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SEXUAL BATTERY IN THE CONTEXT OF INTIMATE PARTNERSHIPS:

**EXAMINING THE LINK BETWEEN
ROMANTIC ATTACHMENT & SEXUAL ASSAULT
VIA
THE INTERPERSONAL APPERCEPTIVE TECHNIQUE**

by

Jacqueline N. Guajardo

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York

2004

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Abstract

**SEXUAL BATTERY IN THE CONTEXT OF INTIMATE
PARTNERSHIPS:
EXAMINING THE LINK BETWEEN ROMANTIC ATTACHMENT,
SEXUAL ASSAULT & INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE
VIA
THE INTERPERSONAL APPERCEPTIVE TECHNIQUE**

by

Jacqueline N. Guajardo

Adviser: Jeffrey Rosen, Ph.D.

The Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) -- a new projective instrument, Griffin and Bartholomew's RSQ (1994) measure of the four category model of adult attachment, and the Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS 2) (Straus et al, 1996) were used to examine the relationship between attachment style and both projected and actual sexual violence perpetrated by men against female intimate partners. Sexual violence was disaggregated into 1) overt sexual violence and 2) covert sexual violence. The literature on attachment and sexual offending was used to advance four major hypotheses: 1) on measures of projected violence (IAT) *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached men were predicted to exhibit more sexual violence (combined covert and overt sexual violence) compared to men with either *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles; 2) *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached men were predicted to reveal more overt sexual violence on both projective measures (IAT) and self-report inventories (CTS 2) of actual violence compared to men with either *preoccupied* or *secure* attachment styles; 3) men with *secure* and *preoccupied* attachment styles were predicted to reveal more covert sexual violence on projective measures (IAT) compared to both *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached men, and 4) both *dismissingly* and *fearfully*

attached men were predicted to report more overt sexual violence on measures of actual violence (CTS 2) compared to men with either *preoccupied* or *secure* attachment styles. Data was collected and analyzed in two separate phases using both grounded theory and Analysis of variance. In Phase 1, 20 men recruited from an area GED program completed the IAT as a measure of projected violence and the RSQ attachment measure. Results for Phase 1 showed *dismissingly* attached men to report significantly higher rates of both sexual and covertly sexual violence. In Phase 2, 15 adult men in treatment for the prevention of family violence completed the RSQ, IAT and CTS2 as a measure of actual violence. Results for Phase 2 showed near significant differences only for projected sexual violence with *fearfully* attached men revealing more sexual violence on the IAT compared to *dismissingly* attached men. Secondary hypotheses regarding attachment style and non-sexual violence were also tested and discussed.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Purpose, Research Questions & Supporting Literature Domains

This study is a beginning attempt toward utilizing attachment theory and projective techniques in the exploration of the issues involved in the sexual assault of women by male intimates. It has been designed with three key questions in mind: 1) Can some instances of male to female partner violence be conceptualized as sexual violence based on crime scene analysis and battering behavior, and using the FBI crime scene classification guidelines for sexual homicide (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985), 2) Can the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT), a newly created projective instrument, be used as an index for both attribution of motive to commit violence and type of violence? 3) What, if any, role does attachment style play in predicting sexual violence between intimate partners?

Research on batterer typologies, theory regarding the causes of intimate partner violence, attachment theory and its implications for sexual violence, and the empirical research on the use and efficacy of projective measures in offender research are the central conceptual domains relevant to this dissertation. Also supporting this effort are the literatures regarding the scope and consequences of intimate partner violence and current perspectives on the analysis and classification of sex crimes.

Sexual Battery: An Overlooked Subtype of Intimate Partner Violence

Each year in the United States approximately 1.5 million women are raped and or physically assaulted by male intimates, not strangers. (Tjaden & Thoennes,

1998). Moreover, a comparison of the research on intimate partner violence (Ganley, 1981; Russell, 1990; Hofeller, 1992 Campbell, 1992) and sex crimes (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985; Myers et al, 1993; Myers, 1994; Myers & Blashfield, 1997 Schlesinger, & Revitch, 1999) reveals that during their physical attacks against female intimates some batterers display many of the same paraphilic, sexually symbolic, and sexually sadistic behaviors as violent sexual offenders. How, or if, sexually violent batterers differ from batterers who do not sexually assault their intimate partners is unknown. However, the mere fact that these men display battering behaviors that are similar, if not identical, to men who commit sexual violence outside of their intimate relationships suggests that they may be a distinct subgroup of batterers who are qualitatively different from their physically assaultive only counterparts.

Until recently, scant attention has been paid to men's sexual violence against female intimate partners. In fact, while researchers of intimate partner violence have long recognized the existence of sexual violence in some battering relationships (Russell, 1990; Hofeller, 1990; Hanson Frieze, 1983) most have dismissed it as just one form of power and control. Overwhelmingly, men's sexual violence against women in general has been conceptualized as having nothing to do with sex and everything to do with power and subjugation (Brownmiller, 1975; Burt, 1980; Stanko, 1985; Russell, 1990; Hanson Frieze, 1983). This literature review identified only one researcher, Anne Ganley (1982), who recognized sexual violence in intimate partnerships as a separate and distinct behavior requiring assessment and intervention. Despite that recognition, Ganley

(1982) did not offer a strategy for intervening in sexual violence, nor did she speculate about why some men use sex as a means to power and control and others do not.

The position that sexual violence (especially when committed within intimate partnerships) has nothing to do with sex and everything to do with power and control, is still prevalent among researchers and clinicians in the fields of psychology and sociology today, and is evident in the American Psychological Association's (APA) (APA, 1996) definition of domestic violence. According to the APA Task Force on Violence and the Family (APA, 1996), domestic violence is defined as a pattern of wide ranging abusive behaviors that includes various acts of physical, sexual and psychological maltreatment used by one person in an intimate relationship against another to gain power unfairly or maintain that person's misuse of power, control and authority.

Clearly, the APA has chosen to define all batterers as a monolithic group who are motivated to commit violence by a common desire for power and control. Interestingly, this view is at odds with some of the current research on batterer typologies, which suggests that batterers are a heterogeneous group made up of different subgroups which may be differentiated by battering behavior and motivation to commit violence (Dutton, 1998; Saunders, 1992; Tweed & Dutton, 1998, Holzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994). Moreover, the APA definition obscures the fact that some instances of male to female partner violence may be more accurately described and explained as an expression of deviant sexual arousal and gratification. For instance, studies on fetishism (Wiederman, 2003)

and sadomasochism (Berner, Berger, & Hill, 2003) have found that some men may either be unable or prefer not to engage in reciprocal and/or consensual sexual activities. Such men may only be able, or prefer, to achieve sexual arousal and orgasm through violence, intimidation, degradation, or by using fetish objects with or without the involvement of a partner. Still, other research on attachment and sexual offending (Ward et al, 1996; Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b) has found that some men use sexual violence and coercion primarily to establish tolerable levels of proximity, contact and intimacy.

Interviews with female victims of intimate partner violence have found that some batterers engage in fetish and sexually sadistic behaviors before, during, or after assaulting them (Finkelhor & Yllo, 1985; Russell, 1990; Hofeller, 1990). In such cases, it is conceivable that violence is the means to achieving the primary goals of sexual arousal and gratification. Although power and control may also be obtained through violence, they may be secondary to the attainment of sexual gratification, and/or maintenance of comfortable levels of intimacy. Hence, it could be that at least some men are sexually motivated to commit violence against female intimates, while others may be driven more by the need to control or obtain power over them. At minimum, the primary motives of sex, attachment needs and control are confounded in these cases.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation's classification guidelines for identifying sex crimes (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985) and other researchers (Myers, 1994) there are several observations and crime scene elements that aid in establishing a crime as sexually motivated, including the

victim's attire or lack of clothing, exposure of the victim's breasts and or genitals, sexual positioning of the body, sexual injury, evidence of sexual activity on, in or near the victim's body, and evidence of substitute sexual activity or sadistic fantasy. Substitute sexual activity has been widely accepted by law enforcement personnel and forensic psychologists as including breaking and entering, fetish burglary, and cutting (Schlesinger & Revitch, 1999). Overkill, or the infliction of trauma beyond what is necessary to cause death, and mutilation of the sex organs have also been identified as highly suggestive of sexual motivation (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985; Myers et al, 1993; 1998).

The rationale for defining these particular activities as sex crimes is rooted in case histories. For example, Shlesinger and Revitch (1999) examined the case histories of 14 notorious sexual murders (i.e., men who committed overt sexual violence, such as rape, during their attacks) and found that all of them had a prior history of burglary, beginning as early as age nine. While no obvious sexual activity occurred during the commission of these burglaries, statements made by these offenders revealed their crimes to be sexually motivated. For example, convicted murderer, William Hiren, reported that he developed a fetish for women's underwear at age nine. Soon thereafter he began to burglarize in order to obtain the undergarments. Hiren reportedly became sexually excited at the site of the open window at the place to be burglarized and ejaculated while going through the window. He was later convicted of killing two women and murdering and dismembering a six-year-old girl.

Rationale for Using Projective Test Measures to Identify

The Sexually Motivated Batterer

Cases like that of William Hirens have led to the widely held belief that fantasy is a disinhibiting factor in almost all sex crimes and sex murders (Myers & Blashfield, 1997; Prentky et al, 1989). In a study of sexual homicide offenders, Schlesinger & Revitch (1999) found that sexually sadistic and aggressive fantasies are found in most cases of sexual burglary that end in male to female homicide. Sadistic fantasy derived from the perpetrator's need to dominate, humiliate and inflict suffering on his victim in order to achieve his fullest sexual pleasure has been found to be refined over time and acted out in progressive behavioral tryouts. There is also evidence that violent fantasies may develop early in sexual homicide offenders. For instance, a study by Ressler and colleagues' (as cited by Meyers et al, 1993) examined adults convicted of sexual homicide and found that the average age of onset of rape fantasies for sexual homicide offenders who had themselves been sexually abused was 11.6 years, and the mean age of onset for those who had not been so abused was 15.3 years. Another important finding suggested by that study is that as much as 50% of those married sexual offenders studied enacted their murderous and sexually sadistic fantasies with their wives and children. These findings are important to the present study for two reasons. Firstly, they suggest that an in depth examination of the fantasy life of men who commit violence against women may reveal the hidden motives for and sexually symbolic nature of their violence. Secondly, they provide support for the use of projective techniques as an appropriate method for

identifying the dynamics involved in male to female violence, especially sexual violence.

There is empirical and clinical support for the efficacy of projective techniques to correctly identify sexual offenders. Clinical studies (Pam & Rivera, 1995) using the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) (Morgan & Murray, 1935) have determined it to be effective in detecting both the presence of sexual pathology and the impact of such pathology on the internal representations of individuals. Similarly, other studies involving projective measures resembling the TAT have provided initial evidence for the power of projective techniques to accurately discriminate sexually motivated offenders from other types of offenders (Schlesinger & Kutash, 1981.)

Personal Observations & Case Examples of The Criminal Justice System's Response to Sexual Violence Between Intimate Partners

A comparison of the research on intimate partner violence (Russell, 1990; Hofeller, 1992; Campbell, 1992) and sex crimes (Myers et al, 1993; Schlesinger, & Revitch, 1999; FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985; Myers, 1994) reveals that during their physical attacks against female intimate partners, some batterers display many of the same paraphilic (deviant sexual arousal and behaviors), sexually symbolic, and sexually sadistic behaviors as violent sexual offenders. For instance, Myers and Blashfield (1997) conducted a study of 14 juvenile sexual homicide offenders and found vaginal rape, oral rape and fondling to be among the most frequent forms of sexual assault committed by these young men. Additionally, they found that the most common weapon used during their attacks

was a cutting instrument, usually a knife. The second most common method of attack was the use of bludgeons, followed by strangulation. This parallels the activities of that group of men who sexually assaulted their romantic partners reported on by Russell (1990). The behavioral similarities between these two groups of men suggest the need to explore the possible sexual symbolism and function of particular battering behaviors, such as cutting and strangulation.

In my own work with batterers and sexual offenders I too have observed similar patterns in the assaultive behaviors of some men who commit violence against their female intimates and serious sexual offenders like those reported on by Meyers and colleagues (1993). The following case descriptions of Mr. X and Mr. Z provide a chilling description of the sexual dynamics underlying some men's use of violence against both female intimates and other family members.

During my past work as a forensic psychology extern on the Forensic Psychiatry Unit of Bellevue Hospital, I had the opportunity to work with Mr. X. Mr. X was brought to the Unit by New York City Police officers soon after he was charged with murdering his wife and infant child. According to police reports, Mr. X murdered his wife and child by literally chopping them into pieces. After the murder, Mr. X allegedly placed his child's genitals on the bed next to his wife's dismembered body. He then made a serious suicide attempt. Reports from the attending psychiatrist and psychologist indicated that Mr. X was not under the influence of drugs or alcohol at the time of his offense and that he had a long history of physically assaulting his wife. Unfortunately, little else is known about the severity, nature or pattern of those prior assaults.

I became acquainted with the case of Mr. Z while working as a psychology extern at the Office of the District Attorney, King's County. My knowledge of him and of his violence and sexual behavior is based on police reports, crime scene photos and personal interviews with his friends and co-workers. Mr. Z murdered his ex-girlfriend by repeatedly stabbing her with a sharp metal object. The victim's blood stained undergarments were found at the crime scene.

According to statements made by Mr. Z to the examining psychologist, on the day of the murder, he met with the victim with the intention of getting back together. She is said to have rejected Mr. Z telling him that she was already romantically involved with someone else. Later that same day, the two met again. This time, they met at Mr. Z's home. At some point during that second meeting, the two of them entered Mr. Z's bedroom where he told the victim that he wanted to have sex with her. According to a written statement made by Mr. Z, he heard the victim began to kiss when she suddenly withdrew from him telling him to "stop." Mr. Z acknowledged feeling very frustrated by the victim's sudden withdrawal from him. In the moments that followed, Mr. Z stabbed the victim numerous times killing her by multiple wounds to the internal organs.

Investigation into the couple's sexual relationship revealed a history of impaired and frustrating sexual relations. For instance, Mr. Z described his sexual relationship with the victim as being fraught with "dry spells" when she would threaten to find another man if he did not have sex with her. Mr. Z also acknowledged purposefully withholding sex from the victim as a means of

maintaining a comfortable space away from her. Mr. Z also reported to have a longstanding problem with premature ejaculation.

In addition to his disturbed sexual relationship with the victim, Mr. Z acknowledged having a longstanding fetish for older women dressed in stockings and high heels, which began sometime during adolescence. Mr. Z stated that as a teenager he found it difficult to meet older women “in their thirties,” so he solicited call girls that advertised in magazines. He would sometimes meet these women in hotel rooms where they would masturbate him and he would rub his penis against their stocking clad legs. Mr. Z also revealed that he enacted these fetish behaviors with the victim, stating that he found it sexually arousing to see her dressed in stockings and high heels and often asked her to do so. She is reported to have occasionally, but reluctantly complied with his requests. Interviews with coworkers revealed that Mr. Z also possessed other unusual sexual predilections. Specifically, he was reported to have acknowledged being completely disinterested in having sexual intercourse and experienced severe headaches when attempting to masturbate himself.

The murders committed by Mr. X and Mr. Z reflect some type of perverse or unusual sexual preoccupation and/or behavior on the part of the perpetrator. Mr. X mutilated his child’s genitals. Mr. Z’s encounters with his victim on the day of the murder were fraught with sexual frustration, the victim’s blood soaked undergarments were found at the crime scene and he killed her by multiple stabs to the body. Bodily mutilation, sexual positioning of the victim’s body, multiple stab wounds, and evidence of clothing at the scene of a crime are among the FBI

(FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985) classification criteria for sex crimes. The sexual dynamics underlying these behaviors and objects have been variously described by psychodynamic theorists (Meyers et al, 1993). Despite their sexual undertones, both murders were classified as domestic homicides rather than sexual murders. The decision to prosecute the murder under the jurisdiction of domestic violence can be attributed to the fact that police did not recognize the covert sexual dynamics of the crime. From a clinical perspective failing to identify the sexual dynamics involved in the commission of intimate partner violence increases the risk that such perpetrators may be mandated to rehabilitation programs that fail to address the sexual nature of their violent tendencies.

Sexual Violence Defined as an Attachment Process

Attachment theory as originally formulated by Bowlby (1969) and later expanded upon by others (Ainsworth et al,1978; Hazan & Shaver ,1987; Bartholomew ,1990; Kirkpatrick,1998) provides a framework for explaining the process by which sex and aggression can become fused together and manifested through sexual violence between intimate partners. For instance, empirical support has been generated for the utility of attachment style to differentiate among patterns of battering behavior and motive to batter (Tweed & Dutton, 1998) and to discriminate between individuals who prefer monogamous sexual relationships and traditional sexual practices from those who prefer to have multiple sex partners and to engage in unusual or deviant sexual activities (Kirkpatrick, 1998). Attachment style has also been associated with different

offending patterns among sexual offenders (Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b; Marshall & Marshall,1995).

A basic premise of attachment theory as originally articulated by Bowlby (1969) is that attachment behavior is not limited to childhood. He posited that, based on their attachment relationships with caretakers, children form internal working models, or internal representations in memory of themselves and others, which provide the foundation for later personality development, as well as serve to direct expectations of and behaviors toward other people. For example, a person who has a history of cold and rejecting relationships with primary caretakers may come to view him- or herself as unlovable and thus expect to be rejected by others. New experiences with others may subsequently be interpreted so as to fit his or her view of him- or herself as unlovable and others as cold and rejecting (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Research has shown childhood attachment patterns to be consistent and predictive of the way individuals relate to others in future adult relationships (Ainsworth, 1989; Zeifman & Hazan, 1997; Collins & Read, 1990)

Much of the recent research on adult attachment, particularly in the area of adult attachment and intimate partner violence (Tweed & Dutton, 1998) and attachment and sexual offending (Ward et al, 1995; Marshall & Marshall,1995) has been conceptualized using Bartholomew and colleague's (Bartholomew,1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Griffin & Bartholmew, 1994) two-dimensional model of attachment. In that model, views of the self and views of the other are combined to form four qualitatively different attachment styles: 1) secure

attachment, 2) dismissing attachment, 3) preoccupied attachment and 4) fearful attachment. Each of the four attachment styles are formed by various combinations of positive and negative views of self and other.

Drawing from Bowlby's original thinking (1969) Bartholomew's (1990) model contends that a negative view of self originates from early experiences with an unavailable or rejecting caretaker and is characterized by a sense of one's self as being unlovable or somehow inadequate. Similarly, a negative concept of others is believed to originate from these same conditions but is characterized by the belief that others are rejecting and uncaring. On the other hand, positive views of both the self and other are believed to grow out of a caring and supportive relationship with early caretakers. A positive self-view is characterized by the belief that one is worthy of love and attention. A positive view of others is characterized by the belief that others are warm, caring, and emotionally and physically available. Each of Bartholomew's (1990) four prototypical attachment styles is formed by a combination of these positive and negative working models of self and other. The *secure* style is defined by a positive view of self and other. The *dismissing* style is defined by a positive sense of self and negative view of other. The *preoccupied* style is defined by a positive view of other and a negative view of self. The *fearful* style is defined by a negative view of both self and other.

Marshall (1989; 1993) has been credited as the first theorist to explicitly make the link between attachment theory and sexual offending (Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b). In his work with sexual offenders he observed that many sex

offending men had insecure childhood attachments, which prevented them from developing the interpersonal skills and self-confidence necessary to achieve intimacy with other adults. According to Marshall (1989; 1993), emotionally lonely and lacking in the skills needed to develop intimacy (e.g., trust, interdependence, affection and self-disclosure between partners) with another person, sex offenders may indirectly seek emotional intimacy through sex, even if they have to force a partner to participate. The fusion of the need for emotional closeness with the drive for sex, can sometimes lead to a pattern of persistent sexual promiscuity and escalating sexual deviance. Essentially, Marshall (1989; 1993) and those accepting of his views (Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b) explain deviations in sexual behavior and arousal (e.g., pedophilia, sexual sadism and fetishism) as dysfunctional attachment behaviors that are initiated in order to maintain tolerable levels of proximity, contact, and intimacy between partners.

Recently, it has been suggested that attachment style is directly related to the manner in which individuals commit their sexual offense. Predicated on Bartholmew's (1990) four- category model of attachment, Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b) propose that each of the three styles of insecure attachment (*preoccupied*, *fearful*, and *dismissing*) predict distinct patterns of sexual offending behavior. For example, *preoccupied* offenders (negative self-view and positive view of others), are conceptualized as having strong needs for approval and acceptance by others. Such offenders have been observed to be sexually preoccupied and attempt to meet their needs for security and affection through sexual interactions (Shaver & Hazan, 1988) Drawing from these observations, and

based on the assumption that *preoccupied* individuals care about how their victims feel, Ward et al (1995a; 1995b) predict that *preoccupied* offenders will engage in grooming behaviors (e.g. courting, winning the victim's confidence) rather than more aggressive or coercive tactics. They also predict that preoccupied sexual offenders will have a preference for child victims, given that children are usually more impressionable and admiring of others than are adults.

On the other hand, *fearful* offenders (negative view of self and other) are conceptualized as having a desire for social contact and intimacy. However, they also possess a pervasive distrust of and fear of rejection by others (Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Consequently, Ward et al (1995a; 1995b) expect *fearful* offenders to display a preference for impersonal sex (e.g. fetishes, sex with strangers) as a means of keeping partners at a tolerable distance emotionally. Similarly, their use of force and coercion is likely to be instrumental in that it is a means to a personal end. Given their history of failed interpersonal relationships and perceived (or real) rejection, *fearful* offenders are thought to harbor feelings of resentment and hostility. Therefore, *fearful* offenders are not anticipated to possess much victim empathy or to feel remorse for their offending behavior. Finally, *dismissing* offenders (positive view of self & negative view of others) are thought to avoid close interpersonal relationships and tend to blame others for their lack of intimacy. Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b) contend that their lack of experience in close relationships, combined with their open hostility toward others is likely to result in serious deficits in empathy. *Dismissing* offenders are thought to associate deep emotional satisfaction with the

expression of hostility. Consequently, their sexually aggressive behavior is expected to be impersonal, non-instrumental and sadistic.

