatment in Intimate Relationships Among College Students

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THE CORRELATION BETWEEN FEMINIST IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT AND
PSYCHOLOGICAL MALTREATMENT IN INTIMATE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG
COLLEGE STUDENTS

A Thesis

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

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Intimate partner violence (IPV), a pattern of physical, sexual, and/or emotional violence by an intimate partner in the context of coercive control, has become a considerable problem for young adults in college. In fact, an estimated one in three students encounters the physical or psychological side effects of IPV. Although IPV is prevalent in college, research on psychological violence is limited, as it is more difficult to measure than the other forms of IPV. However, previous research and theories have raised questions about the connection between psychological maltreatment and feminist identity development.

Female college students are a subpopulation of concern in incidents of psychological maltreatment between intimate partners. Women strongly identify with their relationships more so than their male counterparts. Other scholars have theorized that contemporary women must recognize, struggle with, and work through their feelings about sexual discrimination in order to achieve positive feminist identities. In other words, research and theory suggest that female identity is, in part, a product of a woman's interaction with men. For heterosexual female targets of IPV, their feminist identity development is then likely related to the psychological maltreatment they experience in their relationships with men.

Therefore, the following research question was posed: Does a correlation exist between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students? A correlational study utilized the *Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS)*, the *Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI)*, and a researcher-designed background demographic form (BDF) to determine if a correlation exists between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment.

The data for this study was collected from a sample of 171 heterosexual female college students between the ages of 18 and 24 at a mid-sized, public institution in the mid-Atlantic region. The resulting data analysis showed that several significant relationships exist between the two constructs of interest. Implications for theory, future research, and practice are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Many men and women enter the dating scene in college. Some experiment with casual relationships, while others make serious commitments in hopes of finding a lifelong partner. Even though ideal relationships are healthy, respectful, and trusting (Chickering & Reisser, 1993), some students end up in less than ideal relationships. In 2008, 74% of all dating relationships in college involved some form of intimate partner violence (Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite, & Pasley, 2008). As defined by Ford-Gilboe, Wuest, Varcoe, Davies, Merritt-Gray, Campbell, and Wilk (2009), intimate partner violence (IPV) is “a pattern of physical, sexual, and/or emotional violence by an intimate partner in the context of coercive control” (p. 1021).

IPV has become a considerable health problem worldwide (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2009). In fact, Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite, and Pasley (2008) found that it is responsible for an estimated two million injuries and 1,500 deaths each year. IPV is not only associated with physical injury; it also compromises its victims’ psychological well-being (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2009). The physical and psychological effects of IPV have become a considerable problem for young adults in college. An estimated one in three students encounters these physical or psychological side effects as either a perpetrator or target of IPV (Fass, Benson, & Leggett, 2008).

Hodgson and Fischer (1979) reported that both casual and serious college relationships affect men and women differently. They found that among women, more so than men, there is a connection between identity and intimate relationships. Josselson (as cited in Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998) even proposed that intimate relationships can provide women with a better sense of their individual identities.

This study was designed to determine if a correlation exists between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. Contained within this and the following chapters are the problem statement, the research question, the significance of the study, a literature review, and the methodology used to examine the research question.

Statement of the Problem

Psychological violence, often used interchangeably with emotional violence, has become a subject of concern in abusive relationships (Straight, 2003). It leaves no physical evidence, so is harder to detect than physical violence. There are also many forms of psychological violence, which can be grouped in six different categories: pathological jealousy, implicit threats of violence, explicit threats of violence, controlling behavior, isolating behavior, and mental degradation (Sonkin, Martin, & Walker, 1985).

All six categories of psychological violence are damaging to victims. In fact, Herbert, Silver, and Ellard (1991) found that psychological violence may be as detrimental to health as physical violence. It is not only strongly linked to post-traumatic stress disorder (Vitanza, Vogel, & Marshall, 1995), but also to greater frequencies of chronic illness, cognitive impairment, physical and role limitations, decrements in functional health, and drug abuse (Marshall, 1996). Psychological violence is even associated with an increased use of psychotropic medications (Arias, Street, & Brody, 1996), and often exists in the presence of physical violence for both men and women (Stets, 1990; Straight, 2003).

Gender identity development, as defined by McEwen (2003), is “how one views oneself in relation to one’s own gender group, that is, as a woman or a man, and how

these views evolve and become more complex over time” (p. 218). Downing and Roush (1985) based their widely acclaimed feminist identity development model on the premise that contemporary women must recognize, struggle with, and work through their feelings about the sexual discrimination they experience in order to achieve positive feminist identity. Therefore, this psychological model suggests that female identity is, in part, a product of a woman’s interaction with men. For heterosexual female targets of IPV, their feminist identity development is then likely related to the psychological maltreatment they experience in their relationships with men.

Multiple researchers have found a connection between female identity and intimate relationships. As Tolman (1989) stated, “It is important to understand the interlocking nature of various abusive behaviors in relationships, the function and consequences of those behaviors, and the methods for effectively eliminating those behaviors” (p. 160). Hodgson and Fischer (1979) reported that women strongly identify with their relationships more so than their male counterparts. Chickering and Reisser (1993) theorized that the interplay between various aspects of identity, such as autonomy and interdependence, and intimate relationships is complex. Straub (1987) further analyzed the relationship between female identity and relationships and found that many women may need to establish autonomy in their relationships before they are able to establish autonomy in their own right. The research and theories of Downing and Roush (1985), Hodgson and Fischer (1979), Chickering and Reisser (1993), and Straub (1987) raise questions about the relationship between the nature of relationships and identity as women.

Research Question

This research focused on heterosexual female college students and their feminist identity as it relates to psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships. The purpose of this study was to answer the question: “Is there a relationship between psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships and feminist identity development among heterosexual college women?”

Significance of the Study

Two goals of college are to enhance identity development and to help students form and manage healthy and mature relationships. Understanding the relationship between these two constructs (in the context of this study) can be mutually reinforcing. The nature of predictive studies is that if they suggest a correlation (or the degree to which they suggest a predictive relationship) can help practitioners find cues in one construct that may alert them to the necessity of an intervention in the other. Therefore, determining if a relationship exists between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students can be beneficial for the student affairs profession.

Ford-Gilboe et al. (2009) found that provision of personal, social, and economic resources serve as interventions for women in abusive relationships. Social support, provided by student affairs professionals in institutional settings, has been found to have a positive impact on women leaving their abusive partners (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2009). It has been found to improve general health status and to reduce physical and psychological distress (Coker, Watkins, Smith, & Brandt, 2003; Humphreys, Lee, Neylan, & Marmer, 2001). Also, Downing and Roush (1985) explicitly stated that those who understand

feminine identity theory can better plan interventions for abused women to enhance their identity development. Therefore, understanding if a relationship exists between the two constructs in this study may better equip these professionals in providing developmentally appropriate services for female targets as well as potential targets of IPV.

This research study is important for all student affairs professionals, faculty, administrators, and parents who are invested in student success in higher education. All members of an institution's community are responsible for providing social or economic resources for college women so that they can lead healthy and productive lives. If abused women are better equipped with these resources, they will experience less psychological stress (Mitchell & Hodson, 1983), be at lower risk of depression and suicidal behavior (Kaslow, Thompson, Meadows, Jacobs, Chance, Gibb, Bornstein, Hollins, Rashid, & Phillips, 1998), and have a better chance at escaping abusive incidents.

Conclusion

IPV is a concern for the college population, particularly heterosexual college women. Given the effects of psychological maltreatment on these women and the impact relationships have on their identity development, one could question if a correlation exists between these two constructs. This chapter has established a problem statement and a research question that warrant further investigation. The following chapter will provide a review of relevant literature regarding perspectives on relationship violence, identity and relationship development, and existing research on gender identity and violent relationships.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many scholars and researchers have turned their attention to the phenomenon of intimate partner violence (IPV). This makes sense, given how prevalent and detrimental it has become. These realities are even more significant for heterosexual female college students, as they tend to be vulnerable and at risk of becoming victims of IPV (Gwartney-Gibbs, Stockard, & Bohmer, 1987; Próspero & Vohra-Gupta, 2007). As noted in the previous chapter, understanding if a correlation exists between psychological maltreatment, a type of IPV, and feminist identity would be beneficial for this population.

This chapter details the two main topics of this study: feminist identity development and IPV. The chapter begins with multiple perspectives of IPV. A discussion then follows on identity development (with focus on feminist identity development) and the development of mature interpersonal relationships (with focus on the impact of IPV on those relationships). The chapter concludes with a discussion of the current research on gender identity and violent relationships.

Historical and Current Perspectives of Intimate Partner Violence

IPV is hardly a new phenomenon in the U.S. Although IPV's presence has remained relatively constant, society's perspectives on it have changed dramatically. The following sections delineate the historical and current perspectives of IPV.

Historical Perspectives

IPV has not always been a topic of concern in society. Some have argued that it was once a cultural norm in heterosexual relationships (Straus, 1976). IPV was something so prevalent that a marriage license was considered a "hitting license norm"

(Straus, 1976, p. 57). Plays, newspapers, and other forms of popular culture all reflected the norm of IPV in everyday life.

The legal system also provides evidence that IPV was once a cultural norm (Straus, 1976). It used to be very difficult for abused women to gain support from police. Men were rarely arrested for incidents of domestic violence, unless they did not abide by the widely accepted “stitch rules” (p. 548), which only encouraged an arrest if a woman’s wound required a certain number of stitches. This legitimization of IPV could also be found in the 1965 training manual for the International Association of Police Chiefs, which recommended that arrests not be made in domestic violence cases.

Even the U.S. courts legitimized spousal violence (Straus, 1976). Through the 1970s, the “spousal immunity” (p. 547) doctrine prevented women from suing their husbands for battery and assault. Even when suit was eventually permitted, only about one sixth of all domestic violence arrests ended at trial or with a guilty plea and most were charged as misdemeanors instead of felonies. The “Rule of Thumb” (p. 21) phenomenon also legitimized IPV in the early U.S. courts (Wright, 2009). The “Rule of Thumb” refers to the courts’ tendency to follow a British common law that allowed a man to discipline his wife in moderation, so as long as he used a stick or rod no thicker than his thumb. The “Rule of Thumb” led both men and women to believe that male dominance (and violence) was acceptable, and so contributed to the ubiquitous use of this phrase as the “way things were done.”

It has also been brought to question if religion has contributed to incidents of IPV. Ellison, Bartkowski, and Anderson (1999) argued that Conservative Protestant affiliations may be linked to a higher risk of domestic violence committed by men.

Traditionally, Conservative Protestant beliefs discourage female involvement in the work force, encourage women to work at home and care for children, emphasize the notions of masculinity and femininity, and promote male authority within the household. In fact, Fundamentalists were found to be most sexist among Presbyterians, Methodists, Catholics, Lutherans, Jews, and Episcopalians (Hertel & Hughes, 1987). Conservative Protestants also believe that humans are inherently sinful, and that corporal punishment may sometimes be necessary (Ellison, Bartkowski, & Anderson, 1999). Similarly, Wendt (2008) found that many Christian men and women, including a broad range of Christian affiliations, use their Christian beliefs as a means to excuse domestic abuse. Some Christian women have difficulty leaving their abusive partners, as ending marriage is believed to be a sin in God's eyes. Christian men, on the other hand, sometimes blame their female partners for the difficulties in their relationships and the abuse that they inflict upon them. Consequently, some question if religious beliefs lead to incidents of violence between partners (Ellison, Bartkowski, & Anderson, 1999).

Current Perspectives

Over the past 40 years, research on IPV has proliferated. It is now widely understood that many forms of IPV exist – and are unacceptable – in relationships between adults and children, among children, and between intimate partners (Fitzpatrick, 2006). The U.S. courts no longer permit a man to discipline his wife, but in fact have implemented different forms of legislation to prevent and control such violence. IPV has become the focus of lobbying and advocacy efforts at all levels of government, federal and state legislation, U.S. Supreme Court cases and state court cases, and public education campaigns (Fagan & Maxwell, 2006). For example, the Violence Against

Women Act (VAWA), first passed in 1994, made federal crimes of domestic violence and sexual assault (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2009a). VAWA also provided more funding for agencies that provided resources for victims of IPV. Re-authorized in 2000 and again in 2006, dating violence and stalking were added as crimes covered by VAWA and more funding was provided for violence prevention programs, rape crisis centers, and programs for children, teens, and victims with disabilities. Today, IPV has accrued political, legal, and intellectual capital that challenges the social and cultural norm that violence is acceptable in relationships.

Although the nation has advanced in addressing IPV, some critics believe that the legal system's treatment of IPV remains inadequate because many myths about IPV still exist (Wright, 2009). Among the critics, prosecutors, police, defense council, legal scholars, psychologists, custody mediators, advocacy groups, and IPV victims met at the Thomas Jefferson School of Law in 2009 for the Ninth Annual Women and the Law Conference and Ruth Bader Ginsburg Lecture. At the conference, attendees discussed IPV and some commonplace myths, hoping to dispel the myths and gain a better understanding of those involved in incidents of IPV. Some of the myths that were discussed include the beliefs that IPV is a result of failed relationships that victims must enjoy or otherwise they would escape, that victims must provoke their abuser's rage, and that educated, professional, or wealthy adults are rarely abused. The conclusion of the conference was that IPV has yet to be completely understood.

Definition, Types, and Relevant Statistics

Now that a historical framework for IPV has been set, its widely accepted definition will be discussed. The following sections also describe the three different forms of IPV and their relevant statistics.

Definition

The definition of IPV is relatively universal. Although some use different terminology, such as relationship violence, most definitions of IPV are fundamentally the same. Ford-Gilboe et al. (2009) defined IPV as “a pattern of physical, sexual, and/or emotional violence by an intimate partner in the context of coercive control” (p. 1021). Similarly, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2006) defined IPV as “abuse that occurs between two people in a close relationship” (p. 1). The CDC (2006) also defined “intimate partner” as including both current and former dating partners or spouses. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2009b) defined relationship violence as physical, sexual and/or emotional violence by an intimate partner, but in terms that are more descriptive. It described relationship violence as involving time monitoring, accusations of unfaithfulness, removal from friends and family, criticism, anger, humiliation, property destruction, threats, physical violence, blame, or sexual violence.

Types of Intimate Partner Violence

There are three main forms of IPV: physical violence, sexual violence, and nonphysical violence. Physical violence, as defined by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2006), is when a person hurts or attempts to hurt his or her partner by kicking, burning, hitting, or using some other physical force. Also physical in

nature, sexual violence involves a type of sexual activity without consent, including vaginal, anal, and oral penetration, as well as inappropriate touching (The National Women's Health Information Center, 2009c). As long as an individual is being forced to join in unwanted sexual contact or attention, sexual violence can also be in verbal or visual forms, such as sexual harassment, exhibitionism, voyeurism, and incest.

Unlike physical violence, nonphysical violence leaves no apparent evidence and is harder to detect. The two forms of nonphysical violence, emotional violence and psychological violence, are often used synonymously within the literature (Loue, 2005). The National Women's Health Information Center (2009d) defined emotional violence as attempts to intimidate, isolate, or threaten. Some examples include name-calling, blame, manipulation, yelling, criticism, ordering around, threats to harm, and isolation from friends and family. Emotional violence is often a sign that physical violence will follow (The National Women's Health Information Center, 2009d).

Sonkin, Martin, and Walker (1985) defined psychological violence in six forms: extreme controlling behavior, pathological jealousy, isolation, mental degradation, implicit threats of violence, and explicit threats of violence. This form of IPV can also involve withholding of affection, public humiliation, deprivation of financial support, occasional indulgences, and monopolization of perception (NiCarthy, 1986; Pipes & LeBov-Keeler, 1997; Russell, 1982). Psychological violence is also often a sign that physical violence will follow.

It evident that emotional violence and psychological violence are defined similarly in the literature and are sometimes used interchangeably. However, because Tolman's (1995) Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI) was used in

this study, his definition of psychological maltreatment was used. Tolman (1995) defined psychological maltreatment as a form of violence involving dominance and isolation (demands for subservience, isolation from resources, and rigid observances of traditional sex roles) as well as emotional and verbal attacks (withholding emotional resources, attempts to demean the partner).

Current Statistics on Intimate Partner Violence

Fincham, Cui, Brathwaite, and Pasley (2008) reported that IPV is responsible for an estimated two million injuries and 1,500 deaths in the U.S. each year. IPV is also linked with nearly eight million physical assaults and rapes, increases in homelessness, 4.1 billion dollars in medical expenses, 727.8 million dollars in decreased productivity, 67 billion dollars in law enforcement costs, and increases in emotional and psychological trauma in the U.S. each year (Wright, 2009). In terms of physical violence alone, women experience approximately 8.4 million IPV-related physical assaults and rapes annually (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Men, on the other hand, are victims of about 2.9 million IPV-related physical assaults each year.

Sexual violence is prominent in the United States. The U.S. Department of Justice estimates that approximately one in six women have been raped at least once (Office for the Prevention of Domestic Violence, 2010). It also estimates that every year more than 300,000 women and about 93,000 men are victims of rape. Although these estimations are not limited to intimate relationships, it has been found that adult women are at greatest risk of sexual violence by their intimate partners. Men, on the other hand, are more at risk of sexual violence by their acquaintances. More often than not, sexual assault is connected to IPV (Office for the Prevention of Domestic Violence, 2010).

About two-thirds of women who have been victims of physical violence by their intimate partners have also been sexually abused by their partners. These women are at greater risk for substance abuse, unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted diseases, and suicide.

Psychological violence is also commonplace in society. However, research on its prevalence is limited, as it is more difficult to measure than the other forms of IPV. Stets (1990) found that 99% of abused women experience psychological violence to some degree. Murty, Peek-Asa, Zwerling, Stromquist, Burmeister, and Merchant (2003) found in their study of co-habiting couples in rural Iowa that 30.2% of men and 46.7% of women experienced psychological violence by their partners, and that women reported more controlling psychological violence from men. It is evident that psychological violence is a concern in incidents of IPV and so necessitates further research.

Establishing Identity

Having reviewed the perspectives, definitions, and statistics on IPV, identity development will now be examined. This will include a discussion of identity development as a part of psychosocial development, feminist identity, and various measurements of feminist identity.

Identity and Psychosocial Development

Theorists (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Cross, 1971; Erikson, 1959; Heath, 1968, 1978; Marcia, 1965, 1966) have developed prominent psychosocial theories that are used widely in the field of student affairs. These theories view development as a series of stages or tasks, including qualitative changes in valuing, thinking, feeling, behaving, and relating to others and oneself (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). They examine the important

issues that people face, such as their purpose, the relationships they form with others, and how to define themselves (Evans, Forney & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Specific attention will be paid to the theories of Erikson (1959) and Chickering and Reisser (1993), as they offer a broad overview of identity development and the implications for college students.

Life-span development. Psychosocial development is an area of student development theory that was derived primarily from the work of Erikson (Gardner, 2009). Erikson, trained by Freud's daughter Anna, expanded upon the work of Freud in developing his own approach to psychosocial development (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Unlike Freud, Erikson believed that the ego, also known as the self-image or identity, is an independent part of the personality, that culture, society, and history all impact personality, and that personality continuously develops in a series of eight stages throughout the life span.

As one of the first theorists to consider the adult life span, Erikson developed a psychosocial model that describes the life span in eight developmental stages or tasks (Gardner, 2009). Identity Cohesion versus Role Confusion, Erikson's fifth developmental stage, describes how individuals between the ages of 12 and 18 form a self-image. A self-image is the cohesion of ideas about who people desire to be and the perceptions of what other people think of them. To form a self-image, adolescents and young adults must explore various roles and images. They can experiment with their physical appearance, learn from other people who serve as mentors or role models, or use other techniques to determine who they are and who they will strive to be in the future.

At every stage in Erikson's (as cited in Schultz & Schultz, 1998) model, a person may develop a basic strength or basic weakness. Erikson defined basic strengths as those

motivating beliefs and characteristics that develop from the satisfactory resolution of each stage's turning point or crisis. Basic weaknesses, on the other hand, are motivating characteristics that develop from the unsatisfactory resolution of each stage's crisis.

During the Identity Cohesion versus Role Confusion stage, fidelity is the basic strength that will emerge upon the establishment of identity. Individuals who express fidelity are both genuine and sincere in their interactions with others. They are comfortable with who they are, and feel prepared and confident to enter adulthood. Those who do not establish identity will encounter the stage's basic weakness, role confusion, not knowing who they are or where they belong.

College student development. Chickering and Reisser are two of the most influential theorists in college student psychosocial development (Gardner, 2009). Their psychosocial model, described as the seven vectors of development, involves "major highways for journeying toward individuation – the discovery and refinement of one's unique way of being" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993, p. 35). The seven vectors are not necessarily sequential or stages, but they do build on each other. They focus on ethical, emotional, intellectual, and interpersonal development, including the establishment of identity. Establishing Identity, Chickering and Reisser's (1993) fifth vector, involves the development of a sense of self, individual stability and integration, and self-acceptance. Individuals who establish their identity are comfortable with their sexual orientation, gender, and appearance.

Establishing Identity can occur at any point in a person's life, but is most likely to originate during young adulthood (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). College life provides two means for discovering one's identity: a new group of people for comparison and a

supportive environment. In most college environments, it is expected that students will utilize their available resources to establish their identities. For example, by comparing themselves to others, college students tend to become more self-conscious of their sexual orientation, gender, and physical appearance. In effect, they explore their sexuality, gender identity, and appearance. However, experimentation tends to diminish by senior year, as students begin to have a better sense of themselves and are more comfortable with their identities.

Feminist Identity

Feminist identity is a woman's collective or social identity that involves adopting feminist attitudes and identifying as a feminist (Eisele & Stake, 2008). It is similar to Erikson's (1959) self-image and Chickering and Reisser's (1993) definition of identity, as it requires a strong sense of self and acceptance of, in this case, her gender. Helms (1990), Josselson (1987), and Downing and Roush (1985) developed theoretical models of womanist and feminist identity that are most commonly cited within the field of student development. Their models will be discussed in the sections to follow.

Helms's (1990) Womanist Identity Model. The Womanist Identity Model describes the experiences of how women move from a societal, external definition of womanhood, to a personal, internal definition of womanhood (Ossana, Helms, & Leonard, 1992). It is unlike other models of feminist identity in that healthy development involves forming a "flexible personal ideology" (p. 212) that may not be grounded in feminist beliefs (Boisnier, 2003). Instead, the womanist model emphasizes that to develop a positive identity, a woman must learn to value and accept herself as a woman (Ossana, Helms, & Leonard, 1992).

Helms's (1990) model consists of four developmental stages. The first stage, Pre-Encounter, describes women who conform to gender discrimination. They behave in ways that value men and devalue women. Encounter, the second stage, involves an experience that causes women to question their accepted values and beliefs. The Immersion-Emersion stage characterizes women who are searching for a positive definition of womanhood and who begin to reject the male dominant culture. Many women at this stage form close relationships with other women. The final stage, Internalization, includes women who have developed positive internal identities and who no longer accept the societal, external definitions of womanhood.

Josselson's (1987) Theory of Identity Development in Women. In an effort to find the roots of identity formation in women, Josselson (1987) interviewed 60 female college seniors. She later developed her theory of women's identity development from the four patterns that she encountered during the interviews. Foreclosure, the first pattern in her theory, characterizes women who commit to an identity that is adopted from their parents' beliefs. Women in Foreclosure form relationships with partners who satisfy their dependency needs, and provide the security and unconditional love that they once relied upon from their parents (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Identity Achievement, the second pattern in Josselson's (1987) theory, includes women who are not tied to their families and who form their own separate, distinct identities. They value a life of their own, feel competent, and are comfortable with who they are. Identity Achievement women are flexible with their identities, changing who they are according to the lessons they learn and the different experiences they have. In relationships, these women tend to

marry partners based on personal needs and less on what encompasses an “ideal” marriage.