The present study employs Bartholomew's (1990) four-category model of adult attachment and Ward et al's (1995a; 1995b) model of attachment and sexual offending in the exploration of the relationship between attachment and the perpetration of sexual violence by men against female intimates.

Significance of the Study

The ability to identify and differentiate sexually motivated batterers from other types of batterers has implications for the treatment, adjudication and disposition of all batterers. From a clinical perspective, assessment of the batterer's attachment style and associated interpersonal goals and strategies can help to inform the approach to and delivery of treatment services. For example, the treatment needs of a man whose battering behavior is characterized by fears of rejection and abandonment are very different from those of a man who is dismissive of emotional intimacy and sadistic in his violence. Different problems in attachment and intimacy require different goals and interventions. From a sociological and forensic perspective, differentiating among types of batterers could aid in determining whether particular acts of intimate partner violence should be adjudicated as sex crimes or assaults, thereby enabling more appropriate and relevant sentencing and rehabilitation efforts.

Hypotheses

The primary aim of this dissertation is to advance the understanding of the sexually motivated batterer. To this end, it tested whether or not Ward et al's

(1995a; 1995b) attachment-driven model for sexual offending could be applied to predict and explain different patterns of both projected and actual violence perpetrated by men against their female intimate partners. The following hypotheses were proposed:

- 1) On measures of projected violence and for both batterers and non-batterers, there will be significant differences in the distribution of overall violence across attachment style, with the *securely-attached* men expected to reveal less overall violence compared to men with *preoccupied, dismissing* or *fearful* attachment styles;
- 2) *Dismissingly* and *fearfully- attached* men (batterers and non-batterers) will exhibit more sexual violence (combined overt and covert sexual violence) on projective measures compared to men (batterers and non-batterers) with *preoccupied* or *secure* attachment styles;
- 3) *Dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached men (batterers and non-batterers) will exhibit more overtly sexual violence on projective measures compared to men (batterers and non-batterers) with *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles; and
- 4) Men (batterers and non-batterers) with *preoccupied* and *secure* attachment styles will exhibit more covert sexual violence on projective measures compared to *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached men (batterers and non-batterers).
- 5) On measures of actual violence, *dismissingly* and *fearfully- attached* batterers will report higher scores for sexual violence (overt sexual

violence) compared to batterers with *preoccupied* or *secure* attachment styles.

CHAPTER TWO:
REVIEW OF THE SUPPORTING LITERATURE

The Scope and Consequences of Male to Female Intimate Partner Violence

Male to female intimate partner violence is a major social and public health problem in the United States. In a review of national violence surveys, Burgess et al (1997) found that each year 1500 women are murdered, and at least 2 million other women are battered by an intimate partner (e.g., husband, ex-husband, boyfriend, or ex-boyfriend). Citing the Bureau of Justice Statistics, Burgess et al (1997) also reported that in 1992 and 1993 about 500,000 rapes against women were recorded each year. Twenty-nine percent (145,000) of those rapes were committed by the victims' intimate partners.

A more recent survey by the National Institute of Justice Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (NIJ-CDCP) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998) cites comparable numbers regarding the frequency of physical assault and rape against women by male intimates. Using a telephone survey of a nationally representative sample of 8,000 women and 8,000 men, the NIJ-CDCP found that 25 percent or 2,000, of all of the women surveyed reported having been physically assaulted and or raped by a current or former spouse, cohabiting partner or date at some point in their lives. Moreover, 1.5 percent of all women surveyed indicated that they had sustained an attack or rape by such a partner within the past 12 months. Based on U.S. Census estimates of the number of men and women living in the United States, these NIJ-CDCP statistics equate to approximately 1.5 million

women who are raped and or physically assaulted by a male intimate partner annually.

The discrepancy among estimated rates of occurrence for male to female partner violence and rape cited here may be explained by the fact that each study employed slightly different populations, methodologies and definitions of rape and physical assault. For instance, the NIJ-CDCP telephone survey reports findings based on data from subjects age 18 and older and defined rape in terms of forced vaginal, oral and anal intercourse only (Tjaden, & Thoennes, 1998), whereas some of the studies reviewed by Burgess et al (1997) drew from samples of subjects age 12 and older and included additional forms of sexual assault, such as grabbing, fondling and verbal threats of a sexual nature. Nonetheless, even the lowest of these estimates suggests that partner assault and rape is a major source of injury to American women.

The physical and psychological costs of intimate partner violence and rape have been well-documented (Campbell, 1989; Campbell & Alford, 1989; Hanson Frieze, 1983; Morton et al, 1998; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; Wilson & Daly, 1993b; Whatley, 1993). In general, at least 18 physical injuries have been frequently associated with physical attacks against women by male partners. These include: (1) scratches, (2) bruises, (3) welts, (4) lacerations, (5) knife wounds, (6) broken bones (7) dislocated joints, (8) head injury, (9) spinal chord injury, (10) sore muscle, (11) muscle sprain, (12) muscle strain, (13) internal injury, (14) chipped or broken teeth, (15) burns, (16) being rendered unconscious, (17) bullet wounds, and (18) death (Tjaden, & Thoennes, 1998).

The psychological correlates of partner violence and sexual abuse are as vast and traumatic, as are their physical correlates. Whatley (1993) reviewed the literature on marital rape and found victims to report experiencing difficulty trusting men, phobias of intimacy and sex, an enduring fear of being re-victimized, a tendency toward suicidality, substance abuse, and psychosomatic illness. He also found that compared to women, who were battered but not raped by their partners, victims of partner rape report lower self-esteem and a poorer image of their bodies. In an earlier study, Hanson Frieze (1983) compared the emotional reactions of female victims of partner battery to female victims of both partner battery and rape. Like Whatley (1993), he found the latter group to experience greater feelings of self-blame and depression.

The damage resulting from intimate partner violence extends beyond the individual victim to the larger familial and social contexts and has been measured in terms of the use of medical services and the long-term effects of partner violence on children. Data from the National Institute for Justice Center for Disease Control and Prevention survey (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998) found that 36 percent of all women injured during their most recent rape since age 18, and 30 percent of the women injured during their most recent physical assault since age 18 received some type of medical treatment (e.g., ambulance or paramedic service, hospital emergency room treatment, physical therapy). Twenty-five percent of these injuries were identified to be the direct result of partner violence, thus establishing male to female partner violence as a major, and financially costly, public health problem in the United States.

Other studies (Carlson, 1984; McNeal & Amato, 1998) have examined the costs of intimate partner violence in terms of its effects on children. More than 3 million children witness interparental violence annually (Carlson, 1984). In a review of the relevant literature McNeal and Amato (1998) found that children's exposure to interparental violence is associated with a variety of behavioral, psychological and social problems among children and that these problems may be long lasting. For instance, they found some studies to show that adults suffering from depression and other psychological disorders, such as anxiety and low self-esteem report more childhood family conflict than do matched controls, while other studies suggested that people who witness parental violence are more likely to become involved in violent relationships as adults, as either the victim or the perpetrator.

Causes of Intimate Partner Violence: Major Theoretical Perspectives

Through the years male to female intimate partner violence has been explained from multiple perspectives including socio-biological, feminist, social learning and attachment theories. While each of these theories has done much to elucidate the many factors that converge to facilitate and perpetuate male to female intimate partner violence, it is attachment theory that offers the most comprehensive and explanative framework for conceptualizing and differentiating all of the various forms of partner violence -- including that which involves sexual violence. To appreciate attachment theory's explanative power, first consider the contributions and limitations of alternate frameworks.

The Socio-biological & Feminist Perspectives

Both the socio-biological (Buss, 1994; Daly & Wilson, 1988; Wilson & Daly, 1993a) and feminist perspectives (Bograd, 1988; Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Pagelow, 1992; Pence, 1989) conceptualize male to female partner violence as a dysfunctional expression of male power. However, the two theories disagree on the source and target of men's drive for power. From the sociobiological perspective what is crucial for the male to control is the woman's reproductive exclusivity, thus placing sexual jealousy as an important precursor to intimate violence (Dutton, 1998). Viewed through this lens, coercive and demeaning behavior by the batterer, such as insults about his partner's personal appearance, serve to generate male power by undercutting the woman's self-esteem, thereby improving the likelihood of sexual exclusivity (Dutton, 1998; Wilson & Daly, 1993). On the other hand, feminist theorists (Bograd, 1988; Dobash & Dobash, 1979) conceptualize male to female partner violence as a systematic form of men's domination and control of women. For them, it is the maintenance of the patriarchy and patriarchal institutions which men strive to control through assaults against their female intimates (Dutton, 1998).

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1979) has also been applied to explain how partner violence originates and continues. From a social learning perspective, all physical abuse is a habit, or learned means, of managing stress. When violence succeeds in either reducing stress or eliminating the source of

stress (e.g. silencing or controlling an intimate partner) it is likely to be repeated as a successful means of coping with unpleasant or stressful situations.

Sociobiological, Feminist & Social Learning Perspectives:

Contributions and Limitations

The socio-biological perspective's primary contribution to the understanding of intimate partner violence has been the identification of a potential reason for the widespread theme of sexual jealousy that is so often indicated in cases of partner assault (Dutton, 1998). On the other hand, the feminist perspective has called attention to the role that social factors play in creating and maintaining the context in which male to female violence may occur, and the principles of social learning theory have provided the foundation on which the first treatment and intervention programs for male batterers were designed (Dutton, 1998).

Despite their significant contributions to the understanding of intimate partner violence, each of these theoretical perspectives is limited in that they do not account for the wide variation in patterns of violence observed among batterers. In particular, they fail to explain why some, but not all, men incorporate elements of sexual activity into their violence. In fact, only the feminist perspective (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Bograd, 1988) directly addresses the issue of sexual violence between intimate partners. Yet despite its attention to the issue, feminist theory presents a monolithic view of sexual violence, conceptualizing it in all its various forms as yet another means men use to control women. In so doing, feminist theory fails to both consider the individual

psychodynamics involved in intimate partner violence and to explain why some men use sex to exercise power over women, while others employ different means, such as verbal or physical, but not sexual, violence.

The Explanative Power of The Four Category Model of Attachment & Intimate Partner Violence

By focusing on the regulation of intimacy in close relationships, attachment theory, and particularly the 4-category model of adult attachment (Bartholomew, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), provides a possible framework for understanding and differentiating among various forms of battering behavior, including sexual battery, between intimate partners. For instance, research (Roberts & Noller, 1998) shows that violence tends to occur during transitions from one level of intimacy to another, such as during the transition from a platonic to a sexual relationship, or from dating to marriage. Some studies (Rounsaville, 1978; Hofeller, 1982) report that between 16 to 40 percent of all fist incidents of male to female partner violence take place immediately following marriage or pregnancy. From an attachment perspective, the use of violence during transitions from lower to higher levels of intimacy is explained as a dysfunctional attachment behavior that is initiated in order to maintain tolerable levels of proximity, contact, and intimacy between partners (Kesner et al, 1997). The 4-category model of adult attachment developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) has been applied to identify and differentiate among types of batterers (Tweed & Dutton, 1998; Mauricio & Gormley; 2001) and types of sexual offenders, such as rapists, child

molesters and exhibitionists (Marshall & Marshall, 1995; Ward et al, 1996). The relevant literature for each of these areas will be presented following a general overview of the four-category model of adult attachment (Bartholomew, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

Overview of the Four Category Model of Adult Attachment

Essentially, Bartholomew's (1990) model of adult attachment is an extension and modification of Bowlby's (1969) concepts of emotional and behavioral *attachment patterns* and *internal working models*. Bowlby (1969) believed that in order to survive, the infant must develop an affiliative bond between itself and the primary caretaker. In Bowlby's model infant-initiated behaviors, which are intended to draw the caretaker toward it and to elicit protection or nurturance are referred to as attachment behaviors. The relationship between parent and child is referred to as the attachment relationship. Ainsworth et al (1978) later demonstrated that the quality of the attachment relationship is contingent upon the caretaker's response to the infant. They examined infants' responses to being separated and reunited with caretakers and identified three distinct patterns of attachment relationships, which they labeled -- secure, avoidant and anxious-resistant. Secure infants welcome their caretaker upon return and are distressed upon their departure. Anxious-resistant infants demonstrate ambivalence upon the caretaker's departure and return, whereas avoidant infants avoid contact with caretakers upon their return. Based on the history of early attachment relationships, individuals form "*internal working*

models ” of the self and the caretaker, which serve as the foundation for future relationships (Ainsworth et al, 1978; Bowlby, 1969).

Bartholomew (1990) and Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) extended this early work in attachment theory to explain attachment styles among adults. Their model is based on two levels (positive and negative) of two internal working models: an internal model of the self and an internal model of others. They combine each of these internal models to produce four prototypic styles of adult attachment: *secure*, *preoccupied*, *dismissing* and *fearful*. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) contend that persons with positive internal models of both the self and others exhibit a *secure* attachment style. Because these people view themselves as lovable and worthy and expect others to respond positively to them, they are comfortable with both intimacy and autonomy. In contrast, people with a *fearful* attachment style hold a negative view of themselves and others. They find themselves unlovable and expect to be rejected by others, and therefore avoid establishing close connections with other people. People with *preoccupied* attachment styles hold a negative self-view and a positive view of others. These people typically strive for self-acceptance by gaining the acceptance of highly valued others. Finally, persons with *dismissing* attachment styles possess a very positive view of self and a negative view of others. As such, they tend to be counter-dependent and deny a need for intimacy.

Bartholomew (1990) and Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) tested their four-category model of adult attachment in a series of two related studies involving young adults. Study one employed the use of a semi-structured

interview, which asked the friends and romantic partners of participating subjects to assess the degree to which subjects approximated each of the four attachment styles. These ratings were then compared to subjects' self-report ratings. Inter-correlations of friends' and romantic partners and subjects' attachment ratings were found to be consistent with the model. In study two, attachment styles within the family of origin and with peers were assessed separately. For each set of correlations the patterns of endorsed attachment styles were consistent with the model.

Research linking Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) four- category model of attachment to sexual behavior is now presented.

Attachment and Sexual Behavior

Hazan, Zeifman, and Middleton (1994) investigated the self-reports of a variety of sexual behaviors and interests in relation to attachment style. They found that respondents who evinced attachment related anxiety and ambivalence also showed a preference for unusual patterns of sexual interest. Avoidant respondents were noted to prefer purely sexual contact (e.g., oral and anal sex) to more intimate sexual contact, such as touching and kissing and a propensity to have multiple sexual partners, whereas secure subjects were the least likely to have sex outside of a committed relationship.

While Hazan and colleagues (1994) employed a slightly different model of attachment, their discriminatory criteria of attachment related anxiety and ambivalence is theoretically similar to the criteria that Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) use to differentiate among their secure, preoccupied, fearful and

dismissing attachment styles. Within Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) model people with attachment related anxiety and ambivalence would be classified as either fearful or preoccupied, while those who avoid attachment would be identified as dismissing, thus, suggesting the presence of similar relationships between the dismissing, fearful and preoccupied attachment style prototypes and unusual sexual practices. Evidence for such a relationship was found in a later study by Simpson and colleagues (as cited in Kirkpatrick, 1998). In that study dismissing respondents were the most likely to endorse a preference for unusual and promiscuous sexual activity. The link between specific styles of attachment and deviant sexual behaviors has been more directly examined in populations of sex offending men. These studies are now reviewed.

Attachment & Sexual Offending

Intimacy has been defined to consist of three continua: (1) closeness and interdependence of partners; (2) mutual self-disclosure; and (3) warmth and affection for one another (Perlman & Fehr, 1987). The capacity for intimacy is largely dependent upon the quality of early infant and childhood attachments (Marshall, 1989). If parents fail to meet the child's attachment needs because of neglect, lack of affection, emotional unavailability, inconsistent discipline or other dysfunctional behaviors, children may fail to develop the self-confidence and social skills needed to attain intimacy with another human being (Marshall, 1989; 1993). Children of mothers who are generally rejecting in their parenting styles (i.e., typically negative in their appraisal of their own child and/or express anger and derision toward them) have been observed to avoid close intimate contact

with others (Lewis & Schaeffer, 1979) and are more threatening and physically aggressive in their interpersonal relationships compared to children of non-rejecting mothers (George & Main, 1979).

The attainment of intimate relationships has been identified as a critical developmental task in the transition from adolescence to adulthood (Erikson 1959). Failure to develop the capacity for intimacy results in a profound sense of isolation that is analogous to the experience of emotional loneliness described by Weiss (1982). According to Weiss (1982) emotional loneliness is “separation anxiety without an object.” Loneliness, like the feelings experienced by children during separations from significant caretakers, involves anxiety, tension and restlessness. The difference between the two experiences is that separation anxiety involves discomfort about the loss of a definite person (object), whereas loneliness is felt as a pervasive feeling of emptiness.

Chronically lonely adults, especially men, have been observed to be hostile and aggressive (Zilboorg, 1938; Diamant & Windholz, 1981). Moreover, among university men, loneliness has been found to significantly predict self-reported incidents of past sexual aggression and the degree of self-reported likelihood of forcing an unwilling woman to have sex (Check et al 1985). Loneliness and lack of intimacy resulting from an inability to experience the empathy necessary to share in the emotional experiences of others has been widely noted among convicted sexual offenders (Marshall & Barbaree, 1989, Marshall, 1989). Erratic and rejecting parenting behaviors and disturbed

attachments have also been noted to distinguish the family backgrounds of such men (Marshall & Barbaree, 1984).

Marshall (1989; 1993) has been cited as the first theorist to articulate the role of intimacy and loneliness in a general theory about sexual offending (i.e. sexually deviant behavior) (Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b). For him (Marshall, 1989; 1993) the lack of a secure attachment bond is equivalent to both the absence of intimacy and the presence of emotional loneliness. Accordingly, he views intimacy as a basic human need because it enables the attainment of attachment bonds, which are necessary for the survival and fitness of the species. In adulthood, the level of and approach, or style, taken to pursue intimacy with another person is largely a product of parent-child attachments. Poor childhood attachments can result in either an avoidance of intimacy or an anxious/ambivalent (fearful or dismissing attachment) interpersonal style in adult relationships. Both of these interpersonal styles develop from a fear that all relationships will end in rejection or abuse.

Marshall's early theory (1989; 1993) contends that sexual offenders (and presumably all men who engage in forceful, coercive, promiscuous and/or deviant sexual acts regardless of whether or not they come into contact with the criminal justice system) confuse sexual contact with intimacy. Just how this confusion occurs is not clearly identified in Marshall's theory (1989; 1993). However, based on his observations that 1) physical accessibility is one of the fundamental defining features of attachment relationships and 2) many sexual offenders lack the capacity to empathize (e.g., share in mutual self-disclosure and

provide emotional support and understanding to another human being) with others, it can be inferred that men lacking in empathy may seek sexual contact as a misconstrued affirmation of attachment with another human being, since such contact confirms the other's accessibility. Marshall (1989) cites the anecdotal reports of rapists and exhibitionists who claimed that they hoped their victims would fall in love with them to support the idea that sexual offenders use sexual contact to affirm the presence of an attachment bond.

The notion of "sex as a psychological tether" (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994) has found support amongst other attachment theorists. For such researchers, the prototypic adult attachment bond involves the integration of three distinct behavioral systems -- attachment, caregiving and sexual mating (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994). Hazan and Zeifman (1994) cite a number of studies indicating that the relative importance of those three systems changes as a relationship progresses. Generally speaking, they report sex to be most important in the early stages of a relationship when sexual attraction among partners is at its highest. However, with time the degree to which a partner provides comfort and emotional support supercedes the importance of sexual contact. Hence, within adult attachment theory sexual attraction is what brings two adults together, and sex is what keeps them together long enough for an emotional attachment to form (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994).

Following that conceptualization, Marshall (1989; 1993) defines all forms of unusual and deviant sexual behaviors as maladaptive attachment behaviors, which are initiated to attain desired levels of intimacy. While his early theory

made no attempt to explain specific sexual behaviors in terms of particular attachment deficits, he clearly articulated the process by which sexually violent and sadistic behaviors against adult women may develop. For him, repeated failure to achieve intimacy in interpersonal relationships leads to the experience of emotional loneliness, which in turn leads to frustration. Men who attribute their loneliness and frustration to women may ultimately express their frustration as violence or sexual aggression against them.

Drawing from Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) four category model of adult attachment, Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b; 1996) extended Marshall's (1989;1993) theory to articulate a direct and predictive relationship between each one of Bartholomew and Horowitz's three styles of insecure attachment (1991) and sexual offense type. For instance, within that model of adult attachment, individuals possessing a *preoccupied* attachment style are characterized by sense of personal worthlessness and a positive view of others. Such people crave the approval of others. According to Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b; 1996), if and when such individuals engage in sexually offensive behaviors they are likely to do so only after a period of courtship-like behavior during which time they attempt to win the admiration and approval of prospective partners/victims. Moreover, because *preoccupied* individuals want to please their partners /victims they are not likely to use physical force or to be verbally abusive in their sexual behavior. These men are also susceptible to engage in sexual contact with minor children, from whom they feel they can most easily win approval and control over.

Within Ward et al's (1995a; 1995b;1996) extended model, people with a *fearful* attachment style desire intimacy and fear rejection similar to *preoccupied* individuals. However, their fear of rejection is so intense that they take measures to keep partners/victims at a safe distance. For instance, non-offending, *fearfully-attached* individuals may make themselves unavailable to partners by absorbing themselves in work or other activities, seek out multiple sexual partners, or engage in impersonal sexual fetish experiences. According to Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b; 1996), if and when *fearfully-attached* men sexually offend they are likely to be self-focused in their behavior. Moreover, because, these individuals devalue both themselves and others, they are likely to be unconcerned about their victim's feelings. Consequently, *fearfully-attached* offenders may use uninhibited force during their offense in order to achieve their goals.

Still, Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b; 1996) contend that for some men unfulfilled needs for intimacy and the consequent experience of emotional loneliness can lead to an aggressive disposition and susceptibility to engage in forceful and sadistic sexual behaviors. Within their theoretical model, *dismissingly attached* men are most vulnerable to this type of sexual offense. Such men hold a positive view of themselves and devalue others. They strive for autonomy and independence (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) - - perhaps, as a defense against emotional loneliness. *Dismissingly- attached* men also exhibit a tendency to blame others for the dearth of intimacy in their lives. Consequently, they are generally hostile toward others. Moreover, because they blame others for

their negative interpersonal experiences they are particularly hostile toward the gender of their preferred adult partners. According to Ward and colleagues (1995a; 1995b;1996), if and when dismissingly attached men sexually offend, they are likely to do so aggressively, if not sadistically.

Seidman (1992) examined the relationship between attachment disturbance and sexual offending among adult men (ages 18-74) by comparing levels of intimacy and emotional loneliness in different types of sex offenders, violent non-sexual offenders and non-offenders. She administered the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau & Cutrona, 1980) and Miller Social Intimacy Scale (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982) to seven groups of men: (1) rapists [n=17], (2) familial child molesters [n=15], (3) non-familial child molesters [n=15], (4) exhibitionists [n=18], (5) physical (non-sexual) assaulters of women [n=15], (6) community controls [n=16] and university controls [n=15]. In her study rapists were defined as men who had engaged in coercive on nonconsensual sexual contact with an adult female. Child molesters were defined as men who had some form of sexual contact with a child younger than 12 years of age. Familial child molesters had such contact with a child in their care. Non-familial child molesters had such contact with a child who was not in their care. Exhibitionists were defined as men who deliberately exposed their genitals to a non-consenting adult female. Physical assaulters were defined as men who had been convicted at least once for assault against a spouse or romantic partner, but had no history of ever being charged with any sort of sexual offense. The two

control groups were defined as non-offenders on the basis of having no history of either physical or sexual assault charges against them.

The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau & Cutrona, 1980) is a self-report measure of one's general feelings of loneliness. It consists of 20 statements, each reflecting the respondent's perceived satisfaction with interpersonal relationships (e.g. People are around me but not with me; There are people I feel close to ; No one really knows me well). Respondents indicate, on a 4-point scale (1 "never"; 2 "rarely"; 3 "sometimes"; 4 "often") how frequently they feel the way each statement suggests. Respondents may obtain a loneliness score ranging from 20 to 80. Seidman (1992) cites the mean Loneliness Scale score for college males to be 37. The Miller Social Intimacy Scale (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982) consists of 17 questions about the defining qualities of intimate partner relationships (e.g., How often do you show your wife/girlfriend affection; How important to you is it to listen to her very personal disclosures?). Respondents are asked to respond on a 10-point scale (of frequency or intensity) how much or how often these qualities exist in their current intimate relationship. Respondents' endorsements are summed (two items are reverse keyed) to produce an index of intimacy experienced in their current relationship. According to Seidman (1992), the creators of the test report a mean Intimacy score of 135 for unmarried men and 152 for married men.

To analyze the data, Seidman (1992) first combined the Intimacy and Loneliness scales into a single "package" in order to perform Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA). She then performed subsequent univariate

tests and multiple comparisons to determine the sources of any overall effects. Overall, she found that sex offenders as a group (e.g. rapists, child molesters and exhibitionists) reported significantly more loneliness ($F [1,99] = 19.44, p, .001$) and significantly less intimacy ($F [1,99] = 31.37, p, .001$) in their interpersonal relationships compared to controls. Similarly, she found that sex offenders reported to feel significantly lonelier ($F [1,99] = 8.79, p, .004$) and experienced significantly less intimacy ($F [1,99] = 6.99, p, .01$) compared to physical assaulters. Physical assaulters did not differ significantly from controls on either loneliness or intimacy, $F (2,98) = 1.35, (n.s)$.

Seidman (1992) also found that the four sex offender groups did not differ significantly from one another with respect to their generally high levels of loneliness ($F [3,55] > 1, n.s.$). Only level of intimacy was found to differentiate among type of offender. For instance, rapists reported significantly lower levels of intimacy compared to familial child molesters ($F [1,55] = 16.30, p, .001$). In general, Seidman (1992) reported rapists to be the most deficient in intimacy, whereas non-familial child molesters and exhibitionists were reported as moderately deficient and familial child molesters were found to be the least deficient compared to physical assaulters and controls.

Seidman's (1992) findings reported here have major implications for this dissertation. Specifically, the finding that rapists (defined as men who engage in coercive and forced sex with adult women) were the most deficient in intimacy suggests that as a group, rapists are more likely to have dismissing attachment styles than either preoccupied, fearful or secure attachment styles -- since a

dismissing attachment style is defined by a rejection of intimacy in interpersonal relationships. In fact, later studies (Hudson & Ward, 1997) have found that dismissingly attached offenders (sexual and non-sexual) are more accepting of rape myths compared to offenders with either a secure, preoccupied or fearful attachment style. Given those findings, it follows that men who commit overt sexual violence against female intimates are more likely to have a dismissing attachment style than either a secure, preoccupied or fearful attachment style.

Subsequent studies (Ward et al, 1996; Hudson & Ward, 1997; Marshall & Marshall, 1995) have found more direct support for the relationship between attachment style and sexual offending first suggested by Marshall (1989; 1993) and later expanded upon by Ward et al (1995a; 1995b). For instance, Ward et al, (1996) used two different self-report measures of Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) four-category model of adult attachment, the Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) and the Relationships Scales Questionnaire (RSQ), to assess and compare the romantic attachment styles (attachment style in relation to romantic partners) of incarcerated child molesters (n=55), rapists (n=30), violent non-sex offenders (32), and non-violent, non-sex offenders (n=30).¹

The RQ is a self-report measure that contains four different and brief paragraphs describing each of Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) four prototypic attachment styles. Respondents perform both a style-choice and style-

¹ Child molesters included men who had committed a range of sexual offenses against a minor child from masturbation to completed intercourse or sodomy with force. Rapists were defined as men whose offenses against adult women ranged from indecent assault to sadistic and predatory rape. Violent, non-sex offenders included men who had been convicted of offenses ranging from a fist -fight in a

rating task in response to the RQ, and thus produce two separate indices of attachment style. First, they are asked to choose which of the three prototypic descriptions best describes them, thus producing an index of *prototypical style choice*. Second, they are asked to rate on a seven-point scale, anchored with “*not at all like me*” to “*very much like me*,” the degree to which each of the prototypic styles matches their overall style in romantic partnerships, thus yielding a separate *attachment style rating*. The RSQ is comprised of 30 statements about how individuals feel in interpersonal relationships. The RSQ can be worded to assess general orientations to close relationships, romantic partnerships or any other specific interpersonal relationship. Eighteen of those statements can be divided to form four separate clusters representing each of Bartholomew and Horowitz’s (1991) attachment categories. Respondents are asked to rate on a five-point scale from (1) “not at all like me” to (5) “very much like me” the degree to which each statement describes him/her in the relationship under consideration. A more comprehensive description of the design and scoring of the RSQ is included in the Methods section of Chapter 3.

Ward et al (1996) report that consistent with their theoretical model and depending upon how attachment style was measured, child molesters were more likely to endorse either a *fearful* or *preoccupied* style. For instance, RQ *prototypical style choice* endorsements varied significantly across groups ($X^2(9) = 19.68, p = .02$) with child molesters more frequently endorsing a *fearful* attachment style. However, RQ *prototypical style ratings* yielded significant

bar to premeditated murder. Non-violent offenders included men convicted of driving offenses, drug-related crimes burglary and fraud.

differences between groups solely on the *preoccupied* dimension with child molesters scoring significantly higher than non-violent offenders. Still, significant differences on the RSQ rating scores revealed significant differences across groups on the *preoccupied* scale, with child molesters being indiscriminable from rapists, but significantly more preoccupied than both violent(violent but non-sexual) and non-violent (offenders who are not sexual or violent). RSQ rating scores also produced significant differences among groups on the *fearful* scale with both child molesters and violent, non-sexual offenders producing significantly higher scores than non-violent, non-sexual offenders.

Similarly and consistent with their model, Ward et al(1996) report that rapists appear to be more dismissing compared to child molesters, and non-violent, non-sexual offenders depending upon how attachment was measured. For instance, they reported significant differences in RSQ dismissing scores across offender groups with rapists and violent, non-sexual offenders being indiscriminable from each other but significantly higher than child molesters and non-violent, non-sexual offenders. However, rapists did not differ significantly from null expectancy across all four attachment categories with respect to either the RQ prototypic style choice endorsements or the RQ prototypic style rating scores.

Obviously, the discrepancies between the results from the three independent measures of attachment used in the Ward et al (1996) study (RQ prototypical style choice, RQ prototypical rating and the RSQ) highlight the inherent difficulties of measurement and suggest the need to use multiple

measurement techniques (e.g, interview and self report) to account for such method effects. Nonetheless, Ward et al's (1996) findings provide preliminary support for their model of attachment and sexual offending (Ward et al 1995a; 1995b). Specifically, their findings suggest a specific relationship between both preoccupied and fearful attachment styles and pedophilia, and dismissing attachment between both rape and violent non-sexual offending. The higher incidence of dismissing attachment in rapists noted by Ward and colleagues (1996) is also consistent with Seidman's (1992) finding that rapists are more lacking in intimacy than child molesters, exhibitionists, or controls.

Marshall and Marshall (1995) directly investigated Ward et al's (1995a; 1995b) hypothesis that sexual offenders with a preoccupied attachment style are more likely to be child molesters, and engage in specific behaviors before and during their offense. Specifically, they compared the attachment styles, level of physical coercion used, and degree of grooming behavior employed of a group of incarcerated rapists (n=16) and child molesters (n=16). Grooming behavior was determined by examining official court and police records of the perpetrators' offenses. Grooming behavior was considered to be present if there was clear evidence that the offender had spent time with the victim engaged in activities matching adult courtship behavior. Similarly, degree of force was obtained from official court and police records and was rated using a scale from 1 to 3 (0= no violence, 1 = threats, 2 = force sufficient for compliance, 3 = gratuitous violence.) Ratings for both grooming behavior and level of force were made by two independent judges. Marshall and Marshall (1995) report agreement between

judges on both factors to be more than 90%. Attachment style was assessed using both the Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) and the Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ) (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), both of which are described above.

Marshall and Marshall (1995) report that their study found support for the hypothesis that sexual offenders with a preoccupied attachment style are more likely to be child molesters as opposed to rapists of adult women. However, they did not provide the descriptive statistics nor explain the method of analysis used to support that finding. Similarly, they report that support was found for the hypothesis that offenders who exhibit grooming behavior are less likely to use force while offending compared to perpetrators who do not engage in grooming behaviors. Yet, again they did not provide descriptive or inferential statistics to support that claim. Nonetheless, they report that chi-square analysis revealed that those offenders classified as having a preoccupied attachment style on the RQ were more likely to engage in grooming behaviors than offenders possessing other attachment styles, $X^2(1, N = 32) = 7.31, p < .01$. Overall, Marshall and Marshall (1995) concluded that grooming behavior, preference for child victims, and low level of coercion is associated with a preoccupied attachment style.

The findings cited by Marshall and Marshall (1995) -- despite the caveats in the reporting and justification of those findings -- are relevant to this dissertation in that they suggest that the characteristic components of a preoccupied attachment style (e.g., desire for approval and affection from others) mitigate against the likelihood that men with a preoccupied attachment style

would perpetrate overt and/or aggressive sexual violence against an intimate partner.

Research on Batterer Typologies

Need to Identify The Sexual Batterer

Interestingly, none of the research on batterer typologies (at least none that the author could identify) has attempted to identify or differentiate the psychological or behavioral correlates of men who sexually assault their intimate partners from men who don't. This is surprising considering that men who sexually assault their intimate partners have also been identified to be more likely to both seriously injure, and kill or be killed by their victims (Walker, 1979; Hofeller, 1982; Russell, 1990; Campbell, 1992).

For instance, early interviews with victims (Hofeller, 1982, Russell, 1990; Campbell, 1989) provided evidence that some men physically and sexually assault their intimate partners, while others restrict their violence to physical attacks. Russell (1990) reviewed much of the early literature comparing battered women who had also been raped with women who were battered but not raped. She found that rape victims experienced more frequent and severe violence and suffered more physical injuries than victims who had not been raped. The following case descriptions told by two separate women and cited by Russell (1990) provide a graphic example of the frequency and severity of violence committed by some sexually assaultive batterers:

(Woman #1) He would take out his knife and he would cut marks in my skin with it. He would tie me whenever

we had sex to a bed or a chair or whatever. Sometimes he would force me to suck him and would stick his penis in my mouth all the time. Sometimes he would tie me around facing the other way and would have anal sex with me. He ripped my rectum so many times that the doctors in the emergency room would laugh when I walked in. I think his favorite was when he would masturbate and I had to masturbate him at the same time with various objects. He would use whatever was around ... (p. 278).

(Woman #2) One time when he wanted to have sex and I didn't, I woke up in the morning and found I was tied up in bed. This was possible because I was a very heavy sleeper. He tied my hands and feet to the bedposts so I could hardly move. To make a long story short, he assaulted me. Then he said, "You're never supposed to refuse your husband." *What did he do?* It was almost like rape. He hurt me. When I would jerk to get him off, he would keep on me. I still have scares. He's very rough. It's like getting branded. He bites me on my arms often. *Vaginal assault?* Yes. And he kept coming back for more until I was totally exhausted. I feel he actually enjoyed seeing me in that condition -- fighting. *How many times*

did he assault you? Seven times. How long did it go on?

From 8:00 a.m. through noon. He bruised my whole body up to my nipples, he punched my legs, and bit me all over my neck and body (p. 146)

Hofeller (1982) noted a small group of women in her sample to experience similar patterns of sexual violence at the hands of their intimate partners. Recent studies (Campbell, 1992) have found that women who are sexually assaulted by male intimates are at greater risk of being murdered by their partners, or of murdering them, than are battered women who are not sexually assaulted by male intimates. The obvious implication of these findings is that men who both sexually and physically assault female intimates commit more frequent and extreme violence against them than do men who are physically but not sexually assaultive toward their partners. The present study is a beginning attempt toward utilizing attachment theory toward filling the present gap in the research on batterer typologies and explaining the causes and functions of sexual violence committed by men against their female romantic partners. A review of the relevant literature on batterer typologies is now presented.

Introduction to the Literature on Batterer Typologies

The literature on male batterers can be divided into two distinct research eras: the clinical descriptions of the 1970's and early 80's and the systematic empirical studies of the last decade. Early studies generally relied on victim reports and interviews with batterers. Perhaps the most significant contribution of these early studies is that they provided heuristic descriptions and speculative

theories for subsequent research and empirical validation. Overall, the most recent studies of the last ten years have collapsed earlier clinical descriptions providing support for a trimodal typology generally described as the *instrumental*, *impulsive*, and *over-controlled batterer* (Dutton, 1998; Tweed & Dutton, 1998) and based on a combination of behavioral, emotional, attachment, and situational variables. The following section includes both a review of the first and second-generation research on batterer typologies and a discussion of their underlying theoretical assumptions. As the literature on intimate partner violence is vast, it is not possible to review it in its entirety. Therefore, given the focus of this dissertation, particular attention will be paid to attachment-based models of the male batterer

First Generation Research: Interviews with Batterers

Ganley (1981) interviewed the participants of a court ordered therapy program. In the end, she presents a clinical profile of the male batterer and speculates about both the mechanisms underlying and purpose served by his violence. According to Ganley (1981), both within and outside (e.g. with coworkers) of intimate relationships, the male batterer is cognitively rigid, unassertive and more often than not, has poor or limited verbal communication skills. He also has the tendencies to hold the stereotyped belief that the man should be the absolute ruler in the home, label all arousing emotions, such as anxiety, guilt, humiliation and helplessness as anger, hold his partner responsible for both his violence and his emotions, and minimize the frequency and severity of his assaults.

Ganely (1981) also observed and identified a number of behavioral trends amongst batterers. For instance, she noted that most, but not all batterers are violent only with their intimate partners. She also observed that men use different forms of assault and intimidation with intimate partners. For instance, she noted that some men destroy the victim's property, or assault the victim's pet. Other men isolate their partners and verbally degrade them. Still, some batterers sexually assault their intimate partners.

Ganely (1981) explains the batterer's use of violence and anger in terms of learned tension-reducing strategies. From her perspective, the batterer relies on anger in all situational and relational contexts to defend himself against feelings of vulnerability. He then resorts to violence to express his anger because he has such a limited repertoire of verbal communication skills. Ganley's (1981) explanation of violence addresses only part of her observations. For instance, the developmental process by which batterers come to adopt anger as a primary defense is not addressed. Similarly, if anger is experienced across interpersonal relationships and settings, then why do most men (as she observed) limit their violence to their interpersonal relationships? Later studies, particularly, those drawing on attachment theory have attempted to address these questions.

Other studies (Sonkin & Durphy, 1982; Sonkin, Martin, & Walker, 1985) have independently affirmed Ganley's (1981) descriptive profile of the male batterer. For example, Sonkin and colleagues (1985) worked directly with batterers and also observed them to experience anger globally, to hold traditional sex role attitudes, and to have a tendency to minimize or deny their assaultive

behavior. In addition, Sonkin and colleagues observed the men in their sample to exhibit low self-esteem, exaggerated dependency and jealousy, and to have themselves been victims of child abuse within their families of origin. Like Ganley (1981), Sonkin and colleagues (1985) explain the batterers' use of violence within intimate relationships in terms of a learned behavior that once initiated, becomes self-reinforcing, as it provides a release from tension and enables the batterer to gain control of a situation. From their view, the negative effects of violence, such as legal punishment, guilt or the dissolution of the intimate relationship are less immediately experienced or recognized by the batterer and therefore, do not exert as strong an influence on his behavior as do the more immediate tension-reducing effects of violence. Hence, in their opinion, for the batterer violence yields immediate release from tension and thus once initiated, is likely to recur.

First Generation Research: Interviews with Victims

Studies based on victims' perceptions of the male batterer have garnered support for some of the descriptive characteristics revealed in interviews with male batterers, such as intense jealousy and exposure to violence in the family of origin, (Rounsaville, 1978; Dobash, & Dobash, 1978; 1979; 1984; Hilberman, & Munson, 1977). Rounsaville (1978) interviewed a sample of 31 battered women drawn from hospital emergency rooms. Without exception, all of the women described their partner as being extremely possessive and jealous, 39% of them acknowledged that he had himself been beaten as a child (within his family of origin), and 45% said he had been permanently separated from his parents.

Hilberman & Munson (1977) found similar results. They interviewed 60 women in a rural health clinic, most of who revealed having been physically assaulted by their romantic partner. Ninety-five percent of these women described their partner as being extremely jealous and indicated that he had been exposed to violence in his family of origin. Interestingly, extreme jealousy has also been cited as a motivating factor by men who have murdered their wives or girlfriends (Chimbos, 1978; Campbell, 1981; Walker, 1984).

Reports based on victims' perceptions of the male batterer have produced additional clusters of identifying characteristics. For instance, 51% of the women in Rounsaville's (1978) study stated that their abusive partner was violent both within and outside of the relationship, 13% revealed that he had had at least one psychiatric hospitalization, and 45 % reported him to have a history of alcoholism. Ninety-three percent of the women interviewed by Hilberman & Munsun (1977) also reported their partner to be an alcoholic.

Taken together, the very early clinical studies reviewed here paint a profile of the male batterer as: a victim of childhood abuse who has become an alcoholic, emotionally constricted and extremely jealous man lacking in verbal communication skills. Later studies have examined batterers' personality traits, motivation to use violence, and patterns of violence. These studies suggest several profiles of the male batterer, only one of which is consistent with the picture presented above.

For instance, Hofeller (1982) interviewed and surveyed 50 female victims regarding their perceptions of their abusive partner's personality style, motivation

to use violence against her, overall level of self-disclosure and verbal communication in the relationship, severity and frequency of violence, alcohol consumption and exposure to violence in his family of origin. Of the many adjectives used to describe the batterers' personalities the words *jealous*, *dominating*, *insecure* and *macho* were the most frequently reported. However, *sweet*, *charming* and *friendly with others* were words also used to describe them. Moreover, contrary to the clinical observations reported by Ganley (1981) and Sonkin and colleagues (1985), an overwhelming 70% of the women in Hofeller's (1982) study rated the batterer to be high in verbal communication and self-disclosure. While these findings helped to illuminate the fact that batterers differ in various ways, such as level of social and verbal skills and context of violence (i.e. inside and outside of the intimate relationship versus only inside the relationship), an even greater contribution of Hofeller's (1982) study were her findings regarding victims' perceptions about why they believed their partners assaulted them.

Overall 32% of the women in Hofeller's (1982) study indicated that they felt their partner used violence in order to achieve total domination and control over them, 8 % stated that they believed their partner used violence as a means to win an argument, and 12 % attributed the violence to a specific problem such as flirting or being a bad housekeeper. When motivation and pattern of violence were compared, differences between violence, which was perceived as being used for a specific purpose, such as winning an argument, and violence, which was perceived to be related to the batterer's desire to dominate or control his partner

emerged. Specifically, men who were perceived to use violence in order to dominate and control their partners exhibited more severe violence against them compared to those men who were perceived to use violence in order to achieve a specific goal, such as winning an argument. In addition, men perceived as using violence in order to dominate and control their partners were also reported to be violent with others outside of the relationship. This pattern was not observed by the men perceived to use violence for a specific purpose. Based on these findings Hofeller (1982) proposed that motivation to commit violence may be an indicator of level of dangerousness and pattern of violence.

The idea that motivational factors may help to identify and differentiate different types of batterers has been widely accepted since Hofeller's (1982) original study. For example, drawing from interviews with 403 battered women Walker (1984) developed a four-factor profile of the male batterer based on personality characteristics, abuse history, attitude toward women and motivation for violence. She describes the male batterer, as a man who has a propensity for temper outbursts, is insecure, jealous and possessive. He is also likely to have a history of being either exposed to or the victim of violence in his family of origin and holds a negative opinion of women. He can also be charming, seductive and manipulative in order to get what he wants, but can quickly become mean and hostile when he does not get what he wants.