The final two patterns of Josselson’s (1987) theory are Moratorium and Identity Diffusion. Moratorium is an unstable time of exploring and searching for a new identity. Moratorium occurs when women realize that there are many ways to be right, and that their identities do not need to be approved by their parents. Identity Diffusion is similar to what Erikson (1959) defined as role confusion. Women at this state have difficulty defining who they are, establishing relationships, and managing anxiety. They may be unable to make important choices in their lives, understand the meaning of life, or separate from their parents. Although all four patterns of Josselson’s (1987) theory are very different, they share a commonality. She found during her interviews that all women relied on their relationships as a means to define their identities. Since Helms’s (1990) and Josselson’s (1987) models do not specifically describe feminist identity development, Downing and Roush’s (1985) model will be utilized for the purposes of this study to describe, operationalize, and measure the participants’ feminist identities.

Downing and Roush’s (1985) Feminist Identity Development Model.

Downing and Roush (1985) argued that to achieve positive feminist identities, women must recognize and struggle through their feelings of gender prejudice and discrimination. From this premise, they developed the Feminist Identity Development Model (FIDM), which delineates the stages a woman moves through in establishing her feminist identity. The model consists of five developmental stages: Passive Acceptance, Revelation, Embeddedness-Emanation, Synthesis, and Active Commitment. Women may move through these stages in any order, stay within one stage, or return to earlier

stages. Progress is determined by a woman's readiness and the context of her life, including both environmental and interpersonal factors.

The first two stages of Downing and Roush's (1985) model describe the movement through ignorance, to recognition of prejudice and discrimination. Passive Acceptance describes the woman who is ignorant of the prejudices against her. She is either unaware of these instances or is in denial of their existence. A woman in this stage accepts the dominant White male system and the traditional sex-role stereotypes that accompany it. Revelation signifies a contradiction in a woman's previous belief system. A pattern of events or a significant event occurs that challenges her acceptance of the male dominated system. For example, after leaving an unhealthy relationship, a woman may realize for the first time that male dominance is unacceptable. The Revelation stage of Downing and Roush's (1985) model can be difficult for women to enter. After they recognize the prejudice they have experienced, they may feel anger or guilt for participating in their own discrimination. Although perceived to have a more positive feminist identity, women at the Revelation stage actually develop what is called a "pseudo-identity" (p. 700), turning against the male dominant culture instead of affirming their own feminist culture.

Embeddedness-Emanation, the third stage of Downing and Roush's (1985) model, can be broken down into two sub-stages. Women who reach this stage first embed themselves within the feminist culture. They visit women's centers and support groups, take women's studies classes, and develop close relationships with similar women to affirm and strengthen their new identities. However, this transition is usually very difficult for women, as most are deeply submersed within the dominant male culture

through work, marriage, and children. As Gurin (as cited in Downing & Roush, 1985) stated, “no other subordinate group [has] such an intimate relationship with the dominant group” (p. 701). Upon embedding themselves within the feminist culture, women may reach emanation. Emanation, as described by Downing and Roush (1985), occurs when women realize that their “pseudo-identities” (p. 700) are as rigid as the identities they assumed during Passive Acceptance.

Synthesis and Active Commitment are the final two stages of Downing and Roush’s (1985) model. Women in the Synthesis stage value the attributes of their gender and integrate them into their own positive and realistic identity. They no longer turn against the male dominant culture or use stereotypes to evaluate men, but they do recognize and respond to experiences of oppression. Few women actually reach Downing and Roush’s (1985) final stage of feminist identity development. Active Commitment involves a lifelong dedication to social change, striving to end the oppression of women.

Measurements of Feminist Identity

The Feminist Identity Scale (FIS), the Feminist Identity Composite (FIC), and the Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS) were developed to operationalize Downing and Roush’s (1985) model. All three measurements determine a woman’s current stage of feminist identity. Since the FIC was developed by Fisher, Tokar, Mergl, Good, Hill, and Blum (2000) as, essentially, a combination of the other two instruments, both the FIS and the FIDS will be described in the following sections. However, since the FIDS was used in this study, it will be described in greater detail.

Feminist Identity Scale (FIS). Rickard (1989) developed and revised the FIS, a 37-item Likert scale that assesses the affective and cognitive attitudes that women have about themselves as feminists (Moradi & Subich, 2002a). Active Commitment, the final stage of Downing and Roush's (1985) model, is not assessed by the revised FIS. Rickard (1989) eliminated this stage once he realized that Active Commitment is simply a behavioral form of Synthesis, the precursor to Active Commitment.

Little evidence of convergent or discriminant validity can be found for the revised FIS (Moradi & Subich, 2002a). Also, internal consistency reliability has been determined to be problematic. The estimates are lowest for Passive Acceptance (.54 to .69) and highest for Revelation (.78 to .85) (Fisher et al., 2000; Juntunen, Atkinson, Reyes, & Gutierrez, 1994).

Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS). The FIDS, created by Bargad and Hyde (1991), is a 48-item Likert scale based on Downing and Roush's (1985) model. Twelve of the FIDS items measure Passive Acceptance, seven measure Revelation and seven measure Embeddedness-Emanation. Five of the items measure Synthesis, eight measure Active Commitment, and nine do not load any particular subscale.

Moradi and Subich (2002a) performed several tests of reliability and validity on this instrument. They found that 85% of the items correlated with Downing and Roush's (1985) stages. They also demonstrated moderately high stability for three subscales with alpha coefficients reported as follows: .77 for Passive Acceptance, .77 for Revelation, and .79 for Embeddedness-Emanation. The Synthesis (alpha of .50) and Active Commitment (alpha of .38) subscales were found to be not as stable.

Studies using FIDS measurement. A review of relevant literature has revealed numerous studies that have used the FIDS. Some of these studies assess the FIDS reliability and validity. Moradi and Subich (2002a), Fisher et al. (2000), and Gerstmann and Kramer (1997) are among the researchers who have completed studies to analyze the FIDS psychometric properties.

Other researchers have used the FIDS to examine other constructs. Murnen and Smolak (2008) used the FIDS to examine the association between body image problems and feminist identity. They found a strong, positive association between their two constructs with samples of older women and women studies students. There was also a strong, negative association found between feminist identity and measures related to eating problems. Green, Scott, Riopel, and Skaggs (2008) completed a similar study to determine if two stages of Downing and Roush's (1985) model, Passive Acceptance and Active Commitment, are predictors of eating disorder diagnostic statuses. When they failed to control for eating disorder diagnostic subtype, they found that the FIDS is a significant predictor of eating disorder diagnostic status. Their results suggested that diagnostic subtype may serve as a moderator between the FIDS and eating disorder diagnostic status.

Zucker (2004) and Duncan and Stewart (2007) also completed studies using the FIDS. Zucker's (2004) research study used the FIDS to compare the feminist identities of self-identified feminists, nonfeminists, and egalitarians. Her results showed that egalitarians are not as conscious of their feminine identities as feminists are, but are more conscious of their feminine identities than nonfeminists are. She also found that egalitarians are no different from nonfeminists in terms of feminist activism or feminist

identity, and that egalitarians and nonfeminists scored lower on feminist activism and feminist identity than feminists. Zucker's (2004) use of the FIDS proved that feminist identity significantly predicts feminist activism. Duncan and Stewart (2007) also used the FIDS, and determined that personal political salience is positively related to politicized gender identity and political participation.

Other researchers have used the FIDS to study the relationship between feminist identity and ethnic identity. Hoffman (2006) explored the relationships among women's gender identity constructs and the relationship of the constructs to ethnic identity. She found that gender self-acceptance and gender self-definition are positively correlated with ethnic identity. Boisnier (2003) determined how Black and White women experience feminist identity development. In her study, she discovered partial support for her hypothesis that Black women more strongly identify with womanist models and that White women more strongly identify with feminist models.

While the FIDS measurement is used in various studies, it is also utilized to validate new instruments. Mahalik, Morray, Coonerty-Femiano, Ludlow, Slattery, and Smiler (2005) referred to the FIDS in their research to corroborate their Conformity to Feminine Norms Inventory. The success and reputation of the FIDS has led to new discoveries and the development of new instruments in the research of identity development.

Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships

Having discussed identity development, the development of mature interpersonal relationships will now be examined. The review of literature related to this construct includes a discussion of developing mature interpersonal relationships as a part of

psychosocial development, intimate relationships in daily life, intimate relationships in college, and various measurements of IPV.

Mature Interpersonal Relationships and Psychosocial Development

The psychosocial theories of Erikson (1959) and Chickering and Reisser (1993) also examine the relationships people form with others (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). This discussion will include a reexamination of their life span and college student development theories with focus on the development of mature relationships.

Life-span development. One of Erikson's (1959) developmental stages brought attention to the role of relationships in the lives of young adults (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Intimacy versus Isolation describes how individuals, from adolescence to about age 35, become productive and independent members of society. It also describes this population as establishing intimate relationships, including both friendships and sexual unions.

In the development of this stage, however, Erikson (1959) was careful not to restrict intimacy to sexual relationships. In fact, his definition of intimacy incorporates an openly displayed sense of caring and commitment that can be found in many close friendships (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Whether shared between two lovers or friends, Erikson (1959) stressed that intimacy involves a "mutual devotion in a shared identity" (Schultz & Schultz, 1998, p. 210), where both people can fuse their self-identities together without losing sight of themselves.

During the Intimacy versus Isolation stage, love is the basic strength that will emerge upon the establishment of intimacy (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). If a young adult is incapable of establishing intimacy, he or she will become isolated, this stage's basic

weakness. A person may even become fearful of intimacy, avoid or reject social contacts, or become aggressive against other people.

College student development. Chickering and Reisser's (1993) fourth vector, Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships, encompasses two components: tolerance (or appreciation of differences) and capacity for intimacy. Tolerance (or appreciation of differences) is necessary in the development of mature interpersonal college relationships. A young adult who achieves tolerance first identifies his or her personal biases, allowing for an understanding of how stereotypes are created and why they exist. This component also affords young adults the ability to accept people for who they are, to respect differences, and to refrain from using judgment or condemnation. It leads to an understanding and appreciation of cultural diversity, which is very important today, as society is more diverse than it has ever been. As young adults begin to accept all people, they learn to bridge gaps and transcend boundaries, allowing them to form mature interpersonal relationships based on sensitivity and honesty. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) have found evidence in support of the tolerance (or appreciation of differences) component. They found in their research that altruism, humanitarianism, a sense of civic responsibility, and relationship maturity all proliferate during the college years.

The second component of this vector, capacity for intimacy, is also necessary in the development of mature interpersonal college relationships (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). It involves an improvement in the quality of relationships with friends and partners: from dependence and dominance to interdependence among equals. Young adults at this point of development are able to decipher between relationships that are nurturing and those that are unhealthy. They see others clearly and do not distort their

relationships. When friends or partners do become over dependent or over controlling, a capacity for intimacy allows one to feel comfortable addressing the issue or leaving the relationship. As young adults begin to form mature relationships, the trust, caring, and acceptance that characterizes them continues to deepen their capacity for intimacy. Individuals have achieved a full capacity of intimacy when their relationships are valued for themselves, when they can grow and experiment healthfully, and when all people are considered whole and authentic.

Erikson (1950) and Douvan (1981) supported Chickering and Reisser's (1993) theory of capacity for intimacy. Erikson (1950) believed intimacy to be the central developmental task for college-aged adults, supporting Chickering and Reisser's (1993) claim that a capacity for intimacy is necessary in the development of mature relationships. Douvan (1981) also believed that intimacy is extremely important in college student development. He not only considered relationships to be fulfilling for young students, but that they also serve as major vehicles for self-understanding.

Intimate Relationships

The psychosocial theories of Erikson (1959) and Chickering and Reisser (1993) are excellent reference points in studying the development of relationships. However, Chickering and Reisser (1993) noted that other realities exist about intimate relationships, including violence between partners. Relationship scripts, described in the following section, may provide an explanation for unhealthy relationships in daily life.

Relationship scripts. Traditional intimacy has also led to different scripts for men and women in heterosexual relationships. Relationship scripts define understandings and expectations of intimate relationships and often influence behavior

(DeLucia-Waack, Gerrity, Taub, & Baldo, 2001). Men's relationship script tends to adopt a masculine recreational orientation, emphasizing the physical gratification of sex as opposed to commitment (Cohen & Shotland, 1996). Unfortunately, some men may feel pressured by their relationship script to defend their masculinity, often pursuing sexual activity when they do not desire it.

Women's relationship script tends to adopt a feminine relationship-based orientation to sexuality. It emphasizes the importance of commitment in sexual relationships (Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006). Women are not as likely as men to view sex as an end to itself, but instead tend to view sex as the beginning or continuation of a relationship. Woman's relationship script supports the traditional role of women as relationship caretakers, socializing them to put their partners' needs before their own and making it difficult for women to express their personal preferences (Kiefer & Sanchez, 2007).

Intimate partner violence. Relationship scripts can help explain why men often become perpetrators of relationship violence. A common characteristic of the male relationship script, fear of expressing one's own emotions, can place undue stress on a male especially in vulnerable and emotional relationship situations. In reaction to this stress, men often become psychologically aggressive in their relationships, causing some incidents of psychological violence (Jakupcak, 2003). Just recently, Gormley and Lopez (2010) found that stress alone can predict most psychological violence committed by men. Jakupcak, Lisak, and Roemer (2002) also found that the stress associated with emotional repression contributes to physical violence in intimate relationships.

Life events, life changes, and stress can also explain why women become perpetrators of relationship violence. Characteristic of the female relationship script, women tend to perceive relationship situations as more stressful and emotional than men (Eaton & Bradley, 2008). In effect, negatively perceived changes and events can contribute to female perpetration of psychological violence (Mason & Blankenship, 1987).

Although both men and women are perpetrators of IPV, Gwartney-Gibbs, Stockard, and Bohmer (1987) indicated that men are perpetrators of higher-magnitude violent behavior than are women. For example, more men in intimate relationships commit intimate terrorism, a less common but more injurious type of relationship violence that involves physical violence and controlling behaviors in order to gain dominance over a partner (Johnson, 1995). Lavoie, Robitaille, and Hebert (2000) found in their study of college relationships that many men reported gaining power and control in their relationships by using coercion.

Both men and women are victims of IPV. In fact, men can also experience sexual (Christopher and Sprecher, 2000), physical (Edmunds, Peterson, & Underwood, 2002, as cited in Dienemann, Glass, Hanson, & Lunsford, 2007), and psychological (Mason & Blankenship, 1987) violence within intimate relationships. However, since relationship scripts pressure men to enjoy and participate in many sexual activities, they may be less likely to report such victimization in order to protect their masculinity (Kaestle, 2009). The side effects of sexual and physical violence against men can involve mental health services, such as psychotherapeutic and psychoeducational counseling (Edmunds, Peterson, & Underwood, 2002, as cited in Dienemann, Glass, Hanson, & Lunsford,

2007). Psychological violence, on the other hand, is often associated with lower life satisfaction, emotional distress, depression, posttraumatic stress disorder, and a lower quality of life (Campbell, Jones, Dienemann, Kub, Schollenberger, O'Campo, Gielen, & Wynne, 2002).

Women are also at risk of becoming victims of relationship violence. Although the side effects of sexual, physical, and psychological violence against women are similar to those experienced by men, women have reported a higher number of psychological effects (Clements, Ogle, & Sabourin, 2005). Upon leaving their abusive relationships, women remain at risk for violence. Ford-Gilboe et al. (2009) found that most women experience the negative effects of violence for about 20 months after leaving their abusive partners. In fact, their risk of becoming targets of violence often intensifies after leaving (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Female relationship scripts make women vulnerable to returning to their abusive relationships (Kaestle, 2009). Since they view themselves as caretakers of relationships, tend to put the needs of their partners first (Kaestle, 2009), and use relationships as means to define their personal identities (Josselson, 1987) it can be very difficult for women to stay away.

Intimate Relationships in College

College students form many different intimate relationships during their collegiate career. Some students casually experiment with their sexuality, while others enter the dating scene and form serious relationships in hopes of finding a lifelong partner. In her study of college student relationships, Trotter (2010) found that 79.6% of students believe that the media influences their relationships, in that they mimic what they see on television, read in magazines, and hear in music. She also found that 74% of college

students believe that their relationships with their parents have influenced their intimate relationships. However, 31% believe that the effects are negative. This means that college students are more likely to model and form intimate relationships based on what they hear and see in music, videos, and television than on their personal experiences.

An examination of the literature has shown that college students also tend to have unrealistic expectations of relationships. Trotter (2010) found that students seemingly understand the importance of communication in relationships, but that a large percentage believes marriage will magically improve communication with their partners. Many students live with their partners because they have high expectations for its positive impact on their relationships (Trotter, 2010). In fact, more than half of young couples live together before their first marriage (Whitehead & Popenoe, 2006). However, research does not support these expectations and has actually found that the results of cohabitation are often disappointing for students (Trotter, 2010).

The influence of the media, unrealistic expectations of relationships, relationship scripts, and the college social scene can all affect college relationships. Some students may form healthy relationships in college. Unfortunately, most college students struggle in developing mature relationships, often making them vulnerable to unhealthy and even violent situations.

Violence in college relationships. IPV is a phenomenon that has become common in both homosexual and heterosexual college relationships. In 2007, 86% of college students reported physical, sexual, or psychological (emotional) violence in their intimate relationships (Próspero & Vohra-Gupta, 2007). Relationship violence also shows stability over time and situations for individuals (Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, &

Walder, 1984). Therefore, not only is relationship violence common in college, but it also long lasting for both victims and perpetrators. Relationship violence can be in the form of physical, sexual, or psychological (emotional) violence. All forms are prominent among college students and negatively affect their lives.

Physical and sexual violence in college relationships are associated with many negative side effects. Health effects can be both physical and psychological, including depression, chronic health problems, and anxiety (Straight, Harper, & Arias, 2003). In fact, incidents of sexual violence are often associated with higher levels of psychological violence in intimate relationships (Hogben & Waterman, 2000).

Psychological (emotional) violence is also associated with negative health effects in college students, including depression, chronic health problems, anxiety, and substance and alcohol abuse among community samples (Straight, Harper, & Arias, 2003). It is linked to a reduced sense of autonomy, lowered self-esteem, fearfulness, and increased suicide risk (Back, Post, & D'Arcy, 1982). Overall, victims of relationship violence have reported that the effects of psychological violence are actually worse than the effects of physical violence, perhaps because it has been linked to long-lasting side effects, such as posttraumatic stress disorder (Arias & Pape, 1999). Psychological violence has also been found to predict physical violence (O'Leary, 1999). Hogben and Waterman (2000) found that people who engage in psychological violence are more likely to commit other types of relationship violence, including physical violence.

Measurement of Violence in Relationships

The Conflict Tactics (CT) Scale, The Index of Spouse Abuse (ISA), and the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI) were all created to measure

violence in relationships. The following discussion introduces each instrument and describes its purpose and design. Since the PMWI was used in this study, it will be described in greater detail.

Conflict Tactics (CT) Scale. Created by Straus (1979), the CT is an 18-item self-report scale designed to measure the occurrence and frequency of behaviors used during interpersonal violence. Designed to measure all forms of intrafamily violence, the behaviors that are measured by this instrument include physical threats, psychological aggression, direct physical aggression, and nonaggressive problem-solving behaviors. The CT tends to focus only on violence within the family and not specifically on intimate relationship violence (Hudson & McIntosh, 1981). Dobash and Dobash (1981) argued that this characteristic actually limits this measurement's usefulness in that it is not applicable to the violence of women in context.

The Index of Spouse Abuse (ISA). The ISA was created by Hudson and McIntosh (1981). It is a 30-item self-report scale with two subscales, the ISA-P and the ISA-NP. The ISA-P measures physical violence against a woman by her partner and the ISA-NP measures nonphysical violence against a woman by her partner. Upon completion of the scale, both subscales receive scores between 0 and 100, a lower score indicating an absence of violence and a higher score indicating severe violence. The ISA was designed for use in clinical settings and can be used on a regular basis with one woman in order to measure physical and nonphysical violence over time (Hudson & McIntosh, 1981). In comparison to the psychological aggression items of the CT, the ISA-NP contains more items that measure nonphysical violence (Tolman, 1989). However, the ISA has received criticism for not including some common non-physically

violent behaviors, such as isolation from friends and family and withholding of affection (Tolman, 1989).

The Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI). The PMWI has a long-form and short-form version for both men and women. Questions from both versions are in one of two categories: dominance-isolation and emotional-verbal (Tolman, 1989). The PMWI was designed to measure the degree of psychological maltreatment experienced by participants in their intimate relationships. For this instrument, Tolman (1989, 1999) performed tests of reliability and validity. Tolman (1989) found that the internal consistency coefficients for the subscales were high, with dominance-isolation at alpha of .95 and emotional-verbal at alpha of .93. Tolman (1999) also found that the short form version of the PMWI had strong reliability, with dominance-isolation at alpha of .88 and verbal-emotional at alpha of .92. As for construct validity, all subscales of the PMWI correlated with other violence measurements: the nonphysical violence subscale of the Index of Spouse Abuse (ISA), the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) physical violence measure, and the ISA physical violence measure (Tolman, 1999).

Studies using PMWI measurement. A review of the literature has led to 27 studies using the PMWI measurement. Within the 27 studies are five themes: studies on violence in marriage or family, studies on victims of violence, studies on perpetrators of violence, studies on the development of new instruments, and reliability and validity studies. Among those who studied the phenomenon of violence in married couples or families are Al-Krenawi, Alean, Lev-Wiesel, and Rachel (2001), Baker, Perilla, and Norris (2001), Brown and O'Leary (2000), DeVoe and Smith (2002), Edleson, Mbilinyi,

Beeman, and Hagemester (2003), Holtzworth-Munroe, Meehan, Herron, Rehman, and Stuart (2003), Marshall and Holtzworth-Munroe (2002), and Messman-Moore and Long (2000).

Other researchers have studied victims and perpetrators of violence. Bell and Goodman (2001), Cattaneo and Goodman (2003), Kocot and Goodman (2003), Lynch and Graham-Bermann (2004), Orava, McLeod, and Sharpe (1996), Straight, Harper, and Arias (2003) and Swan and Snow (2003) all used the PMWI to complete research on the victims of IPV. Bennett, Goodman, and Dutton (2000), Dutton and Starzomski (1997), Hogben and Waterman (2000), Ronfeldt, Kimerling, and Arias (1998), Rooney and Hanson (2001), Suarez-Al-Adam, Raffaelli, and O'Leary (2000), and Swan and Snow (2002) all studied perpetrators of violence.

The PMWI has also been used in developing new instruments or testing the reliability and validity of existing ones. Dutton (1995) cited the PMWI in his development of a scale to measure the propensity for abusiveness. Goodman, Dutton, Weinfurt, and Cook (2003) also cited the PMWI to create an instrument: the intimate partner violence strategies index. Although they did not use the PMWI to create new instruments, Babcock, Costa, Green, and Eckhardt (2004), Dutton, Landolt, Starzomski, and Bodnarchuk (2001), Holtzworth-Munroe, Meehan, Herron, Rehman, and Stuart (2000) did use it to test the reliability and validity of other instruments.

Existing Research on Gender Identity and Abusive Relationships

Scholars (Boonzaier & de la Rey, 2004; Burke, Stets, & Pirog-Good, 1988; Eckstein, 2010; Ray & Gold, 1996; Telesco, 2003) have studied the relationship between gender identity and abusive relationships. However, they have not specifically studied

the correlation between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment. Instead, these scholars have explored gender roles, physical and sexual violence, male victims, gender and perceptions of violence, and violence in lesbian relationships.