In summary, first generation research efforts produced vivid descriptions and quantitative analyses of subjective perceptions of the male batterer's personality, motivation to use violence and the situational variables associated

with intimate partner violence, thus providing support for the idea that batterers are a heterogeneous group. The empirical research of the last decade has progressed beyond simple descriptive profiling and quantitative analysis and has begun to apply descriptive typologies to discussions of causation and treatment. Specifically, the empirical research of the last decade has been aimed at delineating and validating the developmental pathways that lead to mens' use of violence against intimate partners. Salient studies of the last decade are now reviewed.

Second Generation: Empirical Research Studies

Linking Attachment to Battering Behavior

The descriptive data provided by earlier self-report methods have been analyzed in attempt to identify patterns, or clusters of co-varying personality, situational and behavioral variables among batterers (Elbow, 1977; Mott-McDonald, 1979; Sweeny & Key, 1982; Caesar, 1986; Hamberger & Hastings, 1986; Gondolf, 1987; Dutton, 1988; Tweed & Dutton, 1998; Saunders, 1992; Dutton, 1998). The effect of which has been the creation of several, and often overlapping, batterer typologies.

Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) were among the first to review and summarize the research on batterer typologies. More importantly for this dissertation, they were the first to pose specific hypotheses about the direct relationship between specific attachment styles and pattern of battering behavior, as well as the prevalence of specific subtypes of batterers. Based on their review of the literature, Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) concluded that across

samples and assessment modalities, three descriptive dimensions have consistently been found to distinguish among subtypes of batterers -- severity of violence, generality of violence and psychopathology/personality disorder. From this observation they identified three discrete subtypes of batterers, (1) *family-only*, (2) *generally-violent antisocial*, and (3) *dysphoric/borderline* batterers. Adjusting for the fact that most of the studies they reviewed dealt primarily with clinical samples of batterers (men in treatment) they estimated that the *generally-violent antisocial* subtype of batterer comprises about 25 % of men who batterer and are more likely to be found among batterers who have been arrested for intimate partner violence or who are participating in court ordered treatment programs. Conversely, they contend that *family-only* batterers could make up as much as 50 % of all male batterers if research participants are recruited from the general community as well as treatment programs (voluntary or mandated). Lastly, the *dysphoric/borderline* batterers are estimated to comprise about 25% of all male batterers.

With respect to batterer subtype, attachment style and pattern of battering behavior, Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) hypothesized that the *family-only* batterer would possess a preoccupied attachment style, exhibit the least severe violence, be the least likely to engage in psychological and sexual abuse against their partners, and possess little or no personality or psychological disturbance. The *generally-violent antisocial* batterer is expected to have a dismissing attachment style, and is hypothesized to manifest anti-social personality characteristics, engage in moderate to severe violence, have alcohol or drug

problems and to engage in psychological and sexual abuse both within and outside of their romantic partnerships. Finally, the *dysphoric/borderline* batterer, like the family-only batterer, is expected to possess a preoccupied attachment style, but is hypothesized to exhibit borderline and schizoid personality characteristics and to engage in moderate to severe partner abuse including psychological and sexual abuse, engage in periodic violence or criminal activity including drug or alcohol related activities outside of the romantic partnership.

Tweed and Dutton (1998) found support for Holzworth-Munroe's hypotheses regarding attachment and batterer subtypes. Using the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI-II) and scores on a self report inventory of Borderline Personality Organization they assessed personality disorder in two groups of batterers corresponding to Holworth-Munroe and Stuart's (1994) generally-violent antisocial (Type 1: Instrumental) and dysphoric-borderline batterers (Type 2: Impulsive) and related the results to each group's respective attachment styles and other relative variables (e.g. anger and trauma). Overall, 79 physically abusive men referred for treatment for domestic violence and 44 non-violent men recruited from a local employment union completed five separate instruments 1) the Relationships Scales Questionnaire (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) as a measure of attachment style, 2) and 3) The MCMI-II and BPO Scale as measures of personality disorder, 4) the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) (Straus, 1979) as a measure of frequency and severity of violence and 5) the Multidimensional Anger Inventory (MAI) (Siegel, 1986) as a measure of level of anger.

Tweed and Dutton (1998) used cluster analysis to classify cases into homogeneous groups, or clusters. They selected 5 variables to create their groupings. First they used both the MCMI-II Antisocial Scale and the CTS Total Physical Tactics scale to bring out the *generally violent/antisocial* cluster. Then they combined the MCMI-II Borderline Personality (C), Schizoid Personality (1), and Major Depression (CC) scales to bring out the Dysphoric Borderline cluster. Tweed and Dutton (1998) report that they initially relied on the method of *Average Distance Between Members* to analyze their data. However, that method failed to produce a small number of clearly distinct groupings. So they relied on the method of *Complete Linkage*, which produced two distinct clusters approximating the Type 1: Instrumental Batterers (Generally - violent/Antisocial)[n=32] and Type 2: Impulsive Batterers (Dysphoric/Borderline) [n=38]. Nine men failed to fit either cluster.

Tweed and Dutton (1998) conducted tests of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA's) to compare batterer types and controls on attachment, trauma experience and anger. Attachment style clearly differentiated batterers from controls. For instance, Tweed and Dutton (1998) report the overall ANOVA for *secure* attachment to be significant, $F(2,104) = 7.81, p=.001$. Similarly, the overall ANOVA for *fearful* attachment is reported to be significant, $f(2,102) = 5.24, p = .007$. More importantly, significant differences between groups were revealed with Type 2: Impulsive batterers (Dysphoric-Borderline) reporting the highest scores ($M=16.1$) for *fearful* attachment compared to both non-batterers ($M=13.3$) and Type 1: Instrumental Batterers (Generally-Violent.Antisocial)

(M=14.0). Tweed and Dutton (1998) also report that both types of batterers reported a significantly more *preoccupied* attachment style than controls, but only the Type 2: Impulsive (Dysphoric/Borderline) batterers also showed significant elevations in *fearful* attachment. Tweed and Dutton (1998) also report significant differences on other measured variables, including group differences with respect to the level of felt anger, borderline personality traits and use of violence. However, most significant for this dissertation are their findings that, the Type 1: Instrumental (Genrelly-Violent/Antisocial) batterers reported significantly more severe and frequent violence compared to the Type 2: Impulsive (Dysphoric/Borderline) group.

Overall, the literature reviewed in this dissertation suggests that subtypes of batterers are likely to be distinguished by an identifiable set of risk factors with specific attachment disturbances being associated with particular triggers to and patterns of violence. Specifically, the literature on attachment and sexual offending (Ward et al 1995a; 1995b; 1996) and attachment and batterer typologies (Tweed & Dutton, 1998; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994) implicates dismissing and fearful attachment in batterers to be a risk factor for sexually sadistic violence in intimate partnerships.

Using Projective Techniques to Differentiate Sexual Offenders

From Non-sexual Offenders

The Empirical Research

Schlesinger & Kutash (1981) provided empirical support for the efficacy of projective techniques to accurately differentiate sexual offenders from other

offenders. They designed a projective measure entitled the Criminal Fantasy Technique, which is modeled after the TAT and created specifically to assess subjects' projected motivations to commit criminal offenses. The Criminal Fantasy Technique consists of a series of twelve 20 X 25 mm cards. One card features a man standing alone and was intended to depict no obvious crime in progress. The remaining eleven cards were designed to represent one of 11 different criminal activities including: drug deals, arson, bank robbery, exhibitionism, breaking and entry, assault, embezzlement, sexual assault, child molestation, organized crime, and stealing.

The Criminal Fantasy Technique was administered to a group of 37 pre-identified sexual offenders and a control group of 13 pre-identified substance abusers. The sex-offender group consisted of 37 inmates from the New Jersey Sex Offender Unit, who had previously been found guilty of such sexual crimes as rape, incest, pedophilia, and exhibitionism. These men had a mean age of 31.6 years all of who had been evaluated to be compulsive offenders and were thus participating in a rehabilitation program. The control group was made up of 13 men who were participating in a drug and alcohol treatment program. None of the control group members had a criminal record for sexual offenses or a documented history of such behavior. The mean age for the substance abusing men was 33.2 years. According to Schlesinger and Kutash (1981) the rationale for using substance abusing men as a control group, rather than a "normal" control group is that the two groups were very similar with respect to age, socioeconomic status, and education. Schlesinger and Kutash (1981) also point

out that the two groups of men held similar diagnoses for various personality disorders, although they did not identify these diagnoses nor did they make any inference regarding the influence of personality disorder and motivation to criminally offend.

The Criminal Fantasy Technique was administered individually. Upon administration subjects were told that the examiners were developing a test to help understand attitudes with regard to crime and that their task was to make up a story about each individual card. Subjects were also told to be as creative as they cared to be, but to make sure their stories had a beginning, middle, and an end. During test administration, examiners made the following queries: (a) Why did he commit the crime? (b) Was the crime planned? (c) What was the person thinking right before he committed the crime? (d) What will the person gain? (e) How did the person feel before, during and after the crime? (f) What happens to the person? (g) Will he commit the crime again?

Participant responses were analyzed independently by two psychologists. Stories were judged as either “pathological” or “not pathological” based on whether or not they contained themes and projected material that went beyond mere description of the scene to where compulsive motives and fantasies were projected. Schlesinger and Kutash (1982) report an interrater reliability coefficient of .96. Using the median test, statistical significance regarding the difference in pathological stories for the two groups was reached for all cards that were designed to elicit sexual fantasy, with the clinical group revealing many more pathological stories than the control group. For instance, on card number

four, which was designed to depict exhibitionism, 60% of the sexual offenders revealed pathological stories compared to only 15% of the substance abusers ($X^2 = 7.48, p .01$). On card number eight, which was intended to reflect sexual assault, 60% of the clinical group related pathological stories compared to 25% of the control group ($X^2 = 5.18, p .03$), and on card number nine, which is illustrative of child molestation, 95% of the sexual offending men compared to 25% of the substance abusing men revealed pathological stories ($X^2 = 20.83, p .001$).

Although statistical analysis failed to differentiate between the two groups on those cards in which no obvious sexual crime was depicted, important qualitative differences in perceived criminal activity and ascribed motive were observed. For instance, while Schlesinger and Kutash (1981) did not provide actual numbers, they reported that most men in the substance abusing control group saw card number 1 as a picture of a man or a boy taking part in a drug deal, while at least one member of the sexual offending group described this same card as a man caressing and attempting to sexually fondle, or be fondled by, a boy because he (the man) is unable to "get sexual enjoyment at this particular time." Similar differences were noted on all twelve cards with at least one member of the sexually offending group perceiving a sexual crime or motive in response to a non-overtly sexual stimulus card -- thus suggesting that some mundane, or seemingly non-sexual crimes may in fact be sexually motivated.

The Clinical Research

Pam and Rivera (1995) examined the questions of whether or not the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) can be used to identify sexual pathology and

predict sexual dangerousness in their analysis of the TAT protocol and post-hoc review of prior case records of a 17-year-old boy. The 17-year-old patient was admitted to a state hospital after attempting to commit suicide by stealing a hypodermic needle from an outpatient clinic and injecting himself with rat poison. Psychological testing was requested to determine the psychodynamics underlying what hospital admitting staff determined to be the patient's depression and desperation.

Seven TAT cards -- numbers 1, 3BM, 13MF, 6BM, 17GF, 7 GF, and 16 -- were administered and interpreted by Pam and Rivera (1995) following Megargee's (1970) contention that cards, such as 13 MF, which pull strongly for aggression, measure a lack of inhibition of aggressive tendencies, whereas low pull cards, like 6BM and 7GF, measure self-instigation of aggression. Overall, the patient's TAT stories included accounts of rape, incest, pedophilia, sadism, exhibitionism, necrophilia, and hermaphrodisism. In their analysis Pam and Rivera (1995) concluded that the patient's responses to high pull cards for aggression indicated that he had poor inhibition of antisocial and sexual impulses, while his performance on low pull cards suggested a tendency toward the self-initiation of aggressive and sexual acting out. The projective test material led Pam and Rivera (1995) to conclude that the patient was a "dangerous, sexual psychopath who would need long-term hospitalization (p.75)."

Pam and Rivera's (1995) assessment of the patient was validated shortly after the testing report was completed, when they learned from the patient's family that he was arrested for molesting a five-year-old girl just prior to

admission. It was later learned that the patient had a long history of molesting, both sexually and sadistically, a number of children whom he encountered in the playground and in the park, as well as his one-year-old niece who had once been left in his care for an unspecified amount of time.

Implications for Future Research on Intimate Partner Violence

The studies reviewed above (Schlesinger & Kutash, 1982; Pam & Rivera, 1995) suggest that the motivations and emotional experiences underlying behavior are not always apparent in the behavior itself, but may be accurately assessed through the use of visual stimuli which approximates those situations in which the behaviors in question occur. The method and assessment instruments employed in this dissertation were designed with this observation in mind and are a beginning attempt toward utilizing projective techniques to assess the often covert sexual dynamics and attachment dynamics underlying intimate partner violence.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

An Overview of the Study Design

The overarching goal of this dissertation is to advance the understanding of the sexually motivated batterer. To this end, three specific research questions were investigated: 1) Can the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT), an author-designed projective test measure that requires examinees to create a narrative in response to a stimulus card, be used as an index for both the attribution of motive to commit violence, as well as type of violence, where type of violence is defined as sexual or non sexual and sub-dimesionalized as either covertly sexual or overtly sexual? 2) If so can the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) be used to discriminate batterers from non-batterers, and 3) does a specific relationship exist between attachment style and perpetration of sexual violence.

In brief, the research was conducted in two separate phases. In Phase 1, 20 adult males completed the Relationship Styles Questionnaire, a 30-item self-report inventory (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) as an index of attachment style. They also completed the IAT as a measure of “projected” attribution of motive to commit violence and type and level of violence. The IAT narratives were then subjected to the analytic techniques of grounded theory methodology (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) in order to establish a baseline of expectable IAT narratives and to develop indices for type of and motive for violence. Data regarding attachment style and type of violence were then subjected to five separate One-way Between-subjects Analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests to examine the distribution of

“severity of violence” and “type of violence” across three “attachment styles.”² Specifically, the five ANOVAs examined five separate questions: 1) Do any of the three attachment groups demonstrate a tendency to provide more overall violent story content on the IAT than others?, 2) Do any of the three attachment groups provide more violent story content that is nonsexual on the IAT than others? 3) Do any of the three attachment groups tend to provide more sexually violent story content on the IAT than others?, 4) Do any of the three attachment groups provide more violent story content that is covertly sexual in response to the IAT than do others?, and 5) Do any of the three attachment groups tend to provide more violent story content that is overtly sexual than others? Whenever relevant, pair-wise comparisons in the form of Fisher’s Protected T-tests (Welkowitz, Ewen, & Cohen, 1991), also referred to as the test of Least Significant Differences (LSD), were conducted in order to identify which attachment groups differed significantly from one another with respect to each of the five questions examined.

In phase 2, a different group of 20 adult men with self-acknowledged histories of violence against an intimate partner were administered the RSQ as a measure of attachment style, and the IAT as a measure of projected attribution of motive to commit violence. Participants in phase 2 also completed the Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) (Straus et al, 1996). The CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) is a self-report inventory that asks respondents to endorse the type and frequency of various conflict resolution tactics, including violence and sexual violence that

² The “fearful” attachment category was not included in the Data Analyses due to insufficient sample size (n=1).

they have actually used with or against an intimate partner within the past 12 months. The CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) was added to the test battery for phase 2 in order to examine the relationship between projected violence and actual violence. Studies regarding the construction of the CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) and its validity as a measure of type of violence are reviewed in the Research Materials section of Chapter 3.

Phase 1

Objectives for Phase 1

Phase 1 had three objectives: 1) to establish a baseline, or range, of expectable responses for each of the thirteen IAT cards, 2) to determine whether or not the IAT could be used as a reasonable index of men's conscious and unconscious motivations to commit intimate partner violence, and 3) to examine the distribution of violent story content across attachment style.

Participants

In Phase 1, twenty men, most of whom ranged in age from 19 years to 43 years (one participant was 70 years old at the time of testing), were recruited from the New York City Technical College High School Equivalency (GED) program. All participants had less than a high school education and were voluntarily attending an education program to obtain a General Equivalency Diploma. Apart from educational status, participants varied across occupation, race and ethnicity.

Specific Criteria for the Selection of Participants

The criteria used to select research participants were as follows:

1. The participants were men at least 18 years of age or older. A minimum age of 18 years was selected to ensure that participants could legally provide informed consent to participate on their own behalf.
2. Participants were required to have a minimum reading level of 8th grade to ensure their capacity to complete the RSQ without help or input from the examiner. Entrance criteria for the GED program at New York City Technical College include a minimum reading level of 8th grade. Therefore, it was assumed that participants of Phase 1 met the minimum reading level requirements. It should be noted, that the 8th grade reading criterion is merely the principal investigators best judgment of the minimum reading level needed and is based on her former experience as a teacher of Adult Basic Education.
3. Participants were required to have been involved in at least one romantic partnership in the 12 months prior to participating in the study.

Research Materials for Phase 1

Subjects in Phase 1 were administered the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) and the Relationship Style Questionnaire (RSQ) (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994).

The Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT)

The IAT is an author -developed projective measure, which is closely modeled after the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) (Morgan & Murray, 1935; Murray, 1971) and the Criminal Fantasy Technique (Schlesinger & Kutash,

1981). It consists of 13, 9" X 12" pencil drawings, all of which depict a man and woman involved in some type of interaction together. Seven of the drawings (card numbers 2,3, 4,5,6,8, and 12) were designed to reflect those situations and emotional characteristics identified in the literature as being most often associated with intimate partner violence, such as anger, pregnancy, financial stress, sexual infidelity, alcohol and abandonment (Hofeller, 1982). Four of the cards (card numbers 7,9, 10 and 11) were drawn so as to feature objects and situations indicative of sexually-motivated violence, such as women's undergarments and bedroom scenes in which either the man or the woman could easily be interpreted to be frustrated (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985). One of the drawings (card number 1) provides no situational context and was considered by the principal investigator to be emotionally ambiguous. One other drawing (number 13) was also considered by the principal investigator to be emotionally ambiguous but depicts a man and woman together in a seemingly peaceful neighborhood. Appendix A contains a photocopy of the thirteen IAT cards.

The Relationship Styles Questionnaire.

The Relationship Styles Questionnaire (RSQ) (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) is a 30-item, self-report instrument designed as a continuous measure of Bartholomew & Horowitz's (1991) model of adult attachment. As such each RSQ item represents one of two underlying and orthogonal dimensions -- perception of self and perception of other. Various combinations of these items make up four theoretically derived attachment scales: *secure*, *dismissing*, *preoccupied* and *fearful*. For instance, statements reflecting both a positive sense of self and other

are grouped together to form the *secure* attachment scale. Items reflecting a positive sense of self but negative sense of others are combined to form the *dismissing* scale. Items reflecting both a negative sense of self and other make up the *fearful* scale, and a combination of items representing a negative perception of self but a positive view of others form the *preoccupied* scale.

The 30 items, or statements, comprising the RSQ were drawn from Hazan and Shaver's Attachment Measure (1987), Bartholomew and Horowitz's Relationship Questionnaire (1991), and Collins and Read's Adult Attachment Scale (1990). However, only 18 of the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) items are used to create the four attachment style scales. The other 12 items are intended to be used when the researcher wants to relate the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) to the attachment dimensions identified by Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, (1992) and Collins & Read (1990).

The RSQ can be worded so as to measure general orientations in close relationships, orientations to romantic partners or orientations to specific adult, peer relationships. Participants rate on a 5-point scale the extent to which each statement best describes how they usually feel in the relationships in question (1 = not at all like me, 3 = somewhat like me, 5= exactly like me). RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) scores for the four attachment style prototypes are derived by computing the mean of the items representing each prototype scale. Five statements make-up the *secure* and *dismissing* attachment styles and four statements comprise the *fearful* and *preoccupied* attachment styles. Scores for each of the attachment styles are derived by taking the mean of the four or five

items representing each attachment style. The highest mean score of the four attachment prototype scales is then used to classify respondents into the *best-fitting* attachment category. For example, someone with mean scores of 2.5 on the secure scale, 3.0 on the dismissing scale, 4.0 on the preoccupied scale and 5.0 on the fearful scale would be categorized as possessing a “fearful” attachment style. Similarly, another person with mean scores of 3.0 on the secure scale, 3.3 on the dismissing scale, 3.8 on the preoccupied scale and 4.0 on the fearful scale would also be categorized as possessing a “fearful” attachment style. The category into which a respondent is placed reflects the best fitting of the four attachment styles, whereas the score on each scale reflects the degree to which each attachment category describes that particular individual. Below is a list of the items comprising each of the four attachment style scales:

secure attachment style.

1. I find it easy to get emotionally close to my romantic partner.
2. I worry about being alone.
3. I am comfortable depending on my romantic partner.
4. I am comfortable having my romantic partner depend on me.
5. I worry about having my romantic partner not accept me.³

dismissing attachment style.

1. It is very important to me to feel independent.
2. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.
3. It is very important to me to feel self-sufficient.
4. I prefer not to have my romantic partner depend on me.
5. I prefer not to depend on my romantic partner.

Preoccupied Attachment Style.

1. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.⁴

³ Item numbers 2 and 5 for the Secure Subscale are reverse scored.

⁴ Item number 1 of the Preoccupied Subscale is reverse scored.

2. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with my romantic partner.
3. I worry that my romantic partner does not value me as much as I value him/her
4. I find that my romantic partner is reluctant to get as close as I would like.

Fearful Attachment Style.

1. I find it difficult to depend on my romantic partner.
2. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to my romantic partner.
3. I find it difficult to trust my romantic partner completely.
4. I am uncomfortable being close to my romantic partner.

One commonly accepted way of assessing the quality of a measuring instrument is to determine its reliability -- the degree to which a respondent's scores are repeatable, and thus free from random error, such as slips of the pen, or misreading of particular test items. Reliability may be inferred indirectly from the internal consistency of a multi-item test, such as the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), and is usually indexed by *Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient*, (Cronbach, 1951). The procedure used in computing Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) is derived from the correlations of each item with each other item and presumes two conditions: 1) that random measurement errors vary from one question or test item to another within the same instrument and 2) that in the absence of error, all questions or items in the instrument are measuring the same basic trait or concept (Judd, Smith & Kidder, 1991). If random error has a large influence, it would make scores on some individual items high and others low, effectively reducing the item-to-item correlation. On the other hand, if there is little to no random error at play then scores should be relatively equal so that a high score on one item would go together with a high score on another item.

Hence, given the assumption of Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) that in the absence of error, all questions or items in the instrument are measuring the same basic trait or concept, a large and positive item-to-item correlation would indicate that each item measures the same underlying trait or construct.

Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) report internal consistencies for the RSQ prototype scores to be variable and at times, quite low. For example, in one sample they report $\alpha = .41$ for the *secure* pattern and $\alpha = .70$ for the *dismissing* pattern.⁵ They attribute the variation in alpha to a violation of one of the two assumptions underlying Cronbach's Alpha Test (Cronbach, 1951) -- namely, not all test items measure the same construct. In fact, the specific model of attachment measured by the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) is defined by a combination of two orthogonal dimensions, a model of self and model of the other. Thus, a range in alpha is both logical and expectable since items measuring one's perception of the self should not necessarily be expected to match one's perception of the other.

Any method used to measure a construct is contaminated to some degree by aspects of the method that are irrelevant to the construct but inherent in the approach. For instance, social desirability, the general tendency to over-report more socially normative or desirable characteristics and to suppress and underreport less appealing attributes (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991 p. 50) has been associated with self-report inventories (Edwards, 1953; Edwards, 1957; Cowen & Tongas, 1959; Crowne & Marlowe, 1967) and projective techniques (Rozytko,

⁵ Data regarding sample size, participant demographics and alpha for the *preoccupied* and *fearful* groups was not provided in the article reviewed.

1959; Reznikoff & Dollin, 1961). Similarly, verbal and non-verbal reinforcements, be they intentional or not, have been shown to influence verbal responses during personal interviews. In a test of what he calls the *need-for-approval-conditioning hypothesis*, Marlowe (1962) demonstrated that persons with a high need for approval tend to offer more positive self-references as an interview progresses provided his or her positive self statements are reinforced by subtle reinforcements, such as the interviewer's simple "Mm-hmm." Even without verbal cues and reinforcements, an interviewer's prior expectations, or biases, have been shown to influence an interviewee's behavior. Rosenthal (1963) demonstrated this effect in a series of studies involving 30 examiners and 375 subjects. In that study subjects were asked to rate photographs of people as either being successful or failures. Prior to the task, examiners were provided with a directional hypothesis regarding the behavior of each of their subjects. Some experimenters were led to expect high ratings, and others were led to expect low ratings. All subjects received identical instructions. Yet, in all of the studies the lowest mean rating obtained by any experimenter expecting high ratings from his/her subjects was higher than the highest mean rating obtained by any experimenter expecting low ratings from his/her subjects.

"Convergent validity refers to the overlap between alternative measures that are intended to tap the same construct but that have different sources of irrelevant, undesired variation" (Judd, Smith & Kidder, 1991 pp. 54-55). The amount of agreement between any two measures indicates the degree to which the two measures are assessing the same construct. A test battery comprised of

alternative modes of assessing the same construct serves as a control against contamination of the data by systemic influences, such as social desirability, experimenter bias and interviewer reinforcement. The magnitude of agreement between two instruments is expressed in terms of convergent validity coefficients representing correlations between scores that reflect the same trait measured by different methods.

Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) report a modest degree of convergent validity between the RSQ and interview-based measures of the four-category model of adult romantic attachment. For example, using a sample of 153 adults, they produced convergent validity coefficients (i.e., correlations between corresponding attachment patterns) of .25 for the *secure* patterns, .32 for the *fearful* pattern, .34 for the *preoccupied* pattern and .47 for the *dismissing* pattern.⁶ The at best modest strength of these correlations suggest that measurements of attachment style are strongly influenced by the method of assessment and supports the use of multi-method test battery.

At this time, there are no normative data for the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) as all studies using the instrument have been conducted with samples too small to establish measurement norms (<http://www.sfu.ca/psychology/groups/faculty/bartholomew/research/attachment/faq.htm>). A copy of the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) is contained in Appendix A.

⁶ Data about the construction and format of the interview schedule and sample demographics were not included in the article reviewed.

Procedure

Participants

In phase 1, men age 18 years and older were recruited from the New York City Technical College High School Equivalency (GED) program (N=20). Specifically, the primary investigator distributed recruitment flyers to teachers who posted them in classrooms. Interested persons contacted the primary investigator directly to schedule a date and time to administer the measures. Participants met with the examiner individually for approximately 1.5 hours and were paid \$20.00 for their participation.

Informed Consent

Prior to administration of the measures, participants in Phase 1 were informed by the primary investigator that the purpose of the study was to help her understand mens' attitudes regarding violence and aggression between men and women. They were also told that they would be asked to complete a questionnaire that asks them to describe how they usually feel when involved in a romantic relationship with a woman and to make up a story about 13 different drawings. Administration was conducted individually in the counseling office of the New York City Technical College Department of Continuing Education located in downtown Brooklyn. Given the sensitive nature of the research topic it was assumed that there was a risk that participants would experience some degree of emotional discomfort and that men who had enacted violent behavior with women might want to seek assistance. As such, all participants were provided with a list

of professional counseling services and domestic violence intervention programs at the end of their participation in the study

Order of Presentation and Administration of Research Materials

Participants of Phase 1 were administered the IAT and RSQ in alternating order so as to counterbalance any possible order effects, such as fatigue resulting from the lengthier IAT.

Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT). In Phase 1, the IAT cards were presented in order from 1 to 13 without regard for the possibility of any specific order effects. However, the IAT cards can be divided into three subsets reflecting thematically similar stimuli: non-violent, physically violent and sexually violent stimuli. For instance, card numbers 1 and 13 depict a man and woman together with no obvious, antagonistic feelings or conflict between them. Cards 2,3,4,5,6,8, and 12 reflect those situations and emotional characteristics identified in the literature (Hofeller, 1982) as being most often associated with physical violence between intimate partners(e.g., anger, financial stress , jealousy, alcohol, pregnancy, abandonment) and cards 7, 9 10 and 11 feature objects and situations indicative of sexual violence(e.g., women's undergarments, bedroom scenes in which actors appear emotionally frustrated or otherwise upset) (FBI law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985). Copies of all 13 IAT cards are included in Appendix A.

Studies on the incidence and prevalence of family violence, including violence between intimate partners, have identified a hierarchy of socially desirable conflict resolution strategies with negotiation being the most desirable

tactic and severe physical and sexual assault being the least desirable (Straus, 1979; Straus & Gelles, 1990; Straus et al 1996). Those same studies have also raised the question among researchers of how to present questions regarding conflict resolution tactics in a way that will maximize a respondent's disclosure of even the least socially acceptable tactics, such as violence. For instance, in designing the widely used Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) (Straus, 1979; Straus & Gelles, 1990), a multi-item, self-report measure which quantifies how often a person engaged in various conflict resolution tactics, Straus (1979) and Straus and Gelles (1990) uncovered a set of implicit cultural rules for being physically violent. Among those rules is the belief that violence is more acceptable if the perpetrator has exhausted all other alternatives. This hierarchy of social acceptability is reflected in the item ordering of the CTS (Straus, 1979; Straus & Gelles, 1990), with more socially acceptable tactics preceding less desirable tactics, and is intended to create what has been called a "context of legitimation" (Shehan, 1995) for disclosing acts of violence.

Subsequent research has questioned the benefit of presenting test items in hierarchical order of social acceptability (Straus et al, 1996) finding that it can sometimes increase the likelihood of response sets (e.g. marking all zeros), or produce a negative reaction among respondents. For instance, when revising the CTS, Straus and colleagues (1996) found that non-violent individuals, having declared that they had not done the first of the violent acts, were annoyed to be asked about several other violent acts.

Thus, in as much as the three IAT card subgroups reflect a hierarchy of socially acceptable conflict resolution tactics, and in as much as the cultural rules governing the disclosure of violence may be assumed to apply to both self-report and projective measures, the IAT may be administered in an interspersed order, such as in phase 1, or in hierarchical order with the non-violent cards presented first, followed by the set of physically violent cards and ending with the group of sexually violent cards. The differential effects of hierarchical versus interspersed order of presentation of the IAT remains to be tested and is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

The following instructions were given prior to administering the IAT:

Now, I'm going to show you some pictures one at a time and I'd like you to make up a story about each one. Each story should have a beginning, middle and an end. In your story please tell me a) If or how the people know each other, b) What the people in the picture are thinking and feeling c) What precipitated (or caused) the incident in the story to occur, d) How will the story end, and e) Do you have any questions before we begin?

Overall, the design of and instructions for administering the IAT were modeled after Henry Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) (1971) and the Criminal Fantasy Technique (Schlesinger & Kutash, 1981). Instructions were created to be as simple and non-leading as possible so as not to influence a subject's response in any way. However, whenever a subject failed to include all of the requested elements in his story (e.g. an ending, character feelings or thoughts), the investigator directly inquired about the missing material without

suggesting a particular response. This was achieved by asking direct questions, such as: what is the person thinking? How does the story end?

Relationship Styles Questionnaire (RSQ)

Participants in phase one were given a paper copy of the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) and asked to complete it in the presence of the examiner. When necessary the examiner clarified the meaning of specific RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) items.

Data Analysis

Main Themes & Story Lines

The grounded theory method of “constant comparison” was used to sort IAT narratives and develop categories, or “codes” of conceptually-related themes and storylines (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In that method data are repeatedly compared and sorted according to conceptual similarity and difference. First-level generalizations are then drawn and tested against subsequent data. In this way the investigator may apply a set of preliminary descriptive categories to organize data while simultaneously identifying new substantive categories whenever data fail to match the original categories, or codes (Fraenkel, et al, 1998).

In phase 1, the narrative data were sorted and analyzed by the primary investigator by hand and following the guidelines of grounded theory methodology (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). As such, the narrative text was first subjected to the process of open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) whereby, data were scanned for conditions, interactions and relationships between actors,

strategies, tactics and consequences with the goal being to produce concepts or categories that fit the data. The following excerpts were offered by participants in response to card 1 and are now provided to demonstrate this initial process. Note that the actual text used to derive a code is followed by an arrow indicating the provisional category to which a particular narrative segment is assigned.

Participant #16.

“ ... His face is like he’s concerned about something or something’s bothering him → **[has a problem]** ...he’s talking to her about his problems ... she’s listening to him → **[cooperative interaction]** ... they’re boyfriend and girlfriend → **[romantic partners]** ...she understands where he’s coming from ...they’ll either work it out or end the relationship ... probably still be friends from → **[cooperative interaction]**.

Participant #20.

“ ... This woman made a remark to him and he has this, this abrupt look ... → **[antagonistic interaction]** ...It looks like he’s making a remark to her, saying something to her. And I guess she doesn’t care less → **[antagonistic interaction]**... Maybe who will watch the kids on Friday → **[romantic partners] + [partner has a problem]**.

Participant #9.

“ ... The guy wants to talk to the girl.they want to get to know each other → **[chance encounter between man and woman]** ... he'll probably ask her out → **[romantic intent]**.

Participant # 5.

“ I just see two people talking... → **[chance encounter between man and woman]** It could be this man asking her the time or whatever → **[no romantic intent].**”

Participant #8.

“ ... Looks like she's breaking up with him or something ...→ **[woman ending romantic relationship].**”

The second step in determining the final categories or codes for main story lines was to examine, connect and label the relationships observed among the coded data for each of the 13 IAT cards. The following integrative diagram (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) was constructed using the codes for participants numbers 16, 20, 9, 5 and 8 described above and illustrates this process:

Participant #16.

[romantic partners] + [has a problem] + [cooperative interaction] = **Romantic partners engaged in cooperative problem solving.**

Participant #20.

[romantic partners] + [partner has a problem]
+[antagonistic interaction]+ [antagonistic interaction] =

Romantic partners engaged in antagonistic problem solving.

Participant #9.

[chance encounter between man and woman] + [romantic intent]= **Chance encounter between man & woman with romantic intent.**

Participant #5.

[chance encounter between man and woman] +[no romantic intent] = **Chance encounter between man and woman with no romantic intent.**

Participant #8.

[woman ending romantic relationship] = **Woman ending romantic relationship.**

Effectively, this process produced a one-sentence summary statement for each subject per card, yielding a total of 13 sets of 20 summary statements (one set of 20 descriptive statements per card). Next, conceptually similar statements within sets were clustered together to form the final list of main themes and storylines per card. Some statements failed to cluster with other statements because they were unique in either relationship or interaction between actors, event, strategy or outcome. Those statements are included among the final codes for the relevant card or cards. Table B1 in Appendix B includes a list of final storylines per card. Table B3 also in Appendix B features a list of all the major codes derived from analysis of the Phase 1 data set along with a sampling of supporting text.

Attachment Style

Attachment Style was determined via the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) and following the scoring procedures detailed earlier in Chapter 3. The “*fearful*” attachment category was not included in subsequent analyses due to the fact that only one participant scored into that group.

Coding for Level of Violence

In Phase 1, a quantitative coding scheme ranging from 0 to 4, with 0 equal to no violence, 1 equal to violence without injury, 2 equal to violence with injury and 3 equal to fatal violence was used to code the IAT narratives. Specifically, narratives indicating that the woman was “hurt,” or required medical attention were coded as “violence with injury.” Narratives indicating that the woman was physically assaulted with no mention of injury or medical attention were coded as “violence without injury.” Similarly, narratives making no mention of violence were assigned the code of “no violence” and those alluding to death by violence were coded as “fatal violence.”

Next, axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) -- the process of dimensionalizing an established category or concept-- was conducted to distinguish between sexual and non-sexual violent story content. The Federal Bureau of Investigation’s (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1985) criteria for classifying sex crimes and the literature regarding fantasy and sexual offenders (Schlesinger & Kutash, 1981; Schlesinger & Revitch, 1999; Pam & Rivera, 1995) informed the decision to label text already coded as “violence without injury,” “violence with injury,” or “fatal violence” as either “sexual” or “non-sexual.” For

instance, text reflecting sexually-oriented themes, such as sexual dysfunction, sexual infidelity, rape, attempted rape, insecurity about one's sexual performance, rejected sexual advances, or mention of overkill, voyeurism, sexual positioning of the body, use or wearing of women's clothing or other fetish items in the contemplating or committing of the violent act, and mutilation of the sex organs were coded as "sexual. Narratives indicating violence without mention of any one of these elements were coded as "non-sexual."

Finally, narratives reflecting sexual violence were coded for two types of sexual violence, *covert* and *overt*. Instances indicating actual penetration and or contact with the genitalia were coded as *overt* all other instances were coded as *covert* (e.g., a man assaults his romantic partner in retaliation for suspected sexual infidelity.) The following three examples illustrate the coding process. Example number 1 presents text identified as containing overt sexual violence that is fatal. Example number 2 presents text identified as containing covert sexual violence that is fatal. Example 3 presents text identified as containing non-sexual violence resulting in injury. Note that codes are bracketed and follow the text to which they refer. The text referenced is italicized for visual clarity.

Example 1: Fatal, Overt Sexual Violence

(Participant #16: Card 6)

E: Card number 6.

S: Well, it looks like you know, this lady is going either *been raped* [**Sexual Violence**] [**Overt**] by *her boyfriend* [**Romantic Partner**] or whoever that is, without

her consent. And *beats her up* [**Violence**] [**Non-sexual**].

And she looks scared. She looks like she doesn't know what to do. Probably at the end, he'll beat her to the point that she can't take it no more and retaliate against him, or *he'll probably end up killing her* [**Fatal Violence**].

E: And what, how does he feel and what does he think right now?

S: He, he looks like he doesn't really care. Cause he did what he had to do and he just lit up a cigarette.

E: And in the end it will be one of two things. She'll retaliate or he'll end up

S: *He ends up beating her to death* [**Fatal**].

E: Ok. Next?

Example 2: Fatal, Covert Sexual Violence

(Participant #18: Card 12)

E: Card number 12.

S: (Pause) Hmm. See. (Laughs) This looks like a movie or something (laughs) you know. Like a movie scene and then. Um. He has the gun on the table. He's waiting for her to get home from a business trip. He heard that *she probably cheated* → [**Romantic Partners**][**Suspects Sexual Infidelity**][**Covert Sexual**] on him or something.

E: Um-Hmm, So what is he, what is he feeling right now?

S: He's feeling mad, he's feeling like a cold rage. He's not hot with anger but he's feeling angry inside. And then he want to discuss it with, he's gonna do something bad or something to her. *Or probably even kill her* →[Fatal] considering he has the gun right there. You know. And when his rage becomes hotter he might grab it and think he can strike her or *injure her* →[Injury]. And when, and she looks like she knows what she did wrong. She knows he's gonna know. She knows she's gonna get it or (Pause) and that, that's how she feels. She's like "Oh, no what's gonna happen?" She's wondering what's gonna happen.

E: And what did she do that was wrong?

S: Um. Possibly *she cheated* →[Suspects sexual Infidelity][Covert Sexual]. Most likely *she cheated* [Suspects Sexual Infidelity] [Covert Sexual]. You know and then she feels it was wrong but she did it anyway. And then (Pause) Yeah, she feels it was wrong. She's, cause she has her head, um eyes down She looks like she has her head tilted down so she, she knows.

E: Um-Hmm. And in the end? How do you think it will end?

S: (pause) Hopefully, hopefully she'll put um, get him, get him out the way or get him away, get away from that situation. But he looks like *he's gonna kill her* [Fatal]. And then *she's gonna be in a body bag pretty soon* [Fatal].

E: Anything else?

S: That's it.

Example 3: Nonsexual Violence With Injury

(Participant Number 17, Card 5)

E: Card #5.

S: Hmm. Ok. Let's see. *Husband* →[Romantic Partners] comes home from work (Pause) takes a look at the bills, he's about to start arguing with his wife. His wife's had a long day. She's about to start cooking. The baby's been crying. The potential for violence here is amazing. I mean *he can either grab a knife* →[Violence] [Non-sexual] [Injury] or (pause)

E: What's she thinking right now?

S: My guess would be, um, what the heck I get myself into here. It's like the commercial, "Calgon take me away".

E: (Laughs) And him?

S: Oh. He's, He's angry. He's like uh, some bill she must be responsible for. And he's trying to take it, tell her how we gonna pay for this and all that stuff.

E: How do you think it will turn out?

S: Bad. I mean the way it's painted. Uh, it looks *like he's close to grabbing one of the knives* →[Violence] [Non-sexual] [Injury]. So it don't look that great.

E: And will he. How will he use the knife?

S: *On her most likely* →[Violence] [Non-sexual] [Injury].

E: (Coughs) Ok.

S: That's it.

Combined Approach to Data Analysis Using Qualitative & Quantitative Techniques

The distribution of severity and type of violence across attachment style was examined by combining both qualitative and quantitative analytic techniques. First the descriptive codes for attachment style and severity of violent story content were converted to numerical scores. The process by which severity of violence was assigned numerical codes was discussed above. Attachment categories were assigned nominal values from 1 to 4 with 1 equal to *secure*, 2 equal to *preoccupied*, 3 equal to *dismissing* and 4 equal to *fearful*.

Once converted to numerical scores, the data was subjected to a series of five separate one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA). Whenever relevant,

pairwise comparisons in the form of Fisher's Protected T –tests (Welkowitz et al., 1991) were conducted in order to identify which attachment groups differed significantly from one another with respect to each of the five ANOVAs. Each ANOVA examined the distribution of one of five dependent variables (overall violent story content, non-sexual violent story content, sexually violent story content, overtly sexual violent story content and covertly sexual violent story content) across attachment style.

However, because the data set for Phase 1 violated the assumptions of homostaticity of variance (equal variance across groups) and normal distribution, both of which underlie non-parametric statistics (Kiehl, 1996), the analyses were repeated using the ANOVA's parametric equivalent -- the Kruskal-Wallis test (Seginer, 1992; Hammit & Patterson, 1991; Hultzman, 1993). Essentially, the Kruskal-Wallis test achieves the same thing as the ANOVA (e.g., examines the distribution of an independent variable across a dependent variable) but eliminates the need for normal distribution and equal variance across groups. It does so by replacing raw scores with their rank order equivalents. Essentially, the difference between the one-way between subjects ANOVA and the Kruskal-Wallis test is that the latter is a test of differences in the distribution of mean ranks of scores rather than a difference in the distribution of means of raw scores. Application of both the ANOVA and the Kruskal-Wallis test yielded identical results at both the overall and pair-wise levels. Thus in the interest of ease of communication, only the simpler ANOVA procedures and findings will be discussed from here forward.

However in the service of full disclosure, the Kruskal-Wallis statistics are listed in Appendix C.

Distribution of Severity of Violent Story Content (Overall Violence) Across Attachment Style

The converted numerical scores for attachment style and level, or severity, of violence were subjected to a one-way between subjects Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) -- which for the purpose of clarity, will from here forward be referred to as ANOVA1. In ANOVA1 the independent variable was the type of attachment style and the dependent variable was *level* or *severity* of violent story content.

The procedure used to convert the descriptive attachment categories into numerical scores has already been described above. Conversion of the codes for severity of violent story content to numerical scores was accomplished by rank ordering the four qualitatively derived categories for severity of violence from 0 to 3, with 0 equal to *no violence*, 1 equal to *violence without injury*, 2 equal to *violence with injury* and 3 equal to *fatal violence*. For example, a story coded as *fatal violence* would be assigned a numerical score of 3, whereas a story coded as *no violence* would be assigned a score of 0. As participants in Phase 1 offered one narrative per card, each participant was assigned one *severity of violence* score per card for a total of thirteen scores per volunteer. Next an *overall* violent story content score was determined for each participant by computing the mean of all thirteen violent content scores. ANOVA calculations and analyses were then performed using participants' respective attachment and overall violent story

content scores. It should be noted here that the results of ANOVA 1 provide an index of both overall and severity of violence in that the severity scores used in that particular analysis reflect all types of violent content, including both sexual and non-sexual violence. Specific hypotheses, findings and descriptive statistics for ANOVA1 are presented in chapter four.