Boonzaier and de la Rey (2004) studied the effects of gender roles on relationships. They conducted interviews with five couples between the ages of 28 and 45 who were in abusive relationships for 2 to 22 years. Their research led to similarities between how men and women view themselves and each other. They found that both men and women drew on gender roles to explain and understand the violence in their relationships. For example, many female victims believed that they were responsible for nurturing their partners in order to soften the violence inflicted upon them. Men, on the other hand, did not accept full responsibility for their violent behavior, minimized the violence they inflicted upon their partners, and justified their violence as an expression of male authority. Boonzaier and de la Rey (2004) also discovered that participants used aggressive male sexuality and passive female sexuality to justify sexual violence and male infidelity.

Burke, Stets, and Pirog-Good (1988) examined a sample of heterosexual college dating relationships to determine the roles that gender and self-esteem play in physical and sexual violence. They did not assess psychological violence. Burke, Stets, and Pirog-Good (1988) found no support for the theory that masculinity contributes to violence in relationships. They did find that femininity for both males and females is associated with low self-esteem, physical, and sexual violence.

Eckstein (2010) interviewed and studied male victims who were abused by their female partners to determine how victim-identity and masculinity are related. Not one

male participant blamed his abuser for the violence, but instead internalized the pain or blamed society for his victimization. Those who blamed themselves described a sense of losing their masculinity. Others felt resentment toward society for allowing the violence, and some reclaimed softened masculine identities.

Ray and Gold (1996) examined the relationship between gender roles, psychological maltreatment, alcohol use, verbal aggression, and physical violence in intimate relationships. In administering a questionnaire to 56 couples, they found that hypermasculinity and hyperfemininity are related to a woman's perception of psychological maltreatment, a man's perception of verbal aggression, and a man's consumption of alcohol. Ray and Gold (1996) concluded that relationships exhibiting hypermasculinity and hyperfemininity may be more at risk of becoming abusive.

Telesco (2003) studied 105 lesbians to examine if their relationships were abusive and if a relationship existed between femininity and IPV. She found no association between femininity and abusive behavior. However, Telesco (2003) did find a strong positive correlation between jealousy and overall violence. She also identified a positive correlation between jealousy and psychological maltreatment. While none of the studies listed above specifically explored the relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment, their results make strong implications on the nature of intimate relationships in general.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature related to identity development and the development of mature interpersonal relationships. While there exists a great deal of literature on these two constructs, there is very little research on the

relationship between them. The purpose of this study was to determine if a correlation exists between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. The following chapter will discuss the study's design, including the sample, instruments, procedures, and data analysis.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study aimed to determine if a relationship exists between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. Having reviewed the relevant literature concerning identity development and the development of mature interpersonal relationships, this chapter describes the methodology, sample, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis.

Methodology

A correlational approach was utilized in this study to determine if a relationship exists between psychological maltreatment and feminist identity development. Correlational research is an investigative approach that determines the degree to which a relationship exists between two or more measurable variables (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). This particular study designated psychological maltreatment as the criterion variable and feminist identity development as the predictor variable. Therefore, a correlational approach was appropriate given that both are scale variables and that the research question aims to quantify the relationship between them.

Sample

The population for this study consisted of heterosexual female college students between the ages of 18 and 24 who are attending a public, four-year university in western Pennsylvania. A sample of female students attending this institution was randomly selected in order to obtain a representative group. To avoid maturation as an internal threat to validity (Gay et al., 2009), a narrow age range was selected and that age range

was 18-24, an accepted age range known as young adulthood (Neugarten, Moore, & Lowe, 1965).

The sexual orientation of the final sample (i.e., heterosexual) was chosen because one of the instruments used for this study, the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI), was written using heterosexuality as the norm and, as a result, the items were written with this assumption. The final sample for this study also only included women who have experienced intimate relationships with men within the past six months, another criterion of the PMWI that was originally established to make the instrument more useful for assessing change in treatment programs (Tolman, 1989).

In sum, 291 of the 1,500 potential women participated in the electronically administered survey, resulting in a return rate (i.e., percentage of surveys submitted from the sample) of 19%. This number may be artificially lower given that the specific criteria of the population (i.e., sexual orientation, age requirement, and length of relationship) could not be filtered when drawing the sample. As a result, it is possible that many of the women who, upon receiving the informed consent form, found that they did not fit the criteria for inclusion and, therefore, did not respond. Of the 291 participants, 173 were able to answer all of the questions because they satisfied the characteristics of the intended population, resulting in a response rate (i.e., percentage of usable surveys from the sample) of 11.5%. Of the 173 remaining participants, the researcher had to delete two cases because the respondents did not answer a sufficient number of items on the PMWI to obtain an average score. The majority (65%) of the final 171 respondents were either 18, 19, or 20 years old; the mean age of the sample was 20.06 (s.d. = 1.65). Additionally, most of the participants (52%) were freshmen and sophomores and White (83%). As for

religious preference, the vast majority (76%) of participants identified as Christian.

However, the role that religion plays in the respondents' lives varied greatly. See Table 1 for a more detailed description of the final sample.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for Participants (N = 171)

Variable		n	% of Sample
Age	18	31	18.10
	19	46	26.90
	20	34	19.90
	21	24	14.00
	22	19	11.10
	23	11	6.40
	24	6	3.50
Class Year	Freshman	49	28.70
	Sophomore	40	23.40
	Junior	32	18.70
	Senior	34	19.90
	Graduate student	16	9.40
Race/Ethnicity	American Indian or Alaskan Native	1	0.60
	Asian	6	3.50
	Hispanic	6	3.50
	Black or African American	16	9.40
	Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	0	0.00
	White (non-Hispanic)	142	83.00
	Religious Preference	Christian-Catholic	46
Christian-Protestant		28	16.40
Christian-other		56	32.70
Judaism		0	0.00
Islam		0	0.00
Buddhism		4	2.30
Agnostic		7	4.10
Atheist		8	4.70
Hinduism		0	0.00
Wiccan/Pagan/Druid		0	0.00
Spiritual, but not religious		12	7.00
No preference		20	11.70
The Role of Religion	Not an issue	39	22.80
	Not important	47	27.50
	Important	61	35.70
	Very important	24	14.00

As the final sample for this study only included women who have experienced heterosexual intimate relationships with men within the past six months, the length of these relationships are reported. As noted in Table 2, most (81%) of the participants are currently in relationships. The remaining participants (19%) reported the length of a past relationship. Of those respondents who are currently in relationships, the majority (45%) have been dating their partner for one to five years. Of those respondents who reported the length of a past relationship, most (9%) dated their partner for less than three months. Table 2 provides a more detailed description of the lengths of these relationships.

Table 2
Lengths of Current and Past Relationships within Six Months (N = 171)

Variable		n	% of Sample
Length of Current Relationship	Not currently	32	18.70
	< 3 months	20	11.70
	3-6 months	24	14.00
	7-11 months	10	5.80
	1-2 years	43	25.10
	3-5 years	34	19.90
	> 5 years	8	4.70
Length of Past Relationship	< 3 months	15	8.80
	3-6 months	5	2.90
	7-11 months	3	1.80
	1-2 years	5	2.90
	3-5 years	4	2.30
	> 5 years	0	0.00

Instrumentation

Two primary instruments were used for this study: Bargad and Hyde's (1991) Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS) and Tolman's (1995) short-form female version of the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI), also known as PMWI-F (Short Form). A researcher-designed background demographic form was also used in data collection. All three instruments are described below.

Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS)

The FIDS (see Appendix D), created by Bargad and Hyde (1991), is a 48-item Likert scale based on the feminist identity development model created by Downing and Roush (1985). Downing and Roush's (1985) five stages of their model correspond to the five sub-scales of the FIDS: Passive Acceptance, Revelation, Embeddedness-Emanation, Synthesis, and Active Commitment. Twelve of the FIDS questions are associated with Passive Acceptance, seven with Revelation, seven with Embeddedness-Emanation, five with Synthesis, eight with Active Commitment, and nine that do not load any particular subscale. As noted in Chapter Two, strong reliability and validity was reported on this instrument (Moradi & Subich, 2002a). The current study found that the FIDS subscales showed adequate to strong reliabilities with alpha coefficients that ranged from .55 to .84. Details of these findings are reported in Chapter Four.

Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI)

The PMWI is a 58-item Likert scale with questions from two subscales: Dominance-Isolation and Emotional-Verbal (Tolman, 1989). Sixteen items were adapted from the Index of Spouse Abuse (ISA) (Hudson & McIntosh, 1981) and five from the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) (Straus, 1979). None of the PMWI items assess physical violence. These items were deliberately excluded since a number of existing scales already measure this construct and can be used in combination with the PMWI as needed.

Tolman (1995) developed male (PMWI-M) and female (PMWI-F) versions of the PMWI, with differences only in pronouns and direction of violence. He also developed short-form versions of the original PMWI, known as PMWI-M (Short Form) and PMWI-F (Short Form). For the purposes of this study, the PMWI-F (Short Form) (see Appendix

E) was used. The PMWI-F (Short Form) is a 14-item Likert scale with seven questions from the Dominance-Isolation subscale and seven questions from the Emotional-Verbal subscale (Tolman, 1995). It was used to measure the degree of psychological maltreatment experienced by the participants in their intimate relationships with men. As was noted in Chapter Two, Tolman (1989, 1999) reported high reliability and validity for the original PMWI and its short version. The current study found that the PMWI subscales showed high reliabilities with alpha coefficients of .81 and .91. Details of these findings are reported in Chapter Four.

Background Demographic Form (BDF)

A background demographic form (BDF) (see Appendix C) was also used in data collection. The BDF includes demographic questions, which assisted in identifying participants who meet the criteria for inclusion (i.e., age, sexual orientation, and relationship history). Also, items from the BDF assisted the researcher in identifying any co-variables that were controlled for in the correlational data analysis.

Procedures

The data collection took place during the spring semester of 2011. After receiving approval from the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects, the researcher conducted a pilot study with three college-aged women to ensure that the survey items were clear and that there were no errors in the data collection protocol. The participants of this study were then selected through simple random sampling and identified with the assistance of the university's research lab and consulting center. Simple random sampling is essential in obtaining a sample that best represents the intended population (Gay et al., 2009). The research lab randomly

selected 1,500 female students enrolled at the university during the 2011 spring semester. The sample was provided to the researcher in the form of a list of anonymous email addresses.

The researcher emailed the members of the sample to inform them about the study and to invite their participation (see Appendix A). The researcher included in the email a link that directed the sample to an anonymous survey located on Qualtrics website (Qualtrics, Inc., 2008). The survey contained a consent form (see Appendix B) which, if affirmed by the participant, directed her to the FIDS, PMWI-F (Short Form), and the BDF. The survey then concluded with a thank-you message (see Appendix F). Within a week of their first invitation, the researcher sent a follow-up email (see Appendix G) to the initial sample reminding them of the survey and encouraging their participation.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data from the sample were obtained from the FIDS and the PMWI-F (Short Form), as well as the BDF and downloaded into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Preliminary data analysis included measures of the instruments' reliability and descriptive statistics (e.g., frequencies, means, and standard deviations) on all the demographic and construct variables. A correlation matrix was run to identify co-variates among the demographic variables and construct variables. After the preliminary analysis was conducted, correlations were run to determine the relationship between the two variables of interest: feminist identity and psychological maltreatment. Co-variates identified in the preliminary analysis (age and the role of religion) were used in partial correlations, which served as the primary analysis for this study.

Conclusion

IPV is an issue for heterosexual college women that may be related to identity development. More often than not, these students encounter physical, sexual, and/or psychological violence at some point during their college career (Fincham et al., 2008). Hodgson and Fischer (1979) found that among women, more so than men, there is a connection between identity and intimate relationships. In fact, women use relationships as means to define their personal identities (Josselson, 1987). The methodology and procedures described in this chapter seek to determine if there is a relationship between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. A complete presentation of the preliminary and primary analyses is in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This correlational study sought to determine if a relationship exists between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. Data was collected using Bargad and Hyde's (1991) Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS), Tolman's (1989) Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI), and a background demographic form (BDF) designed by the researcher. As mentioned in previous chapters, the FIDS consists of five subscales and the PMWI of two subscales. All seven subscales, along with some of the BDF's demographic items, are presented and measured during this chapter. This chapter will present an analysis of data collected from 171 participants in two sections: preliminary analysis and primary analysis.

Preliminary Analysis

The preliminary analysis included measures of reliabilities and descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations on all of the study's scales and subscales. A correlational analysis was also run on all relevant variables to determine if any relationships exist among the variables, and if any variable(s) needed to be controlled for in the primary analysis.

Reliabilities

For each of the aforementioned subscales, reliability was measured to determine if each scale was consistently measuring its intended construct (Gay et al., 2009). The Feminist Identity Development Scale's (FIDS) subscales showed adequate reliabilities with alpha coefficients between .55 and .84. The FIDS fifth subscale, Active Commitment, yielded the highest alpha coefficient of .84, while the instrument's fourth

subscale, Synthesis, yielded the lowest alpha coefficient of .55. This study's reliabilities on the FIDS were relatively consistent with Moradi and Subich's (2002a) reliability tests, as they reported alpha coefficients of .77 for Passive Acceptance, .77 for Revelation, .79 for Embeddedness-Emanation, and .50 for Synthesis. The FIDS fifth subscale, Active Commitment, yielded a higher alpha coefficient for this sample (.84) than what was found during Moradi and Subich's (2002a) tests (.38). The Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory's (PMWI) subscales showed high reliabilities with alpha coefficients of .81 and .91. These reliabilities were consistent with Tolman's (1999) reliability tests, as he reported alpha coefficients of .88 for Dominance-Isolation and .92 for Verbal-Emotional. See Table 3 for a presentation of these reliabilities.

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations

For each of the subscales on the FIDS and the PMWI, the means and standard deviations were calculated. The five subscales of the FIDS included items that used a Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). A higher score on a subscale is interpreted as being more characteristic of that stage. The two subscales of the PMWI included items that utilized a Likert Scale that ranged from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Frequently) and NA (Not Applicable). A higher score on a subscale means that a participant reported experiencing incidents of dominance and isolation or emotional and verbal attacks very frequently. Mean scores were determined by calculating the mean of all the individual mean scores. These means, the standard deviations, and the alpha coefficients of the seven subscales are reported in Table 3.

While the mean scores and standard deviations of the seven subscales in this study do provide some insight on the entire sample and will be discussed in the next

chapter, they do not answer the research question about whether there is a relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. Therefore, a correlation matrix was constructed for the following section to determine if any significant relationships among the subscales exist.

Table 3
Alpha Coefficients, Means, and Standard Deviations for all Measures

	Alpha Coefficient	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
<u>FIDS</u>			
FIDS1 – PA	0.73	2.76	0.54
FIDS2 – R	0.76	2.98	0.66
FIDS3 – EE	0.79	2.89	0.66
FIDS4 – S	0.55	3.75	0.53
FIDS5 – AC	0.84	3.23	0.62
<u>PMWI</u>			
PMWI1 – DI	0.81	1.36	0.56
PMWI2 – EV	0.91	1.67	0.84

Note. PA = Passive Acceptance
R = Revelation
EE = Embeddedness-Emanation
S = Synthesis
AC = Active Commitment
DI = Dominance-Isolation
EV = Emotional-Verbal

Correlational Analysis

A correlational matrix was constructed to determine if a partial or multiple regression was necessary for the primary analysis. As reported in Table 4, several significant correlations at $p < .01$ and $p < .05$ were found. Significant correlations were found between background variables and the FIDS, including between age and the Embeddedness-Emanation subscale of the FIDS ($r = -.15, p < .05$) and between the role of religion and the Active Commitment subscale of the FIDS ($r = -.16, p < .05$).

Significant correlations also occurred between subscales of the FIDS and the PMWI. They included the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI and the

Revelation subscale of the FIDS ($r = .29, p < .01$), the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI and the Embeddedness-Emanation subscale of the FIDS ($r = .20, p < .01$), and the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI and the Synthesis subscale of the FIDS ($r = -.17, p < .05$). Furthermore, significant correlations were found between the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI and the Revelation subscale of the FIDS ($r = .28, p < .01$), the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI and the Embeddedness-Emanation subscale of the FIDS ($r = .20, p < .01$), and the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI and the Synthesis subscale of the FIDS ($r = -.22, p < .01$).

Table 4
Correlation Matrix for All Relevant Variables

	Variables			
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
1. Age	--			
2. Length of Current Relationship	0.29**	--		
3. Length of Past Relationship	-0.01	^a	--	
4. The Role of Religion	0.00	0.04	0.18	--
5. FIDS1 – PA	-0.07	-0.03	0.21	0.03
6. FIDS2 – R	-0.11	-0.14	-0.03	-0.11
7. FIDS3 – EE	-0.15*	-0.08	0.00	0.07
8. FIDS4 – S	0.02	-0.03	-0.30	-0.03
9. FIDS 5 – AC	-0.08	0.05	0.05	-0.16*
10. PMWI1 – DI	-0.09	0.03	0.22	-0.10
11. PMWI2 – EV	-0.04	0.10	0.20	-0.11
	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>
6. FIDS2 – R	-0.07	--		
7. FIDS3 – EE	-0.02	0.57**	--	
8. FIDS4 – S	-0.10	-0.13	-0.15	--
9. FIDS5 – AC	-0.25**	0.50**	0.64**	-0.06
10. PMWI1 – DI	0.05	0.29**	0.20**	-0.17*
11. PMWI2 – EV	0.10	0.28**	0.20**	-0.22**
	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	
10. PMWI1 – DI	0.12	--		
11. PMWI2 – EV	0.04	0.73**	--	

Note. * = Correlation significant at the 0.05 level.
 ** = Correlation significant at the 0.01 level.
^a = Could not be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.
 PA = Passive Acceptance
 R = Revelation
 EE = Embeddedness-Emanation
 S = Synthesis
 AC = Active Commitment
 DI = Dominance-Isolation
 EV = Emotional-Verbal

Primary Analysis

The primary analysis was conducted to identify significant correlations between subscales of feminist identity measures and the psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships measure. This analysis controlled for age and the role of religion, as they

were found in the correlational analysis to be co-variates in the relationships among variables of interest.

Partial Correlation Analyses

The primary research question for this study was to determine if a relationship exists between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. When examining the correlation matrix in Table 4, certain significant relationships warranted further investigation. They included the relationships between the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI and the Revelation subscale of the FIDS, the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI and the Embeddedness-Emanation subscale of the FIDS, and the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI and the Synthesis subscale of the FIDS. Furthermore, significant correlations occurred between the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI and the Revelation subscale of the FIDS, the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI and the Embeddedness-Emanation subscale of the FIDS, and the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI and the Synthesis subscale of the FIDS.

Since age and the role of religion were found in the correlational matrix to be potential co-variates in the relationships between variables, partial correlations (controlling for age and the role of religion) were conducted between the aforementioned subscales of the FIDS and the PMWI. As reported in Table 5 and Table 6, all six relationships remained significant after controlling for age and the role of religion. This suggests that controlling for age and the role of religion had very little effect on the strength of the relationship among these subscale variables.

Table 5
*Partial Correlations on FIDS and PMWI Subscales with Significant Correlations
(Controlling for Age)*

Subscales	Zero-order Correlation	Partial Correlation
FIDS2 – R & PMWI1 – DI	0.29	0.28
FIDS3 – EE & PMWI1 – DI	0.20	0.19
FIDS4 – S & PMWI1 – DI	-0.17	-0.17
FIDS2 – R & PMWI2 – EV	0.28	0.28
FIDS3 – EE & PMWI2 – EV	0.20	0.20
FIDS4 – S & PMWI2 – EV	-0.22	-0.22

Note. R = Revelation
EE = Embeddedness-Emanation
S = Synthesis
DI = Dominance-Isolation
EV = Emotional-Verbal

Table 6
*Partial Correlations on FIDS and PMWI Subscales with Significant Correlations
(Controlling for the Role of Religion)*

Subscales	Zero-order Correlation	Partial Correlation
FIDS2 – R & PMWI1 – DI	0.29	0.28
FIDS3 – EE & PMWI1 – DI	0.20	0.21
FIDS4 – S & PMWI1 – DI	-0.17	-0.18
FIDS2 – R & PMWI2 – EV	0.28	0.27
FIDS3 – EE & PMWI2 – EV	0.20	0.21
FIDS4 – S & PMWI2 – EV	-0.22	-0.23

Note. R = Revelation
EE = Embeddedness-Emanation
S = Synthesis
DI = Dominance-Isolation
EV = Emotional-Verbal

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the study in finding if a relationship exists between two constructs: feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. The results came from 171 participants who completed an online survey consisting of questions from the Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS), the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI), and a researcher-designed background demographic form (BDF).

This chapter presented descriptive information on the participants, reliabilities, mean scores, and standard deviations on all measures, as well as information obtained from a correlational analysis and partial correlations controlling for age and the role of religion. In addressing the research question, it was found that when age and the role of religion are controlled for, there are significant relationships between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students.

In the final chapter, a discussion of these results will be presented. Implications for theory, practice, and research will also be discussed. Limitations of this study will also be shared to contextualize the findings in this study and to aid in continued research on this topic.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This correlational research study sought to determine if there is a relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. Intimate partner violence (IPV), including psychological maltreatment, has become a considerable health problem worldwide (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2009). It has especially become a considerable health problem for young adults in college, as one in three students encounters the side effects of IPV as either a target or perpetrator (Fass, Benson, & Leggett, 2008). In addition, Hodgson and Fischer (1979) found that among women, more so than men, there is a connection between identity and intimate relationships. In fact, women use relationships as means to define their personal identities (Josselson, 1987). While IPV has been a topic of interest for many years, no researcher has studied feminist identity in relation to psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students.

To complete this study, the researcher administered an online survey to 1,500 randomly selected female college students at a public, four-year university in western Pennsylvania. The survey consisted of questions from the Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS), the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI), and a researcher-designed background demographic form (BDF). The data collected from the 171 participants indicated several significant relationships between the study's two constructs: feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. This chapter will include a discussion of the findings, limitations of the study, and implications for theory, practice, and research.

Discussion of the Findings

The purpose of this section is to present the findings and significant relationships found in this study and to consider their implications with respect to the research question. The section consists of a discussion of the preliminary analysis, including the mean scores and the relationships between background variables and instrument subscales. The primary analysis conducted for this study is discussed, including the statistically significant relationships that were found between the two constructs: feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students.

Mean Scores

The preliminary analysis for this study included a calculation of the mean scores for each instrument's subscales. As reported in Chapter Four, each of the five subscales of the FIDS included five to twelve items that used a Likert Scale that ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The two subscales of the PMWI each included seven items that utilized a Likert Scale that ranged from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Frequently) and NA (Not Applicable).

FIDS. Since the FIDS does not include instructions for interpreting scores, the following interpretations will be intuitive. The 171 respondents of the researcher's online survey scored higher on the Synthesis subscale of the FIDS than other subscales of the FIDS with an overall mean score of 3.75 (s.d. = .53). This high score suggests that the strongest characteristic of the sample is that the participants value the attributes of their gender and integrate them into their own positive and realistic identities without turning against the male dominant culture. The 171 respondents of the survey scored lower on the Passive Acceptance subscale of the FIDS than other subscales of the FIDS with an

overall mean score of 2.76 (s.d. = .54). Therefore, within the sample there is a moderate acceptance of the dominant White male system and a moderate ignorance of gender prejudices. However, standard deviations of .53 and .54 indicate that there are respondents who do not share the same identity with the majority of participants.

PMWI. Some of the following interpretations are based on Tolman's (1995) scoring instructions, while others are intuitive. The 171 respondents of the online survey scored higher on the Emotional-Verbal subscale of the PMWI than the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI with an overall mean score of 1.67 (s.d. = .84). Within the sample, there is a high likelihood that respondents reported their partners never or rarely committing verbal attacks, demeaning them, or withholding emotional resources. Since the Dominance-Isolation subscale of the PMWI reported a low overall mean score of 1.36 (s.d. = 0.56), within the sample there is a high likelihood that participants also reported never or rarely experiencing demands for subservience or traditional sex roles. However, standard deviations of .84 and .56 indicate that there was some variance in the degree to which respondents reported emotional and verbal attacks, as well as acts of dominance and isolation.