Distribution of Type of Violent Story Content Across Attachment Style

The distribution of type of violence across attachment style was examined via a three-step process. First, for each participant narratives coded as *violence without injury*, *violence with injury*, and *fatal violence* were disaggregated and assigned two different numerical scores with 1 equal to *non-sexual violence* and 2 equal to *sexual violence*. The second step was to compute the means for both *sexual* and *non-sexual* violence scores. Finally, participants' respective attachment scores and type of violence score (e.g. *non-sexual* or *sexual*) were used to perform two separate one-way between subject ANOVAS – ANOVA 2 and ANOVA 3. In ANOVA 2, *non-sexually* violent story content was the dependent variable and attachment style was the independent variable. In ANOVA 3, *sexually* violent story content was the dependent variable and attachment style was the independent variable. Specific hypotheses, findings and descriptive statistics for ANOVA 2 and ANOVA 3 are presented in chapter four.

Distribution of Covert/Overt Sexually Violent Story Content Across Attachment Style

The distribution of covertly sexual violent story content across attachment style was examined by first, disaggregating only the narratives containing

mention of sexual violence into two groups, 1) those containing the mention of or reference to violence that was overtly sexual, such as rape and 2) those making mention or reference to violence that is covertly sexual, (e.g., precipitated by a failed sexual encounter). Next, the two conceptually distinct subgroups of violent story content were assigned a numerical value of 1 equal to *covert* sexual violence and 2 equal to *overt* sexual violence. Finally, separate one-way ANOVAs (ANOVA 4 and ANOVA 5) were conducted to examine the distribution of reference to overt and covert sexual violence across attachment style. In ANOVA 4 *covert sexual violence* is the dependent variable and attachment style is the independent variable. In ANOVA 5, *overt sexual violence* is the dependent variable and attachment style is the independent variable. Specific hypotheses, findings and descriptive statistics for ANOVA 4 and ANOVA 5 are presented in chapter four.

Phase 2

Objectives for Phase 2

Phase 2 was intended to replicate phase one with two additional goals: 1) to test the degree to which self-reported violence on the Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) (Straus et al, 1996) predicts severity and type of violent story content on the IAT and 2) determine whether or not the IAT can be used to discriminate batterers from non-batterers.

Participants

Phase two involved 15 men age 18 years and older with self-acknowledged histories of violence against their female intimate partner(s).

Participants varied across socioeconomic status, occupation, educational attainment, race and ethnicity. Such diversity among participants is consistent with the observation that batterers represent men of all ages, from all cultural, ethnic, educational and occupational backgrounds (Ganley, 1981). For phase 2, participants were recruited from area treatment programs, which provide services for the prevention of family violence and are affiliated with Lutheran Medical Center and the New York Center for Neuropsychology and Forensic Behavioral Science. Participants were recruited via referral from attending clinicians. Specifically, the primary investigator distributed recruitment flyers to attending clinicians and asked that they distribute contact information to those patients whom they felt met the stated volunteer criteria. Interested volunteers then contacted the primary investigator directly to set up an appointment at the site of the referring program or in the primary investigator's office at City College.

Specific Criteria for the Selection of Participants.

The criteria used to select research participants for phase 2 were as follows:

1. The participants in phase 2 were men at least 18 years of age or older. A minimum age of 18 years was selected to ensure that participants could legally provide informed consent to participate on their own behalf.
2. Comprehension of the CTS2 requires a minimum of a sixth grade reading level (Straus et al, 1996). Therefore, referring clinicians

were asked to refer only those men who had completed at least the sixth grade.

3. Participants were required to have been involved in at least one romantic partnership in the 12 months prior to participating in the study.
4. Participants in phase two were limited to men who had used physical violence against a female intimate partner at least once within the past year. In addition, participants were required to have been in treatment for the prevention of family violence within the previous 12 months.

Research Materials for Phase 2

Altogether, participants in Phase 2 completed three assessment instruments, the RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), IAT and the Conflict Tactics Scales 2(CTS2) (Straus et al., 1996). The RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) continued to be used as a measure of attachment style. Similarly, the IAT continued to be used as a measure of type and severity of projected violence. The reader is referred to the Research Materials Section of Chapter 3 for a comprehensive description of the IAT and RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). The CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996) was added to the test battery for Phase 2 in order to examine the relationship between projected violence and actual violence, and to test both the construct and discriminant validity of the IAT. Data supporting the capacity of the CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996) to accomplish each of these objectives is now presented.

The Conflict Tactics Scale2.

The Conflict Tactics Scales 2 (CTS2) (Straus et al, 1996) is a revised edition of the Conflict Tactics Scales (Straus, 1979; Straus & Gelles,1990). Essentially, both of these instruments are self-report inventories that measure the extent to which romantic partners (e.g., dating, cohabitating or married) participate in psychological and physical attacks against one another and the degree to which they use reasoning and negotiation to resolve conflicts between themselves. The CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) and its predecessor were developed from within the theoretical framework of conflict theory (Adams, 1965; Dahrendorf, 1959;Straus, 1979). A basic assumption of conflict theory is that while conflict may be an inevitable part of human relationships, violence as an approach to deal with conflict is not (Straus et al, 1996). The specific tactics used to manage conflict can range from passive activities, such as avoidance and calm discussion to violence. The CTS and CTS2 operationalize a range of identifiable conflict-related behaviors by measuring the frequency of concrete acts and events. Both instruments were designed to be used with other measures of whatever cause, context, and consequence variables are relevant for the study or clinical situation at hand (e.g., demographics, balance of power, feelings of fear and intimidation, injury) and require a sixth-grade reading ability to comprehend (Straus et al, 1996).

The CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996) is a 39 item self-report instrument, which is comprised of 78 questions about various behaviors, ranging from passive negotiation to physical and sexual violence, which have been enacted between

romantic partners during a time of conflict. Each item is phrased first to ask about what the respondent has done and then rephrased on the next line to ask about what the respondent believes his or her partner has done. For instance, item number one is "I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed." Item number two is "My partner showed care for me even though we disagreed." The 39 behaviors measured by the CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996) may be grouped according to conceptual similarity to make-up five different scales: 1) Negotiation, 2) Psychological Aggression, 3) Physical Assault, 4) Sexual Coercion and 5) Injury. According to Straus et al (1996), "Negotiation" is defined as those actions taken to settle a disagreement through discussion. "Sexual Coercion" is defined as behaviors that are intended to compel a partner to engage in unwanted sexual activity, ranging from verbal insistence to physical force. "Injury" is defined as bone or tissue damage, a need for medical attention or pain continuing for a day or more. Straus and colleagues (1996) did not provide an actual definition of "Physical Assault" or "Psychological Aggression." However, a review of the items contained in those scales indicates that within the CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996) paradigm "physical assault" refers to behaviors involving physical contact, such as pushing, shoving, punching, slapping, beating, burning, kicking, choking, throwing something at a partner, twisting a partner's arm, or using a knife or gun against a partner; whereas, "psychological aggression" refers to verbal insults and threats as well as behaviors enacted to intimidate or frighten a partner such as stomping out of the room or destroying something that belongs to a partner. Tables listing the CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996)

items by scale as well as a copy of the CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) protocol are included in Appendix A.

The CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) is scored by asking respondents to rank, on a scale from 0 to 7, how often they and their partners engaged in a particular behavior during the course of the previous 12 months (0 = Never, 1 = once, 2 = twice, 3 = 3 to 5 times, 4 = 6 to 10 times, 5 = 11 to 20 times, 6 = 20 times, 7 = Not in the past year but at least once sometime before). The midpoints for the respondents' chosen response categories are then computed. The midpoints are the same as the response categories for Categories 0,1 and 2. For Category 3 (3-5 times) the midpoint is 4, for Category 4 (6-10 times) the midpoint is 8, for Category 5 (11 -20 times) it is 15. Straus and Colleagues (1996) recommend using 25 as the midpoint for Category 6 (more than 20 times). Response category 7 (Not in the past year but it happened before) is scored as 0 when scores for the previous year are desired. The midpoint scores for each item within each scale are then summed to produce a frequency weighted scale score for each of the five scales (Negotiation, Psychological Aggression, Physical Assault, Sexual Coercion and Injury).

The CTS2 has been established as a valid and reliable measure of type of violence (Straus et al, 1996). The degree to which an instrument assesses the construct that it is intended to measure is defined as construct validity (Judd, et al, 1991). To demonstrate construct validity, a test must be correlated with other variables that it should be theoretically associated (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Using a sample of 317 undergraduate students (113 men and 204 women)

enrolled in sociology and criminal justice classes, Straus and colleagues (1996) tested the construct validity of the CTS2 by examining the correlations between the psychological aggression and physical assault scales. Operating under the assumption of conflict escalation theory that verbal aggression tends to increase the risk of physical assault (Berkowitz, 1993), they predicted those two scales to be highly and positively correlated. Tests of correlation produced an r value of .71 for men and $r = .67$ for women, thus validating their prediction and lending support for the CTS2 as a valid measure of both psychological aggression and physical assault.

Nonetheless, if a test is to be considered valid it must also show evidence of discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is established by demonstrating that theoretically opposed, or dissimilar, items do not correlate with one another (Judd et al, 1991; Campbell & Fiske, 1959). To investigate discriminant validity, Straus and colleagues (1996) identified two pairs of scales that in principle should not be correlated: (1) negotiation and sexual coercion and (2) negotiation and injury. Tests of correlation produced non-significant r -values for both pairs thus, contributing to the evidence of discriminant validity for those three scales.

Lastly, Straus et al (1996) showed the CTS2 to be highly reliable, producing Cronbach alpha coefficients (Cronbach, 1951) of $\alpha = .86$ for Negotiation Scale, $\alpha = .79$ for the Psychological Aggression Scale, $\alpha = .86$ for the Physical Assault Scale, $\alpha = .87$ for the Sexual Coercion Scale and $\alpha = .95$ for the Injury Scale.

Procedures

In keeping with the parameters of Phase 1, all testing was conducted individually. The same instructions and procedures for administering and scoring the IAT and RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) were used in Phase 2. Similarly, the IAT, RSQ (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) and CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996) were administered in rotating order to eliminate specific order effects (e.g., fatigue resulting from lengthier measures).

Data Analysis

In Phase 2, the same analytic techniques used to code text and convert qualitative codes into numerical scores was applied to the Phase 2 data set. The reader is referred to the Data Analysis section for Phase 1 in Chapter 3 for a complete description of the techniques applied.

Main Themes & Storylines

The same analytic techniques used to derive main storylines in Phase 1 were applied to the Phase 2 data.

Attachment Style & Severity of Violence

In Phase 2, the distribution of participants' mean scores for overall violent story content was examined across attachment style through a one-way between-subjects ANOVA.

Attachment Style and Type of Violence

In Phase 2, the distribution of type of violent story content (e.g. sexual v. non-sexual) across attachment style was examined through two separate one-way between-subjects ANOVAs.

Covertly/Overtly-Sexual Violent Story Content & Attachment Style

In Phase 2, the distribution of covertly- and overtly-violent story content across attachment style continued to be examined through separate one way between subjects ANOVAs.

Violent Story Content & Actual Battering Behavior

The degree to which actual battering behavior predicts sexually violent story content on the IAT was examined via application of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation test (Judd et al, 1991; Keiss, 1996; Welkowitz et al, 1991).

Batterers V. Non-batterers

The degree to which the IAT can be used to differentiate batterers from non-batterers was examined via five separate Fisher's Protected T-tests (Welkowitz et al, 1991) comparing the Phase 1 and Phase 2 mean scores for all five IAT violence indices. It was assumed that the men in Phase 1 were not batterers. Therefore, it was expected that the men in Phase 1 would have significantly lower scores on all five indices.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results for Phase 1

Hypotheses

The Phase 1 data set was analyzed in order to establish a baseline, or range, of expectable responses to each of the 13 IAT cards and to test the following four hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1

Amongst non-batterers, there will be significant differences in the distribution of overall projected violence across attachment style, with the *securely-attached* men expected to reveal less overall violence compared to men with *preoccupied*, *dismissing* or *fearful* attachment styles.

Hypothesis 2

Dismissingly and *fearfully- attached*, non-battering men will exhibit more sexual violence on projective measures compared to men with *preoccupied* or *secure* attachment styles.

Hypothesis 3

Dismissingly and *fearfully* attached, non-battering men will exhibit more overt sexual violence on projective measures compared to men with *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles.

Hypothesis 4

Non-battering men with *preoccupied* and *secure* attachment styles will exhibit more covert sexual violence on projective measures compared to *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached men.

Findings for each of these hypotheses are now presented.

Main Story Lines

The analytic techniques of grounded theory methodology (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) described in Chapter 3 were applied to the IAT narratives to produce the final list of main storylines per card. Table B1 in Appendix B contains the final list of main storylines for Phase 1. Table B3 also in Appendix B contains the list of Major Codes used derive the main storylines along with a sampling of supporting text.

Rationale for Analysis of Variance ANOVA

The distribution of violent story content across attachment style was statistically analyzed via both a series of five separate one-way between subjects Analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests and Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric Analysis of variance tests. Application of both procedures yielded identical results at both the overall and pair-wise levels. Therefore in the interest of ease of communication, only the findings for the simpler ANOVA calculations will be presented. Readers interested in the Kruskal-Wallis statistics for the phase 1 data set are referred to Appendix C.

For the purpose of clarity the five ANOVAs for Phase 1 will from here forward be referred to as ANOVA 1, ANOVA 2, ANOVA 3, ANOVA 4 and ANOVA 5. ANOVA 1 examined the distribution of participants' scores for "overall" violent story content across attachment style. ANOVA 2 examined participants' scores for "non-sexually" violent story content across attachment style. ANOVA 3 examined participants' scores for "sexually-violent" story

content across attachment style. ANOVA 4 examined the distribution of participants' scores for "covert" sexually violent story content across attachment style. Lastly, ANOVA 5 examined the distribution of participants' scores for "overt" sexually violent story content across attachment style.

Overall Findings for Violent Story Content & Attachment Style

Significant differences were found regarding the distribution of "sexually-violent" story content across attachment style (ANOVA 3) as well as, the distribution of "covertly-sexual" violent story content (ANOVA 4). In both cases, the *dismissing* group reported significantly higher means on the respective dependent variables compared to both the secure and preoccupied groups. Specific hypotheses, findings and descriptive statistics (i.e. means, standard deviations and sample size) for each of the five ANOVAs are presented below.

ANOVA 1: Overall Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA1 the dependent variable is "Overall" violent story content. Simply put, ANOVA1 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for overall violent story content scores is equal across groups. Results indicate that the mean differences in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of men is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table A-1a below presents the descriptive statistics for overall violent story content and attachment style.

Table A-1a:**Overall Violence by Attachment Style Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Attachment Style			
Secure	.74	.38	7
Preoccupied	.56	.41	6
Dismissing	.77	.19	6

As seen in this table, the securely and dismissingly attached men report almost exact mean scores for overall violent story content, with the securely attached group obtaining a mean of .74 and the dismissing group reporting a mean of .77. The preoccupied group reported the lowest overall violent story content with a mean of .56. Table A-1b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table A-1b: Overall Violence by Attachment Style**Inferential Statistics****One Way Analysis of Variance**

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	.147	2	7.37	.62	.55
Error	1.90	16	.12		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “overall” violent story content ($F=.62, df=(2,16), p=.55$)

ANOVA2: Non-Sexually” Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA2 the dependent variable is “non-sexually” violent story content. ANOVA2 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for non-sexually violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of men is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table A-2a presents the descriptive statistics for overall violent story content and attachment style.

Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Attachment Style	<hr/> <hr/>		
Secure	0.74	0.41	7
Preoccupied	0.37	0.46	6
Dismissing	0.45	0.09	6

As seen in this table, the securely attached men reported the highest mean score for “non-sexually” violent story content (mean = .74). The dismissingly attached group reported the second highest mean score for non-sexually violent

story content (mean = .45), and the preoccupied group reported the lowest mean score for this variable (mean = .37) Table A-2b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table A-2b: Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style					
Inferential Statistics					
One Way Analysis of Variance					
Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	.48	2	0.24	1.82	.19
Error	2.12	16	0.13		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “non-sexually” violent story content ($F=1.82$ $df=(2,16)$, $p=.19$).

ANOVA 3: Sexually Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA 3 the dependent variable is “sexually” violent story content. ANOVA3 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for sexually violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of sexually violent story content across attachment style in this particular sample of men is in fact, greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table A-3a presents the descriptive statistics for sexually violent story content and attachment style.

Table A-3a:**Sexual Violence by Attachment Style Descriptive Statistics**

	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Attachment Style	<hr/> <hr/>		
Secure	1.21	0.37	7
Preoccupied	1.42	0.38	6
Dismissing	1.97	0.41	5

As seen in this table, the dismissing group reported the highest mean scores for sexually violent story content (mean = 1.97), followed by the preoccupied group (mean = 1.42). The securely attached men reported the lowest mean scores for sexually violent story content (mean = 1.21). Table A-3b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table A-3b: Sexual Violence by Attachment Style**Inferential Statistics****One Way Analysis of Variance**

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	1.74	2	0.87	5.94	.01
Error	2.19	15	0.15		

As indicated in the table, there are in fact, statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “sexually violent” story content ($F=5.94$, $df=(2,15)$, $p=.05$). Given that fact, Fisher’s T-tests (Welkowitz, et al., 1991) comparing the mean scores for sexually violent story content scores for all three attachment subgroups were undertaken to determine which groups differed significantly from one another. These comparisons indicated significant differences ($p<.05$) between both the dismissing and secure groups and the dismissing and preoccupied groups. No statistically significant differences ($p>.05$) were found between the secure and preoccupied groups. Table A-3c below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analyses used for this data.

Pair wise Comparisons				
Attachment Style	Attachment Style	Mean Difference	Standard Error	p
Secure	Preoccupied	-0.21	0.21	0.34
	Dismissing	-0.76*	0.22	0.00
Preoccupied	Secure	0.21	0.21	0.34
	Dismissing	-0.55*	0.23	0.03
Dismissing	Secure	0.76*	0.22	0.00
	Preoccupied	0.55*	0.23	0.03

ANOVA 4: “Covertly-Sexual” Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA 4 the dependent variable is “covertly-sexual” violent story content. ANOVA 4 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for “covertly-sexual” violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of men is in fact, greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table A-4a presents the descriptive statistics for “covertly-sexual” violent story content and attachment style.

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Attachment Style	<hr/> <hr/>		
Secure	1.00	0.00	3
Preoccupied	1.50	0.50	5
Dismissing	2.47	0.74	5

As seen in this table, the dismissing group reported the highest mean scores for covertly sexual violent story content (mean = 2.47), followed by the preoccupied group (mean = 1.50). The securely attached men reported the lowest mean scores for covertly sexual violent story content (mean = 1.00). Table A-4b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table A-4b: Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Inferential Statistics					
One Way Analysis of Variance					
Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	4.56	2	2.28	11.28	.00
Error	2.02	10	0.20		

As indicated in the table, there are in fact, statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “covertly sexually violent” story content ($F=11.28$, $df=(2,10)$, $p=.00$). Given that fact, pair wise comparisons of the mean scores for covertly-sexual violent story content for all three attachment subgroups were undertaken to determine which groups differed significantly from one another on this variable. These comparisons indicated significant differences between both the dismissing and secure groups and the dismissing and preoccupied groups ($p<.05$). No statistically significant differences were found between the secure and preoccupied groups ($p>.05$). Table A-4c below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analyses used for this data.

Table A-4c: Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style				
Pair wise Comparisons				
Attachment Style	Attachment Style	Mean Difference	Standard Error	p
Secure	Preoccupied	-0.50	0.33	0.16
	Dismissing	-1.47*	0.33	0.00
Preoccupied	Secure	0.50	0.33	0.16
	Dismissing	-0.97*	0.28	0.01
Dismissing	Secure	1.47*	0.33	0.00
	Preoccupied	0.97*	0.28	0.01

ANOVA5: "Overtly-Sexual" Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA5 the dependent variable is "Overtly-Sexual" violent story content. ANOVA5 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for "Overtly-Sexual" violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of men is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table A-5a below presents the descriptive statistics for overtly violent story content and attachment style.

Table A-5a:**Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style Descriptive Statistics**

Attachment Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Secure	1.30	0.40	7
Preoccupied	1.33	0.29	6
Dismissing	1.60	0.89	6

As seen in this table, the dismissing group reported the highest mean scores for overtly violent story content with a mean of 1.60. The secure and preoccupied groups reported almost exact mean scores on this variable, with the securely attached group obtaining a mean of 1.30 and the preoccupied group reporting a mean of 1.33. Table A-5b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table A-5b: Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style**Inferential Statistics****One Way Analysis of Variance**

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	0.28	2	0.14	0.39	.69
Error	4.35	12	0.36		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “overtly-sexual” violent story content ($F=4.594$, $df=(2,12)$, $p=.69$).

RESULTS FOR PHASE 2

Hypotheses

Data analysis for Phase 2 had five objectives: 1) to establish a baseline, or range, of expectable responses to each of the 13 IAT cards for a group of pre-identified batterers, 2) examine the distribution of violent story content across attachment style in a group of self-acknowledged batterers, 3) examine the distribution of actual violence across attachment style for the same group of pre-identified batterers, 4) determine if and how projected violence predicts actual violence, 5) test the degree to which the IAT successfully discriminates batterers from non-batterers. Toward those ends the following nine hypotheses were proposed for phase 2:

Hypothesis 2-1

In the phase 2 sample of a group of batterers, significant differences in the distribution of overall violent story content across attachment style were expected, with the secure group revealing less overall violent story content compared to the preoccupied, dismissing or fearful groups.