Relationship Between Background Variables and Instrument Subscales

Significant inverse relationships were found between age and the FIDS Embeddedness-Emanation subscale ($r = -.15$) and between the role of religion and the FIDS Active Commitment subscale ($r = -.16$) in the initial correlational analysis. A significant inverse relationship between age and Embeddedness-Emanation suggests that the younger a college female is the more likely she is to be cautious in her interaction with men and to characterize herself by connectedness with other women. In other

words, the Embeddedness-Emanation stage is a stage that may be susceptible to maturation. This relationship can be supported by cognitive theory. Perry's (as cited in Love & Guthrie, 1999) first position in his theory of cognitive development is Basic Dualism. For those who view their experiences from this position, the world is divided into absolutes such as good and bad, and right and wrong. Younger college women may have a lower level of cognitive development and view all men as only good or bad, unable to judge them on an individual basis. Therefore, these women may be more cautious in their interactions with men and thus seek connectedness with similar women for support and friendship.

The inverse relationship ($r = -.16$) between the role of religion and Active Commitment suggests that the more important a college female believes the role of religion is in her life, the less likely she is to be fully committed to a nonsexist world and to consider men as equal but different. In their study of Conservative Protestants, Ellison, Bartkowski, and Anderson (1999) found that the participants' religious beliefs encourage women to work at home and care for children, promote male authority within the household, emphasize the notions of masculinity and femininity, and discourage female involvement in the work force. Therefore, adherence to religious beliefs may account for a woman's inability to commit to a nonsexist world, where men are considered equal but not the same as women. However, one cannot assume that the importance of religion or religious preference itself is directly related to conservative views of marriage, family, and relationships, Ellison, Bartkowski, and Anderson's (1999) suggestion cannot be the sole explanation for the inverse relationship between the role of

religion and the FIDS Active Commitment subscale. Further research may shed light on this relationship in pursuit of formulating a more substantial explanation.

Primary Analysis

Upon completing partial correlations (controlling for age and the role of religion) on the FIDS and PMWI subscales that were found to have significant correlations, all initial six significant relationships remained significant. Significant relationships were found between the following: the FIDS Revelation subscale and the PMWI (Dominance-Isolation and Emotional-Verbal), the FIDS Embeddedness-Emanation subscale and the PMWI (Dominance-Isolation and Emotional-Verbal), and the FIDS Synthesis subscale and the PMWI (Dominance-Isolation and Emotional-Verbal). However, since the partial correlations for the PMWI Dominance-Isolation and Emotional-Verbal subscales were found to be almost identical, they will be combined in this section and referred to as psychological maltreatment. All of these relationships will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

Revelation and psychological maltreatment. Results from the partial correlations suggest that the FIDS Revelation subscale has a significant positive relationship with psychological maltreatment. This means that the more likely a college female is to recognize oppression and perceive men negatively, the more likely she is to report psychological maltreatment in her intimate relationships with men. These women, in becoming more aware of the oppression against them, may recognize incidents of psychological maltreatment that they may not have recognized before. Moradi and Subich's (2002b) findings suggested that the denial of discrimination (characteristic of FIDS Passive Acceptance subscale) may intensify a woman's psychological reaction to

sexism once she perceives it (FIDS Revelation subscale), leading to more reporting of psychological maltreatment. A woman who recognizes oppression may also gain a more realistic understanding of psychological maltreatment, causing her to report incidents that she may not have reported before. In addition, an incident of psychological maltreatment may serve as a crisis that is indicative of the Revelation subscale, one that causes a woman to question her previous experiences and begin to recognize oppression. Josselson (1987) found that women do discover their identities through relationships and experiences with others, which explains why such an incident may affect a woman's feminist identity.

Embeddedness-Emanation and psychological maltreatment. Results from the partial correlations suggest that the FIDS Embeddedness-Emanation subscale has a significant positive relationship with psychological maltreatment. This means that the more likely a college female is to be cautious in her interaction with men and characterize herself by connectedness with other women, the more likely she is to report psychological maltreatment in her intimate relationships with men. These women, by embedding themselves in the feminist culture and forming most of their relationships with women, may also recognize incidents of psychological maltreatment that they may not have recognized before. In fact, the feminist definition of psychological abuse emphasizes the subjective experience of women, and the negative effects it has on women's autonomy, interpersonal relationships, and sense of self (Murphy & Cascardi, 1999). It is understood in the feminist culture as a man's means to control and dominate a woman. This definition of psychological abuse may cause these women to recognize more occurrences of psychological maltreatment, as an emphasis on the subjective

experiences of women may elicit more realistic or emotional reactions to these incidents. In addition, incidents of psychological maltreatment may cause women to be more cautious in their interaction with men and form closer relationships with women, embedding themselves within the feminist culture and finding reinforcement for their perceptions that they have experienced maltreatment. This can also be explained by Josselson's (1987) proposal that women discover their identities through relationships and experiences with others. Based on this study's findings, these experiences could include incidents of psychological maltreatment imposed on them by men.

Synthesis and psychological maltreatment. Results from the partial correlations suggest that the FIDS Synthesis subscale has a significant inverse relationship with psychological maltreatment. This means that the more likely a college female is to develop an authentic and positive feminist identity and evaluate men on an individual basis, the less likely she is to report incidents of psychological maltreatment in her intimate relationships with men. These women, in developing authentic and positive feminist identities and evaluating men on an individual basis, may gain a more realistic and complex understanding of psychological maltreatment, causing them to report less incidents of abuse. Boonzaier and de la Rey's (2004) research can also be used to help explain why an authentic and positive feminist identity and psychological maltreatment have a significant inverse relationship. Women that do not draw on gender roles and form strong feminist identities may be less vulnerable to these incidents, removing themselves from relationships with the type of men who engage in this behavior. In addition, less incidents of psychological maltreatment may cause women to develop authentic and positive feminist identities and evaluate men on an individual basis. Once

again, this can be explained by Josselson's (1987) proposal that women discover their identities through relationships and experiences with others. Based on this study's findings, these experiences could also include positive and healthy relations with men.

Although these explanations could be accurate, they by no means provide full explanations and should be used in consideration of each woman's unique personality and circumstance. However, it does seem logical that there are significant positive relationships in the Revelation and Embeddedness-Emanation subscales, as these subscales describe women who are becoming more aware of their vulnerability to and their experience with psychological maltreatment from men. As they enter Synthesis, women have a better understanding of themselves, assert themselves and stand up against any forms of maltreatment, form healthier relationships with men, and avoid men who are dominant and abusive (hence the reverse correlation). All three of these findings provide evidence in support of Downing and Roush's (1985) feminist identity development theory.

Findings of this study show correlations between feminist identity development and psychological maltreatment. Correlational studies, by definition, do not seek to find causality as much as the relationship between two variables. In this study, the explanation for the correlations may be that there is causality in both directions. In other words, while feminist identity may affect the kinds of relationships that women form, their relationships may also affect the formation of their feminist identities.

Limitations

The findings from this study are intriguing and provide some insight into the relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in relationships

among college students. However, they must be interpreted with some level of caution. Two limitations of this study are provided in this section.

The first limitation of the study is the composition of its sample. As all respondents were randomly selected from the same public, four-year university in western Pennsylvania, the data may not be an accurate representation of the college population at large. A more varied sample may provide data that is more generalizable to a larger female population. Also, since the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI) was written using heterosexuality as the norm, the final sample only included heterosexual women, which limits the generalizability of this study to all women, regardless of sexual orientation. In addition, only women between the ages of 18 and 24 were included in the final sample of this study, which further limits the generalizability of the study to women within this age range. The low response rate (11.5%) may also limit the generalizability of the study.

Second, since this study only considered the relationships of participants that occurred within the past six months, it may not give a comprehensive picture of their intimate relationships. For example, some respondents may have experienced psychological maltreatment seven months ago and were limited in recording such incidents. Future research may want to consider intimate relationships over a longer period of time because one in five participants of this study reported relationships that occurred outside of the six-month timeframe.

Implications

Although the average respondent rarely reported incidents of psychological maltreatment in her intimate relationship within the past six months, the significant

relationships that were found between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment do suggest that as women develop a feminist identity, they are less likely to experience, tolerate, or report these behaviors from their male partners. These findings hold several implications for the student affairs profession. Implications for theory, future research, and practice will be explored in the next sections.

Implications for Theory

Given the significant relationships discussed in previous sections, implications for student development theory emerge. The results from this study may influence scholars to consider feminist identity an aspect of IPV between college students. Several scholars (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Douvan, 1981; Erikson, as cited in Schultz & Schultz, 1998) already theorized that both constructs of identity and relationship development are important and related aspects of a student's development; the data from this study suggests that feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships are in fact related to one another. This finding provides further evidence of the relationship between identity and relationship development, and adds psychological maltreatment as a new dimension to feminist identity development. Downing and Roush's (1985) Feminist Identity Development Model, for example, rarely discusses the relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment, and may benefit from the findings of this study.

Implications for Future Research

As the findings on feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students are new and relatively unexplored, future research could significantly enhance the understanding of female identity development as it relates

to psychological maltreatment. Considering the results of this study, it could be beneficial for researchers to complete similar studies at other institutions. It may benefit future research to study student populations at other parts of the country with more diverse populations. It may also benefit future research to study lesbian, bisexual, and other types of relationships, as well as college students who are older than 24, a growing age demographic on college campuses (Love, Boschini, Jacobs, Hardy, & Kuh, 1993).

As this study was quantitative and only considered intimate relationships that occurred within the past six months, a similar qualitative study may provide more insight into the relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment among college students. Since identity development and IPV are complex constructs, a qualitative analysis of them may provide a deeper understanding of their relationship. For example, a qualitative analysis over a longer period of time may introduce new elements of feminist identity and IPV that were not considered for this study. A qualitative study would provide students opportunities to explain their identities and certain situations with their partners that may not otherwise be asked by questions of a quantitative study (Gay et al., 2009).

This study also found significant inverse relationships between age and feminist identity and between the role of religion and feminist identity. Future research may want to explore the relationships between these constructs, as the relationships that were found were beyond the scope of this study. Findings may shed light on even more dimensions of feminist identity development.

Finally, researchers may want to look at psychological maltreatment as a predictor in other student development theories that focus on women. For example, examining

psychological maltreatment and its role in female cognitive development (Baxter-Magolda, as cited in Bock, 1999) and moral development (Gilligan, as cited in Evans et al., 1998) may provide more insight into female college student development.

Implications for Practice

In addition to implications for theory and future research, information obtained from this study provides several implications for student affairs practice. The first is for student affairs professionals within functional areas that are trained to assist students' development of identity and mature intimate relationships. Advisors of student organizations, sororities, and residence life staff, for example, should be aware of the relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment as they help students with personal issues and create programming. Knowledge of this relationship can help practitioners find cues in one construct that may alert them to the necessity of an intervention in the other. For example, if residence life staff discover a need for residence hall programming on relationship abuse, they may incorporate programming on feminist identity to compliment and reinforce the education of abusive relationships. In fact, Downing and Roush (1985) explicitly stated that those who understand feminine identity theory can better plan interventions for abused women to enhance their identity development. In addition, counselors within counseling and psychological centers should consider the results of this study in helping students with both relationship issues and identity development.

The second implication of this study involves training professionals within women's centers or women's programming on college campuses. Trained student affairs professionals can be made more aware of the relationship between feminist identity and

psychological maltreatment by studying this research and, thus, creating more effective services for female students. For example, women's centers can commit themselves to exploring feminist identity as it relates to psychological maltreatment. They can be sure that their programs, events, and counseling sessions always take into account that feminist identity and psychological maltreatment are significantly related to one another, and create interventions on one construct that reinforces the other.