Hypothesis 2-2

Dismissingly- and fearfully- attached batterers would exhibit more sexually violent story content (combined overtly and covertly sexual) compared to preoccupied or secure batterers.

Hypothesis 2-3

The sexually violent IAT narratives of the dismissingly- and fearfully attached batterers would be more overtly sexual compared to the sexually violent narratives of the secure or preoccupied batterers.

Hypothesis 2-4

The sexually violent narratives of the preoccupied and secure men would contain more covert sexual content compared to the sexually violent narratives of the dismissingly- and fearfully- attached batterers.

Hypothesis 2-5

On measures of actual violence (CTS2), dismissingly and fearfully attached batterers would report more physical assaults compared to batterers with secure or preoccupied attachment styles.

Hypothesis 2-6

On measures of actual violence (CTS2), dismissingly- and fearfully- attached batterers will report more sexual violence compared to batterers with secure or preoccupied attachment styles.

Hypothesis 2-7

The Conflict Tactics Scales 2 (CTS2) “Physical Assault Scale” and the IAT “Overall Violence” Scores will be positively correlated.

Hypothesis 2-8

The Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) “Sexual Coercion” and the IAT “Sexual Violence” scores will be positively correlated.

Hypothesis 2-9

The mean scores of batterers for all five IAT Violence Indices (e.g, overall violence, non-sexual violence, sexual violence, overt sexual violence and covert sexual violence) will be significantly higher than the mean scores of non-batterers. Findings for each of the five areas of inquiry listed above are now presented.

Main Story-lines

The analytic techniques of grounded theory methodology (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) described in Chapter 3 and applied to the Phase 1 data set were also applied to the Phase 2 IAT narratives to produce the final list of main story-lines per card. Table B2 in Appendix B contains the final list of main storylines for Phase 2. Table B4 in Appendix B contains a list of all the Major Codes derived from the data analysis along with a sampling of verbatim text supporting those codes.

*Projected Violence**Rationale for Analysis of variance*

In phase 2, the data for both projected and actual violence were analyzed via both a series of five separate One-way Between-subjects Analysis of variance

(ANOVA) tests and Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric Analysis of variance tests. As with the Phase 1 data set, application of both procedures yielded identical results at both the overall and pair-wise levels. For clarity the five ANOVAs used to examine the distribution of projected violence across attachment style in Phase 2 will from here forward be referred to as ANOVA 2-1, ANOVA 2-2, ANOVA 2-3, ANOVA 2-4 and ANOVA 2-5. ANOVA 2-1 examined the distribution of batterers' scores for "overall" violent story content across attachment style. ANOVA 2-2 examined batterers' scores for "non-sexually" violent story content across attachment style. ANOVA 2-3 examined batterers' scores for "sexually-violent" story content across attachment style. ANOVA 2-4 examined the distribution of batterers' scores for "covert" sexually violent story content across attachment style. ANOVA 2-5 examined the distribution of participants' scores for "overt" sexually violent story content across attachment style.

Overall Findings for Projected Violence & Attachment Style

Overall and adhering to the .05 level of significance standard, all five ANOVA's used in the analysis of projected violence for Phase 2 failed to reach statistical significance. However, non-significant ($p=.055$) differences in the expected directions were revealed with respect to Sexual Violence (ANOVA 2-3). Hence, pair-wise comparisons using the conservative Kruskal-Wallis protected rank-sum rank test (Welkowitz et al, p. 318, 1991) for sexually violent story content for all three attachment subgroups were undertaken to determine which, if any groups differed significantly from one another.⁷ Specific null hypotheses,

⁷ Application of both Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Kruskal-Wallis Tests produced identical results for all Phase 2 comparisons. Hence with the exception

findings and descriptive statistics (i.e. means, standard deviations and sample size) for each of the five ANOVAs used to analyze the data for projected violence in Phase 2 are presented below.

ANOVA 2-1: Overall Violent Story Content & Attachment Style

In ANOVA 2-1 the dependent variable is “Overall” violent story content. Simply put, ANOVA 2-1 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for overall violent story content scores on the IAT is equal across groups. Results indicate that the mean difference in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of batterers is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table B-1a below presents the descriptive statistics for overall violent story content and attachment style for the phase 2 data set.

	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
⁸ Attachment Style			
Preoccupied	.74	.16	6
Dismissing	.66	.16	
Fearful	1.10	.58	4

of the pair wise comparisons for sexual violence, only the simpler ANOVA calculations are presented here. Kruskal- Wallis statistics for all other Phase 2 comparisons involving “projected violence” are included in Appendix D.

As seen in this table, the fearfully- attached batterers reported the highest mean scores for overall violent story content with a mean of 1.10. Batterers with preoccupied attachment styles reported the second highest mean score of .74, followed by the dismissingly attached batterers who achieved a mean of .66. Table B-1b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table B-1b: Phase 2					
One-Way Analysis of Variance					
Overall Violence by Attachment Style Inferential Statistics					
Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	.47	2	.23	2.27	.15
Error	1.23	12	.10		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “overall” violent story content ($F=2.27$ $df=(2,12)$, $p=.15$).

ANOVA 2-2: Non-Sexually Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA 2-2 the dependent variable is “non-sexually” violent story content. ANOVA 2-2 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for non-sexually violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in

distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of batterers is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table B-2a presents the descriptive statistics for non-sexually violent story content and attachment style.

Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style Descriptive Statistics			
Attachment Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Preoccupied	0.56	0.32	6
Dismissing	0.52	0.10	5
Fearful	.77	.75	4

As seen in this table, the preoccupied and dismissingly -attached batterers report almost exact mean scores for non-sexually violent story content, with the preoccupied batterers obtaining a mean of .56 and the dismissing group reporting a mean of .52. The fearful batterers reported the most non-sexually violent story content with a mean of .77. Table B-2b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

⁸ No participants scored into the Secure Group.

Table B-2b: Phase 2**Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style****One -Way Analysis of Variance**

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	.15	2	7.45	.40	.68
Error	2.22	12	0.19		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “non-sexually” violent story content ($F=.40$ $df=(2,12)$, $p=.68$).

ANOVA 2-3: Sexually Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA 2-3 the dependent variable is “sexually” violent story content. ANOVA 2-3 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for sexually violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of sexually violent story content across attachment style in this particular sample of batterers is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table B-3a presents the descriptive statistics for sexually violent story content and attachment style.

Table B-3a: Phase 2			
Sexual Violence by Attachment Style			
Descriptive Statistics			
Attachment Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Preoccupied	1.48	0.46	5
Dismissing	1.15	0.22	5
Fearful	1.74	.17	4

As seen in this table, the fearful group reported the highest mean scores for sexually violent story content (mean = 1.74), followed by the preoccupied group (mean = 1.48). The dismissingly attached men reported the lowest mean scores for sexually violent story content (mean = 1.15). Table B-3b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table B-3b: Phase 2					
Sexual Violence by Attachment Style					
One-Way Analysis of Variance					
Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	.78	2	0.39	3.81	.055
Error	1.12	11	0.10		

As indicated in the table, the p-value for sexually violent story content falls just slightly above the .05 level of significance, indicating that there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “sexually violent” story content ($F=3.81$, $df=(2,11)$, $p=.055$). Nonetheless, scores for the means of the fearful and preoccupied groups are in the predicted direction. Given that finding and considering that the p-value fell just slightly above the .05 cut-off level, pair-wise comparisons using the more conservative Kruskal-Wallis protected rank-sum test (Welkowitz, et al., 1991) for sexually violent story content for all three attachment subgroups were undertaken to determine which, if any groups differed significantly from one another. These comparisons indicated significant differences ($p = .02$) between the dismissing and fearful groups with the fearful group revealing significantly more sexually violent story content than the dismissing group. No statistically significant differences ($p = .28$) were found between the dismissing and preoccupied groups or the fearful and preoccupied groups ($p = .39$). Tables B-3c1, B-3c2, B-3c3, B-3c4 and B-3c5, B-3c6 below present the source tables containing both the descriptive and inferential statistics for these analyses.

Table B-3c1: Phase 2
Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pair wise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Fearful V. Preoccupied

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Fearful	4	4.30
Preoccupied	5	5.89

Table B-3c2: Phase 2
Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics: Pair wise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Fearful V. Preoccupied

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
1	.75	.39	.05

Table B-3c3: Phase 2

Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics: Pair wise Comparisons
for Sexual Violence
Preoccupied V. Dismissing

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Preoccupied	5	6.60
Dismissing	5	4.40

Table B-3c4: Phase 2**Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics Pair wise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Preoccupied V. Dismissing**

df	Chi –Square	p	alpha
1	1.50	.22	.05

Table B-3c5: Phase 2**Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pair wise Comparisons for Sexual Violence****Fearful V. Dismissing**

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Fearful	4	7.38
Dismissing	5	3.10

Table B-3c6: Phase 2**Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics
Pair wise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Fearful V. Dismissing**

df	Chi –Square	p	alpha
1	5.650	.02*	.05

ANOVA 2-4: Covertly-Sexual Violent Story Content & Attachment Style

In ANOVA 2-4 the dependent variable is “covertly-sexual” violent story content. ANOVA 2-4 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for “covertly-sexual”

violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of batterers is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table B-4a presents the descriptive statistics for “covertly-sexual” violent story content and attachment style.

Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style			
Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Attachment Style	<hr/>		
Preoccupied	1.53	0.51	5
Dismissing	1.00	0.00	5
Fearful	1.81	.75	4

As seen in this table, the fearful group reported the highest mean scores for covertly sexual violent story content (mean = 1.81), followed by the preoccupied group (mean = 1.53). The dismissingly attached men reported the lowest mean scores for covertly sexual violent story content (mean = 1.00). Table B-4b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	1.56	2	7.82	3.19	.08
Error	2.70	11	0.25		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for covertly sexual violent story content ($F=3.19$, $df=(2,11)$, $p=.08$). Nonetheless and as predicted, the fearful group revealed the most covert sexual violence in response to the IAT. Conversely, the dismissing group scored opposite of what was predicted and revealed the least amount of covert sexual violence in response to the IAT.

ANOVA 2-5: Overtly-Sexual Violent Story Content and Attachment Style

In ANOVA 2-5 the dependent variable is “Overtly-Sexual” violent story content. ANOVA 2-5 tests the null hypothesis that the mean for “Overtly-Sexual” violent story content is equal across groups. Results indicate that the difference in distribution of this factor across attachment style in this particular sample of batterers is not greater than would be expected by chance at the .05 level of significance. Table B-5a below presents the descriptive statistics for overall violent story content and attachment style.

Table B-5a:Phase 2			
Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style			
Descriptive Statistics			
Attachment Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Fearful	1.60	0.33	4
Preoccupied	1.00	0.00	1
Dismissing	1.88	0.85	4

As seen in this table, the dismissing group reported the highest mean scores for overtly violent story content with a mean of 1.88, followed by the fearful group (mean = 1.60). The preoccupied groups reported the least overt sexual violence in response to the IAT with a mean score of 1.00. Table B-5b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Table B-5b: Phase 2					
Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style					
One Way Analysis of Variance					
Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	0.64	2	0.32	0.76	.51
Error	2.52	6	0.42		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “overtly-sexual” violent story content ($F=.76$, $df=(2,6)$, $p=.51$). Nonetheless, scores for all three groups fell in the predicted direction with both the dismissing and the fearful group reporting higher scores than the preoccupied group.

Actual Violence & Attachment Style

In Phase 2 the distribution of self-reported, actual violence across attachment style was statistically analyzed in a series of two separate one-way between- subjects Analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests., ANOVA 2-6 and ANOVA 2-7. ANOVA 2-6 examined the distribution of batterers’ scores on the *physical assault* subscale of the Conflict Tactics Scales 2 (CTS2) (Straus et al, 1996) across attachment style. ANOVA 2-7 examined batterers’ scores on the *sexual coercion subscale* of the CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) across attachment style. Descriptive and test statistics for ANOVAs 2-6 and 2-7 are now presented.

ANOVA 2-6: Physical Assault and Attachment Style

ANOVA 2-6 examined the distribution of self-reported physical assaults across attachment style. Because the scores on this factor were highly skewed ANOVA calculations were performed using the logs of the actual raw scores. This method effectively produces homogeneity of variance to more closely approximate the assumed normal distribution required to perform parametric tests (Tabachinick & Fidell, 2000, p. 81) and thereby eliminated the need to perform subsequent Kruskal-Wallis procedures. Results very closely approach statistical

significance with a p-value of .055. Table B-6a below presents the descriptive statistics for self-reported physical assault and attachment style.

Attachment Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Fearful	3.48	0.67	4
Preoccupied	2.27	0.65	6
Dismissing	2.69	0.75	5

As seen in this table, the fearful group reported the highest mean scores for self-reported physical assaults with a mean of 3.48, followed by the dismissing group (mean = 2.69). The preoccupied groups reported the least physical assaults with a mean score of 2.27. Table B-6b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	3.56	2	1.78	3.74	.055
Error	5.71	12	0.48		

As indicated in the table, the p-value for self-reported physical assaults falls just slightly above the .05 level of significance, indicating that there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for “sexually violent” story content ($F=3.74$, $df=(2,12)$, $p=.055$). However, considering that the p-value fell just slightly above the .05 cut-off level, pair-wise comparisons using Fisher’s Protected T-test, also known as the test of least significant differences (LSD) (Welkowitz, et al., 1991) were conducted to determine which, if any groups differed significantly from one another with respect to the frequency of self-reported physical assaults against a female intimate partner. These comparisons indicated significant differences ($p=.02$) between the preoccupied and fearful groups with the fearful group revealing significantly more physical assaults than the preoccupied group. No statistically significant differences were found between the dismissing and preoccupied groups ($p=.33$) or the dismissing and fearful groups ($p=.11$). Table B –6c below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the pair wise analysis for actual physical assaults and attachment style.

LSD Pair wise Comparisons (Logs)				
Attachment Style	Attachment Style	Mean Difference	Standard Error	p
Fearful	Preoccupied	1.22*	.45	.02
	Dismissing	.79	.46	.11
Preoccupied	Fearful	1.22*	.45	.02
	Dismissing	-.42	.42	.33
Dismissing	Fearful	-.79	.46	.11
	Preoccupied	.42	.42	.33

ANOVA 2-7: CTS2 Sexual Coercion & Attachment Style

ANOVA 2-7 examined the distribution of self-reported sexual violence (CTS2 sexual coercion scores) across attachment style. Because the scores on this factor were highly skewed ANOVA calculations were performed using the logs of the actual raw scores. This method effectively produces homogeneity of variance to more closely approximate the assumed normal distribution required to perform parametric tests (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000) and thereby eliminated the need to perform additional Kruskal-Wallis procedures. Results indicate that there are no significant differences in the distribution of actual (self-reported) sexual violence across attachment style. Table B-7a below presents the descriptive statistics for self-reported physical assault and attachment style.

Attachment Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
Fearful	.64	1.56	4
Preoccupied	1.76	1.21	6
Dismissing	2.34	1.87	5

As seen in this table, the dismissing group reported the highest mean scores for self-reported sexual violence with a mean of 2.34, followed by the preoccupied group (mean = 1.76). The fearful groups reported the least sexual violence with a mean score of .64. Table B-7b below presents the source table containing the inferential portion of the analysis for these data.

Effect	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Attachment	6.50	2	3.25	1.37	.29
Error	26.63	12	2.39		

As indicated in the table, there are no statistically significant differences among the three attachment style subgroups with respect to their mean scores for self-reported sexual violence ($F=1.37$, $df=(2,12)$, $p=.29$).

Relationship Between Projected Violence & Actual Violence

Two separate Pearson Correlations (Welkowitz et al, 1991), correlation 1 and correlation 2, were conducted in order to determine if and how projected violence is correlated with self-reports of actual violence. Correlation 1 compared the Phase 2 CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) scores for *physical assault* with the phase 2 IAT scores for *overall violence*. It was hypothesized that the scores on those scales would be positively correlated (e.g., endorsement of frequent physical assaults predicts a high score for projected overall violence). Correlation 2 compared the Phase 2 CTS2 (Straus et al, 1996) sexual coercion subscale scores with the IAT sexual violence scores. Similarly, it was expected that those two scales would be positively correlated. Results for Correlation 1, found no relationship between self-reported “Physical Assault” and projected “Overall Violence” ($r = .02$, $p = .96$). Similarly, results for Correlation 2, found no relationship between self-reported acts of “Sexual Coercion” and projected “Sexual Violence” ($r = -.21$, $p = .47$).

The IAT and Batterers V. Non-Batterers

The degree to which the IAT successfully discriminates batterers from non-batterers was assessed through a series of five separate Fisher’s t-tests (Welkowitz et al, 1991) comparing the Phase 1 and Phase 2 IAT mean scores for all measures of projected violence (e.g. overall violence, non-sexual violence,

sexual violence, covert sexual violence, overt sexual violence). As displayed in Table C below, none of those five comparisons was statistically significant.

Variable	Batterers	Non-Batterers	t	df	p
Overall Violence	.81	.73	-.63	33	.54
Non-Sexual Violence	.60	.57	-.27	33	.79
Sexual Violence	1.44	1.53	.60	31	.56
Covert Sexual Violence	1.42	1.81	1.55	26	.13
Overt Sexual Violence	1.61	1.44	-.63	22	.53

Supplemental Analyses

Relationship between Actual Non-Sexual Violence & Projected Non-Sexual Violence

Because both the IAT Non-Sexual Violence Index and the CTS2 Physical Assault Scale exclude acts of overt sexual violence it could be argued that a comparison of those two indices is a better test of the relationship between actual physical (non-sexual) assaults and projected violence that is not overtly sexual than is a test comparing the CTS2 Physical Assault Scale, which includes only non-sexual violence, and the IAT Overall Violence Index, which includes acts of overt sexual violence. Hence, tests of correlation for those measures were also conducted. Correlation 3 compared projected non-sexual violence with self-reported non-sexual violence by comparing IAT “Non-Sexual Violence” scores with CTS2 “Physical Assault” Scores. Results for Correlation 4 revealed no

relationship between projected “non-sexual violence” and self-reported non-sexual physical assaults ($r = -.08$, $p = .78$).

Relationship Between Actual Overt Sexual Violence & Projected Violence that is Overtly Sexual

The relationship between self-reported acts of overt sexual violence and projected violence that is overtly sexual was examined by comparing the IAT “Overt Sexual Violence” scores with the CTS 2 “Sexual Coercion” scales, since both measures exclude acts of violence that may be covertly sexual. Correlation 6 tested that relationship and revealed a strong but statistically insignificant relationship between projected violence that is overtly sexual and self-reported acts of overt sexual violence ($r = .58$, $p = .13$).

Relationship Between Use of Negotiation Tactics & Non-Sexual Violence

The theoretical assumption that negotiation skills serve as a mediator, or inhibitor, of violence was tested via application of two separate applications of the Pearson Correlation test (Welkowitz et al, 1991). The first of these correlations, correlation 5, tested the degree to which self-reported use negotiation skills predicts incidents of self-reported physical assaults. Toward this end it was hypothesized that the CTS2 scores for *physical assault* would be negatively correlated with scores on the CTS2 *negotiation* Scale. The second correlation, correlation 6, tested the degree to which self-reported use of negotiation skills predicts degree of fantasized, or projected violence. Toward that end, it was hypothesized that CTS2 *negotiation* scores would also be negatively correlated with scores for *overall violence* on the IAT.

Results for Correlation 5 found a positive but insignificant relationship between CTS2 *physical assault* scores and CTS2 *negotiation* scores ($r = .44$, $p = .10$). Results for Correlation 6 revealed no relationship between the CTS2 *negotiation* scores and IAT scores for *overall violence* ($r = .15$, $p = .59$).

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Interpretation of Results: Phase 1

Main Storylines

The main storylines derived from the Phase 1 data set represent the overall themes reflected in the IAT narratives of a small community-based sample of men who were assumed to be non-violent. Participant narratives tended to cluster around two or three main storylines. However, for some of the 13 cards there were stories that failed to cluster with others. These stories can be thought of as outliers, which reflect something unique in the individual respondent. The trend of thematic clusters with a few outliers observed in the small sample used here parallels what would be expected in a larger and normally distributed sample. This is significant because it suggests that the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) can be used to analyze group and individual differences both with target populations and larger nationally representative samples. However, much more research using randomly selected samples is needed to assert this with any degree of certainty. Table B1 in Appendix B contains the list of storylines per card for Phase 1. Table B3 also in Appendix B contains a list of the major codes derived from the analysis of the Phase 1 narratives along with a sampling of supporting text for each code.

Hypotheses Testing

The major purpose of Phase 1 was to investigate whether attachment style predicted type of projected violence using the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) -- particularly sexual violence. Based on consideration of the

literature on attachment and sexual offending (Marshall, 1989; 1993; Marshall et al, 1993; Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b; Ward et al, 1996) and attachment and battering behavior (Tweed & Dutton, 1998; Dutton 1998), it was hypothesized that motive to commit violence, and type of violence against an intimate partner would vary with attachment style. As such, four hypotheses were proposed for Phase 1:

- 1) In the Phase 1 sample of a group of non-batterers, significant differences in the distribution of overall violent story content across attachment style were expected, with the secure group expected to reveal less overall violent story content compared to the preoccupied, fearful or dismissing group;
- 2) Dismissingly and fearfully attached men were expected to exhibit more sexually violent story content compared to preoccupied or secure men;
- 3) The sexually violent IAT narratives of the dismissingly and fearfully attached men were expected to be more overtly sexual compared to the sexually violent narratives of the secure or preoccupied men; and
- 4) The sexually violent narratives of the preoccupied and secure men would contain more covert sexual content compared to the sexually violent narratives of the dismissingly and fearfully attached men.

No support was found for hypothesis number 1. It should be noted that the *fearfully- attached* category was excluded from analyses due to insufficient sample size (n=1). Nonetheless, significant group differences across the three remaining attachment groups were not found in the distribution of overall violent story content. This suggests that in response to the IAT some men, regardless of attachment style, will entertain fantasies about enacting some form of violence (e.g., sexual or non-sexual) against an intimate partner.