The third implication of this study may exist for both women's centers and religious centers. As a significant inverse relationship was found between feminist identity and the role of religion, both centers should consider working together in providing services for female students. If both centers are educated about the inverse relationship between feminist identity and religion, they can create joint programming and events that provide students an opportunity to explore both together. Doing so may help students solidify their religious beliefs and form more authentic and positive feminist identities.

The final implication of this study involves campus constituents outside of student affairs. If an institution does not have the funding or resources to create women's centers or proper programming, student affairs professionals can work with campus police and organizations that provide women with specific resources, and provide them with the knowledge from this study. Doing so may help these constituents foster, understand, and build better relationships with students, as they refine the services they provide by taking into consideration the relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment. In turn, this creates stronger connections between the campus and local communities, allowing them to provide better services to students.

Summary and Conclusion

This study sought to determine if there is a relationship between feminist identity and psychological maltreatment in intimate relationships among college students. Significant relationships were found between these two constructs. This finding provides implications for theory, research, and practice, in that it offers new insight into the theories of identity and intimacy development, suggests new avenues for continued research on the topic, and offers applicable practices that student affairs professionals can utilize to provide students with better services.

The accomplishment of the goal of this study is helpful to student affairs professionals. Too often, student affairs professionals address identity and intimacy issues separately. It is the goal of the researcher to offer these professionals new knowledge that will motivate them to consider these constructs in relation to one another. In the future, student affairs professionals should understand that IPV requires their purposeful attention in the study and practice of student development, specifically identity development. It is only then that they will be of most value to the female college student population.

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Appendix A

Email Invitation

January 2011

Dear Student:

You have been randomly selected to participate in a 15-20 minute survey concerning your views on being a woman and your relationships with men. If you participate, you will be provided an opportunity at the end of the survey to enter a raffle for a \$50 Amazon gift card.

Your participation in this survey is strictly voluntary and anonymous. However, your input may be very helpful to higher education professionals who seek to provide useful and effective services to students. This study is being conducted by a graduate student and supervised by a faculty member in the department of Student Affairs in Higher Education.

If you are interested in participating in this survey, please visit the link below to learn more and to access the survey questions.

Link: _____

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

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Student Affairs in Higher Education
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Appendix B

Informed Consent Form

Thank you for considering this study on views of being a woman and on intimate relationships with men. I am particularly interested in female college students between the ages of 18-24 who identify as heterosexual and have been in an intimate relationship with a man during the last six months. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

The questions asked on this study's survey, while not intended to do so, may stir up some feelings for you. In the unlikely event that you find some questions uncomfortable, please feel free to cease your participation. If this does occur, I urge you to speak with a professional at the IUP Center for Health and Well Being (at 724-357-9355).

Your participation in this study is entirely anonymous and voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw your participation at any time. To withdraw, simply discontinue the survey by closing your browser. If you choose to participate, your answers will be held in strict confidence and will only be used in combination with those from other participants. The information obtained in this study will be used for my master's thesis. The information will also be used for a presentation at a national conventions and may be published in scholarly journals.

If you choose to participate in this study, please click the "Agree" link below and you will be directed to the survey. If you would like a summary of the results of this study, please contact Ashley Fowler through email (a.i.fowler@iup.edu).

If you have any questions about this study, please contact me at a.i.fowler@iup.edu or my thesis advisor, Dr. John Mueller at jmueller@iup.edu. This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review board for the Protection of Human Subjects (phone: 724-357-7730 or e-mail: irb-research@iup.edu).

Thank you for your interest and anticipated participation in this study.

Sincerely,

Ashley I. Fowler
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Appendix C

Background Demographic Form (BDF)

Instructions

Please read each question carefully and choose an answer that best applies to you. This information will be used to understand the population taking this survey. Any information from this survey will be kept completely anonymous.

1. Age: (check one)

- a. Under 18
- b. 18
- c. 19
- d. 20
- e. 21
- f. 22
- g. 23
- h. 24
- i. Over 24

2. Do you identify as female?: (check one)

- a. Yes
- b. No

3. Sexual Orientation: (check the one you identify with most often)

- a. Lesbian
- b. Heterosexual
- c. Bisexual
- d. Questioning/Not sure

4. Are you or have you been in a heterosexual intimate relationship in the past 6 months?
(check one)

- a. Yes
- b. No

5. If you are currently in a heterosexual intimate relationship, please indicate the length of this relationship.: (choose one)

- a. I am not currently in a relationship
- b. Less than 3 months
- c. 3 - 6 months
- d. 7 - 11 months
- e. 1 - 2 years
- f. 3 - 5 years
- g. More than 5 years

6. How long was your relationship?: (choose one)
- a. Less than 3 months
 - b. 3 - 6 months
 - c. 7 - 11 months
 - d. 1 - 2 years
 - e. 3 - 5 years
 - f. More than 5 years
 - g. Not applicable
7. Class Year: (check one)
- a. Freshman
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior
 - e. Graduate Student
8. Race/Ethnicity: (check one)
- a. American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Black or African American
 - e. Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
 - f. White (non-Hispanic)
 - g. Other (Please identify)
9. Religious Preference: (check all that apply)
- a. Christian – Catholic
 - b. Christian – Protestant
 - c. Christian – Other
 - d. Judaism
 - e. Islam
 - f. Buddhism
 - g. Agnostic
 - h. Atheist
 - i. Hinduism
 - j. Wiccan/Pagan/Druid
 - k. Spiritual but not religious
 - l. No Preference
 - m. Other (Please identify)
10. At this time in your life, indicate the role of religion.
- a. Not an issue
 - b. Not important
 - c. Important
 - d. Very important

Appendix D

The Feminist Identity Development Scale (FIDS)

Instructions

On the following pages you will find a series of statements which people might use to describe themselves. Read each statement carefully and decide to what degree you think it presently describes you. Then select one of the five answers that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with the statement.

For example, if you strongly agree with the statement, "I like to return to the same vacation spot year after year," you would rate the statement with the number 5 in the space provided as shown below:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither agree nor disagree	agree	strongly agree

5 I like to return to the same vacation spot year after year.

Remember to read each statement carefully and decide to what degree you think it describes you at the present time

Note: The number in parentheses is for scoring. It indicates the subscale on which the item loads (NS = No Stage).

- _____ 1. I don't think there is any need for an Equal Rights Amendment; women are doing well.
- _____ 2. Being a part of a women's community is important to me.
- _____ 3. I want to work to improve women's status.
- _____ 4. I feel that some men are sensitive to women's issues.
- _____ 5. I used to think there wasn't a lot of sex discrimination, but now I know how much there really is.
- _____ 6. Although many men are sexist, I have found that some men are very supportive of women and feminism.

- _____ 7. Especially now, I feel that the other women around me give me strength.
- _____ 8. I am very committed to a cause that I believe contributes to a more fair and more just world for all people.
- _____ 9. While I am concerned that women be treated fairly in life, I do not see men as the enemy.
- _____ 10. I share most of my social time with a few close women friends who share my feminist values.
- _____ 11. I don't see much point in questioning the general expectation that men should be masculine and women should be feminine.
- _____ 12. I am willing to make certain sacrifices in order to work toward making this society a non-sexist, peaceful place where all people have equal opportunities.
- _____ 13. I would describe my interactions with men as cautious.
- _____ 14. One thing I especially like about being a woman is that men will offer me their seat on a crowded bus or open doors for me because I am a woman.
- _____ 15. When I think about sexism, my first reaction is always anger.
- _____ 16. My social life is mainly with women these days, but there are a few men I wouldn't mind having a non-sexual friendship with.
- _____ 17. I've never really worried or thought about what it means to be a woman in this society.
- _____ 18. I evaluate men as individuals, not as members of a group of oppressors.
- _____ 19. I just feel like I need to be around women who share my point of view right now.
- _____ 20. I care very deeply about men and women having equal opportunities in all respects.
- _____ 21. It makes me really upset to think about how women have been treated so unfairly in this society for so long.
- _____ 22. I do not want to have equal status with men.

- _____ 23. It is very satisfying to me to be able to use my talents and skills for my work in the women's movement.
- _____ 24. If I were married and my husband was offered a job in another state, it would be my obligation as his spouse to move in support of his career.
- _____ 25. I don't think there is one "right" way to be a feminist.
- _____ 26. I tend to be careful when I interact with men.
- _____ 27. I believe that when people choose a career, they should not let sex role stereotypes influence their choice.
- _____ 28. I think that most women will feel most fulfilled by being a wife and mother.
- _____ 29. When you think about most of the problems in the world—pollution, discrimination, the threat of nuclear war—it seems to me that most of them are caused by men.
- _____ 30. I am angry that I've let men take advantage of me.
- _____ 31. Being a feminist is one of a number of things that make up my identity.
- _____ 32. It only recently occurred to me that I think that it's unfair that men have the privileges they have in this society simply because they are men.
- _____ 33. I feel that I am a very powerful and effective spokesperson for the women's issues I am concerned with right now.
- _____ 34. I feel angry about the way women have been left out of history text books.
- _____ 35. If I were to paint a picture or write a poem, it would probably be about women or women's issues.
- _____ 36. I think that men and women had it better in the 1950s when married women were housewives and their husbands supported them.
- _____ 37. Some of the men I know seem more feminist than some of the women.
- _____ 38. When I see the way most men treat women, it makes me so angry.
- _____ 39. I can finally feel very comfortable identifying myself as a feminist.
- _____ 40. Generally, I think that men are more interesting than women.

- _____ 41. Men and women are equal but different.
- _____ 42. Recently I read something or had a specific experience that sparked my greater understanding of sexism.
- _____ 43. I think that rape is sometimes the woman's fault.
- _____ 44. On some level, my motivation for almost every activity I engage in is my desire for an egalitarian world.
- _____ 45. I am not sure what is meant by the phrase "women are oppressed under patriarchy."
- _____ 46. I think it's lucky that women aren't expected to do some of the more dangerous jobs that men are expected to do, like construction work or race car driving.
- _____ 47. I have a lifelong commitment to working for social, economic, and political equality for women.
- _____ 48. Particularly now, I feel most comfortable with women who share my feminist point of view.

Appendix E

The Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory Short-Form Female Version (PMWI-F)

Instructions

This questionnaire asks about actions you may have experienced in your relationship with your male partner. Please answer the questions according to the most recent relationship you had within the past six months. Answer each item as carefully as you can by checking a number next to each statement according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	NA
never	rarely	occasionally	frequently	very frequently	not applicable

IN THE PAST 6 MONTHS:

- _____ 1. My partner called me names.
- _____ 2. My partner swore at me.
- _____ 3. My partner yelled and screamed at me.
- _____ 4. My partner treated me like an inferior
- _____ 5. My partner monitored my time and made me account for my whereabouts.
- _____ 6. My partner used our money or made important financial decisions without talking to me about it.
- _____ 7. My partner was jealous or suspicious of my friends.
- _____ 8. My partner accused me of having an affair with another man.
- _____ 9. My partner interfered in my relationships with other family members.
- _____ 10. My partner tried to keep me from doing things to help myself.
- _____ 11. My partner restricted my use of the telephone.
- _____ 12. My partner told me my feelings were irrational or crazy.
- _____ 13. My partner blamed me for his problems.
- _____ 14. My partner tried to make me feel crazy.

Appendix F

Participation Thank-You and IUP Center for Health and Well Being Resource

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey. Your contribution to this study is greatly appreciated.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact the researcher below. If you would like to speak with someone from IUP's counseling center about the content of this study, its contact information has been provided below.

Researcher:

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Appendix G

Follow-up Email

January 2011

Dear Student:

This e-mail is automatically sent by Qualtrics to those students who have not yet responded to my earlier survey request.

You have been randomly selected to participate in a 15-20 minute survey concerning your views on being a woman and on your relationships with men. If you are interested in participating in this survey, please visit the link below to learn more and to access the survey (which contains 70 questions).

This study has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects (phone: 724-357-7730 or e-mail: irb-research@iup.edu). If you have any questions regarding this study, please feel free to contact me (a.i.fowler@iup.edu) or my thesis advisor, Dr. John Mueller at jmueller@iup.edu.

Sincerely,

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