Hypothesis number 2 was supported. Significant group differences were found regarding the distribution of “sexually-violent” story content (e.g., story content containing either overt or covert sexual violence) across attachment style, with *dismissingly* attached men revealing more sexual violence in their IAT narratives compared to either the preoccupied or secure groups. This suggests that while some men, regardless of their respective attachment styles, fantasize about enacting some form of violence against their intimate partners, the nature of the fantasized violence varies with attachment style.

Hypothesis number 3 was rejected because no significant group differences were found in the distribution of story content that contained overt sexual violence. This would indicate that some men regardless of attachment style fantasize about committing overt acts of sexual violence, such as rape, against their intimate partners.

Significant differences were found for the distribution of projected violence that is covertly sexual (e.g., physical violence that is triggered after a rejection of a man’s sexual advances, ridicule about his sexual prowess or by

suspected sexual infidelity), but not for the predicted groups of men. Results showed *dismissingly-attached* men to reveal more covert sexual violence in their fantasy material compared to either the secure or preoccupied men. Hence, it appears that the greater incidence of projected sexual violence noted among *dismissingly-attached* men (Hypothesis 2) can be attributed to the presence of covert sexual dynamics underlying much of their violent fantasies.

One implication of this finding is that while men with *dismissing* attachment styles are no more likely to entertain fantasies of committing both overt sexual violence and non-sexual violence against women with whom they are intimately involved than are men with secure or preoccupied attachment styles, they are significantly more likely to entertain such fantasies at times when they perceive their partners to be sexually rejecting or insatiable. Hence, it appears that dismissing attachment is a vulnerability for a particular belief system regarding sex and violence – namely, that women are the exclusive sexual property of their male partners and should always be sexually available and admiring. Moreover, for these men violence appears to be a response to sexual frustration and unavailability. While it is beyond the scope of this dissertation, the implication that men with *dismissing* attachments are more likely to hold such a belief system than are men with *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles may be empirically tested by analyzing and coding the Phase 1 data for these concepts.

Interpretation of Results: Phase 2

Main Themes & Storylines

The main storylines derived from the Phase 2 data set represent the overall themes reflected in the IAT narratives of a small sample of batterers. Consistent with the phase 1 data set, participant narratives tended to cluster around two or three main storylines. However, for some of the 13 cards there were stories that failed to cluster with others. These stories can be thought of as outliers, which reflect something unique in the individual respondent. As with the Phase 1 data set, the trend of thematic clusters with a few outliers observed in the small sample used here parallels what would be expected in a larger and normally distributed sample. This is significant because it suggests that the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) can be used to analyze group and individual differences both with target populations and larger nationally representative samples. However, much more research using randomly selected samples are needed to assert this with any degree of certainty. Table B2 in Appendix B contains the list of storylines per card for Phase 2. Table B4 also in Appendix B contains a list of the major codes derived from the analysis of the Phase 2 narratives along with a sampling of supporting text for each code.

Hypotheses Testing

Projected Violence (LAT) & Attachment Style (hypotheses 2-1 thru 2-4).

Overall, hypotheses testing in the form of ANOVA calculations revealed no significant differences regarding attachment style and projected violence.⁹

Thus hypotheses 2-1 through 2-4 were rejected.

However, ANOVA calculations for hypothesis 2-2, which examined the distribution of sexually violent story content across attachment style produced a p value of .055, which is just slightly above the cut off for statistical significance. Thus, failure to reach the required value for statistical significance could be the result of small sample size rather than equality amongst groups. With that in mind pair-wise comparisons were conducted and revealed significant differences ($p = .02$) between the *dismissing* and *fearful* groups, with the *fearful* group revealing significantly more sexually violent (overtly and covertly sexual combined) story content than the *dismissing* group.

Given that the overall ANOVA calculations failed to meet the .05 criterion, findings for the respective pair-wise comparisons are admittedly exploratory. Nonetheless, those findings are theoretically supported. The hypothesis that batterers with *fearful* and *dismissing* attachment styles would reveal more sexually violent story content compared to batterers with *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles was based on three empirically validated assumptions: 1) that people with *fearful* and *dismissing* attachment styles possess a negative view of others (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), 2) that people with

⁹ The securely attached group was dropped from analyses as no subjects scored into that category.

fearful and *dismissing* attachment styles endorse a preference for impersonal and/or unusual sexual practices (Hazan et al, 1994), and 3) that men who sexually assault adult women are more likely to have *dismissing* or *fearful* attachment styles than *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles (Seidman, 1992; Ward et al, 1996).

Moreover, by definition (Bartholomew, 1990) people with a *fearful* attachment style possess a negative sense of both self and others, people with a *preoccupied* attachment style have a negative sense of self and a positive sense of others, whereas people with a *dismissing* attachment style possess a positive sense of self and a negative sense of others. Thus, the preliminary finding that fearfully attached batterers differ only from dismissingly attached batterers with respect to a higher degree of sexually violent fantasy material suggests that a positive sense of self can mediate against entertaining sexually violent fantasies.

Actual Violence & Attachment Style (Hypotheses 2-5 & 2-6)

The hypotheses that batterers with *dismissing* and *fearful* attachments would report more incidents of actual physical (non-sexual) assaults (Hypotheses 2-5) compared to batterers with *secure* or *preoccupied* attachment styles was tested via ANOVA calculations. Here again, ANOVA calculations yielded a p value of .055, just slightly above the .05 significance criterion. Again, failure to reach statistical significance could be attributed to small sample size rather than equality amongst groups. With that in mind, pair-wise comparisons were conducted and revealed significant differences between the *preoccupied* and *fearful* groups ($p = .02$), with the *fearful* group reporting more physical assaults

than the *preoccupied* group. For reasons already mentioned (e.g, overall p value $>.050$) this finding is at best preliminary. Nonetheless, it is consistent with Bartholomew & Horowitz's (1990 ; 1994) model of adult attachment. Within that model people with a *fearful* attachment style possess a negative sense of both self and others, people with a *preoccupied attachment style* hold a negative sense of self and a positive sense of others, whereas people with a *dismissing* attachment style possess a positive sense of self and a negative sense of others. Thus, the preliminary finding that only the *fearfully* attached batterers differ significantly from the *preoccupied* batterers implies that a man's positive sense of his partner can inhibit him from enacting his violent (non-sexual) fantasies or impulse against her.

The hypothesis that *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached batterers would endorse more incidents of actual sexual violence compared to *preoccupied* or *secure* batterers (hypothesis 2-6) was not supported as ANOVA calculations produced a p value much greater than .05 ($p = .29$). However, that is not surprising considering the instrument used to measure actual sexual violence (CTS2) defines sexual violence only as violence or coercion that ends in genital contact. Whereas, sexual violence as defined in this dissertation and implicit to hypothesis 2-6, includes both violence that involves genital contact and violence that does not involve genital contact but is precipitated by sexual impotency, infidelity, rejection or unavailability. Considering that sex, or genital contact, has been established as an attachment process that is activated to secure proximity and intimacy (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994; Marshall, 1989; 1993) it is not surprising that

men of all attachment styles would engage in what could be considered “coercive” tactics which are aimed at ensuring sexual contact with their romantic partners.

Projected Non-Sexual Violence & Actual Non-Sexual Violence

(Hypotheses 2-7).

The relationship between projected violence and actual violence was examined through two separate correlations. Correlation 1 compared the Phase 2 CTS2 scores for “Physical Assault” with the Phase 2 IAT scores for “Overall Violence.” It was hypothesized that those two variables would be positively correlated (Hypothesis 2-7), but results showed no relationship between those two factors ($r = .02, p = .96$). One possible explanation for this finding is that the CTS2 “Physical Assault” scale does not include acts of overt sexual violence such as rape, but the IAT “Overall Violence” scores do.

One way to avoid the confounding variable of overt sexual violence that is inherent in the IAT Overall Violence score is to compare the IAT Non-Sexual Violence Scores with the CTS2 Physical Assault Scores. However, such a comparison fails to control for possible covert sexual motivations that may underlie some of the physical assaults endorsed on the CTS2 Physical Assault Scale. With those caveats in mind, an additional test of correlation comparing IAT “Non-Sexual Violence” scores with the CTS2 “Physical Assault” scores was conducted. Results for that particular test also failed to reach statistical significance ($r = -.08, p = .77$). Failure to identify a relationship between projected violence and actual violence should not be taken as proof that such a relationship

does not exist. For instance, the lack of relationship found here might be systemic to the methodology. Thus, future research examining the relationship between projected violence using the IAT and actual violence should incorporate a method of assessing both actual violent behavior and the psychodynamics or motivation underlying the behavior. This would enable acts of actual violent behavior to be disaggregated into the three IAT violence categories (non-sexual, overtly sexual and covertly sexual) and thereby control for the confounding variables observed here (e.g, different operational definitions of non-sexual violence).

Projected Sexual Violence & Actual Sexual Violence (Hypotheses 2-8)

The relationship between projected sexual violence and actual sexual violence was examined through a correlation comparing the CTS2 “Sexual Coercion” Scores and the IAT “Sexual Violence” Scores. A positive relationship was expected (Hypothesis 2-8). Results however, indicate a negative but insignificant relationship ($r = -.21$, $p = .47$). Thus at first glance, it would appear that the more sexually violent fantasies a man has the less likely he is to perpetrate actual sexual violence. This is contrary to the existing literature (Prentky et al, 1989; Pam & Rivera, 1995, Schlesinger & Kutash, 1981, Myers et al, 1997) In fact, these results may be misleading because each measure used a different definition of sexual violence. The IAT” Sexual Violence” scores include fantasized violence that is covertly sexual, such as an assault that does not involve genital contact but is precipitated by sexual rejection. The CTS2 “Sexual Coercion” scores include only those behaviors that result in genital contact.

In contrast, both the IAT scores for Overt Sexual Violence and the CTS2 Sexual Coercion Scale exclude acts that may be covertly sexual. Therefore, a comparison between the IAT “Overt Sexual Violence” scores and the CTS2 “Sexual Coercion” scores was also performed as a more accurate test of the relationship between projected violence that involves sexual contact and actual violence involving sexual contact. Results for that comparison also failed to reach statistical significance ($r=.58$, $p>.05$.) However, the strength of the correlation between those two factors suggests that the failure to reach statistical significance is likely due to small sample size. More importantly, such a strong correlation is consistent with the literature (Prentky, et al., 1989) supporting the disinhibitory role of sexual fantasy in the commission of overt sexual violence. Moreover, such a strong positive correlation suggests that the IAT may prove to be useful in differentiating between batterers who commit, or at least have the propensity to commit overt sexual violence and batterers who commit non-sexual or covertly sexual violence. Obviously this needs to be tested through a larger scale study of pre-identified batterers that specifically examines differences among types of batterers (e.g., men who commit overt sexual violence, men who perpetrate covert sexual violence and men who use non-sexual violence).

Batterers v. Non-batterers (Hypothesis 2-9)

The hypothesis that batterers would differ significantly from non-batterers with respect to their mean scores for all five IAT violence indices (hypothesis 2-9) was not supported (overall violence $p = .54$, nonsexual violence $p = .79$, sexual violence $p = .56$, overt sexual violence $p = .53$, covert sexual violence $p = .13$).

Hence, it would appear that violent fantasies alone are not sufficient to differentiate men who batter from those who don't. However, that is not say that there is no relationship between violent fantasy and violent behavior. In fact, the strong correlation ($r = .58$) between actual, overt sexual violence and projected, overt sexual violence found here suggests a direct relationship between type of violent fantasy and type of violent behavior. Thus it appears that the IAT might be useful in differentiating among types of batterers rather than differentiating batterers from non-batterers.

Supplemental Analyses

Negotiation & Violence

The theoretical assumption that actual use of negotiation tactics serves as a mediator, or inhibitor, of actual violence was not supported as results failed to reach statistical significance ($r = .44$, $p < .05$) and were positively correlated. The positive but insignificant relationship observed here suggests that contrary to what was predicted, use of negotiation tactics actually increases the use of violence. Such a finding is consistent with the Shehan's (1995) "context of legitimation" hypothesis, which contends that for some people the use of violence may be considered acceptable only after they have exhausted all other tactics, including negotiation.

No support was found for the hypothesis that self-reported use of negotiation skills inhibits projected violence ($r = .15$, $p > .05$). Thus on the surface it appears that there is no relationship between negotiation tactics and projected violence. However, failure to identify a relationship might be due to within group

differences, such as different attachment styles. For instance, *fearfully-attached* offenders have been found to harbor feelings of resentment for their victims and to use violence instrumentally (Ward et al, 1995a; 1995b; 1996). As such, *fearfully-attached* batterers might opt for negotiation tactics over violence if such tactics are more likely to achieve a desired end while still harboring feelings of resentment. Such resentment could logically manifest in violent fantasies. Testing of that hypothesis is beyond the scope of this dissertation and would require a much larger sample.

Limitations of the Overall Study: Phase 1 & Phase 2

Methodological Considerations

Sample Size

The small sample sizes (n=20 for Phase 1; n= 15 for Phase 2) present several limitations. First, it is not possible to assert that the list of main storylines for the IAT represent normative responses. Continued research on a much larger and normally distributed sample is needed to establish such norms. In addition, small sample size prohibited the examination of possible within group differences. For instance, in phase 1 *dismissingly* attached men reported more sexual violence in response to the IAT compared to the *preoccupied* or *securely* attached men. Given the prototype-based model of attachment (Bartholomew, 1990) used in this study, it is possible that individual scores on attachment within the *dismissingly* attached group account for the bulk of sexually violent story

content reported within that group. This effect could not be examined as small sample size greatly reduces the power of any statistical analysis (Kiess, 1996) ¹⁰

Definition of Non-Batterers

Another limitation involves the failure to screen for violence in the Phase 1 sample. It was assumed that all of the men in Phase 1 were not batterers. However, some of those men may well have had histories of committing violence against an intimate partner. Theoretically, such men would present as outliers in the Phase 1 sample and would skew the sample in the direction of a higher preponderance of violent story content than would be expected if the sample were comprised of only non-batterers. Moreover, failing to screen for violence in the Phase 1 sample may cause the Phase 1 and Phase 2 samples to appear more alike than they actually are.

Instruments and Procedures

The Interpersonal Apperceptive Test (IAT) is a new assessment instrument. Just if and how the actual procedures used for administering and scoring the IAT combined to influence the pattern of distribution of violence across attachment style produced in this study remains to be tested. While efforts were taken to control for some common method effects, such as presenting the IAT and other assessment measures in rotating order to control for fatigue, other important method effects like the influence of the examiner's gender on participants' responses, were not addressed. For instance, results for Phase 1 showed that *dismissingly* attached men produced more sexually violent story

¹⁰ The term "power" is used here as a statistical term and is defined as the "probability that an effect of an independent variable will be detected in an

content on the IAT than did the *securely* or *preoccupied* men. This finding was taken as evidence that *dismissingly* attached men do in fact produce more sexually violent fantasy material in response to the IAT than do *securely* or *preoccupied* attached men. However, because all testing was done by the same female examiner, it could be that *dismissingly* attached men are more willing to reveal sexually violent fantasy material to a woman than are other men. As such, a degree of caution is warranted when generalizing the findings and conclusions on attachment and sexual violence presented in this dissertation. Future research using the IAT should be designed so as to examine the impact of examiner/examinee gender on projected violence and whatever other dependent variables are being considered in connection with the IAT.

Finally, this dissertation used the Relationship Styles Questionnaire (RSQ) (1994) to determine participants' attachment styles. The RSQ is based on Bartholomew's (1990) four-category, prototype-based model of attachment. Elsewhere, adult attachment has been measured using either a dimensional (Collins & Read, 1990) or categorical approach (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Each of these methods carries with it a number of implicit assumptions, which must be considered when making cross-model comparisons. For instance, dimensional approaches characterize individuals as a single point along a continuous dimension. Dimensional approaches make two basic assumptions. First, people can only be quantitatively ordered. There is no sudden qualitative shift that separates people into different groups. Secondly, it is assumed that each and every dimension of the construct considered has an effect that is independent of the

experiment when such an effect is present (Keiss, 1996, p.219)."

other(s). The typological, or grouping, approach simply places individuals into the most appropriate group. That approach assumes that people present as discrete types, so that individuals within a group or type are interchangeable with respect to the measured variable. Furthermore, the typological approach implies that only between-group differences are meaningful; within group differences are considered the products of random error.

In contrast to those two assessment methods, the prototype approach assumes that categories of any variable be it a psychological construct, such as depression, or a natural species (e.g. bird) do not have distinct boundaries. Rather, a category is defined in terms of its features, with no particular features being individually necessary or jointly sufficient to define group membership (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Horowitz et al, 1981; Cantor et al; 1980.). A prototype then, consists of the most common features of a category and thus describes a theoretical ideal against which real people can be evaluated. Therefore and by definition, group members differ in how similar they are to the group ideal. In the present dissertation, the assigned attachment category represents only the best-fitting category for each individual participant. Individual scores within a category vary, with some group members more closely approximating the respective attachment prototype than others.

Hence, the attachment label assigned to an individual may vary from study to study as a product of both the method of measurement, and the theoretical framework employed to define and measure attachment style. A man labeled as *dismissingly* attached in the present study might be identified differently in

another study using a dimensional or typological system of measurement.

Consequently, caution must be exercised when using the results found here to support and or disconfirm past or future studies relating attachment style to intimate partner violence.

Finally, the frequency and type of actual violence reported on in Phase 2 was measured using only the Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2), which relies on self-report. Social desirability response bias has been associated with self-report inventories (Edwards, 1953; Edwards, 1957; Cohen & Tongas, 1959; Crowne & Marlowe, 1967). Hence it is possible that the violence reported here is an under estimate. To control for this effect and to cross-validate participants' self-reported use of violence, future research should include a measure of social desirability, such as the Crowne-Marlowe Test (Crowne & Marlowe, 1967) as well as information gathered from outside sources such as intimate partners, police reports, or clinicians.

Implications of the Research

Instruments & Assessment

Implicit in the design of the IAT as well as in the overall structure of this dissertation is the call for a taxonomy of batterers that is based on individual combinations of batterer characteristics (i.e., attachment needs, battering behavior, the absence or presence of psychopathology and or substance abuse, financial status, psychopathology, etc...), and includes the sexual batterer as a specific subtype. The design and instrumentation used in this dissertation provide

future researchers with both the framework and tools for developing such a taxonomy.

A classification system which takes into account individual batterer characteristics enables the development of person-specific treatment strategies. Such person-specific strategies could greatly enhance the way that this country (both at the local and federal level) provides treatment for male batterers. Currently, the *Psychoeducational Power-And-Control Group Model* (PEM) is viewed as the most cost-effective and widely used treatment approach (Moore et al, 1997). The PEM model is derived from social-learning theory and is based upon the feminist view that violence against women results from the patriarchal structure of our society. The model's primary goal is to alter cognitive perceptions by educating batterers about gender egalitarianism and the power-and control dynamics, which underlie men's use of violence against women.

Critics of the PEM model (Moore et al, 1997; Beckerman, 2002) argue that while the patriarchal structure of our society in part informs the understanding of some male batterers it does not explain all battering behavior, such as the man who uses sexual violence against intimate partners. In short, critics contend that the etiology of intimate partner violence in all its various forms is not so simple. Rather, research demonstrates significant differences among male batterers in the areas of attachment (Follingstad et al.,2002; Tweed & Dutton, 1998; Holtzworth-Monroe & Stuart; 1994) psychopathology (Hamberger & Hastings, 1986; Dutton,1998), and social functioning (Moore et al., 1997).

Similarly, research with sexually aggressive men suggests that they too are a heterogeneous group with differences noted in neurological functioning (Davidson, 2000), attachment disturbance (Ward et al., 1995a; Ward et al., 1995b; Marshall, 1993; Marshall & Marshall, 1995; Hudson & Ward, 1997; Ward & Hudson, 1996) and addictive disorders (Irons, 1996). Therefore, intimate partner violence should not be lumped together under a single causal explanation linked to power and control. To do so is to ignore many possible aggravating and mitigating factors that could be incorporated into specific treatment interventions.

The specific assessment battery used in this dissertation can be combined with other assessment instruments, such as a survey of the respondent's drinking habits and drug use to assess a range of factors proven to contribute to intimate partner violence. Specific findings gleaned from an individual's overall assessment can then be used to develop person-specific interventions, particularly with regard to attachment and sexual disturbance.

Treatment

Knowledge about an individual's specific attachment dynamics and other potentially aggravating factors (e.g., alcohol abuse, psychological disturbance, neurological) has implications for identification and delivery of person-specific treatment goals and strategies. For example, research has demonstrated that anxiously attached (i.e. preoccupied) individuals fall in love frequently and easily, experience extreme jealousy and contrasting emotional states, and attempt to meet their strong needs for security and affection through sexual interactions (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). If a man who sexually assaults his intimate partner is assessed to

have a preoccupied attachment style, treatment can be focused to directly address his negative self-perceptions as well as his tendencies to overvalue others and sexualize interpersonal experiences. In such instances, clinicians may need to adopt a more supportive and gently challenging position given the proclivity of preoccupied individuals to interpret ambiguous interpersonal interactions in personally demeaning ways. A similar approach may be warranted for batterers with fearful attachment styles, given their strong desires for emotional relationships. However, additional focus on social skills building may be indicated with fearfully attached men since they are most likely to have limited experience in social relating due to their fear of rejection and tendency to avoid interpersonal relationships.

Such a therapeutic stance is likely to be unsuccessful with dismissive batterers given their contempt for emotional relationships with others. Strategies designed to develop the capacity for empathy and anger management techniques may be better indicated with dismissingly attached batterers.

Public Policy

Intimate partner violence is a crime. Therefore, both legal and public policy inform state and county standards for treatment interventions, as well as the criminal justice system's response to intimate partner violence. In fact, several states have domestic violence coalitions, comprised of service providers and criminal justice personnel. In some states these coalitions are responsible for developing the state standards for service delivery to and adjudication of batterers (Moore et al, 1997). Overwhelmingly, state and county governments have

established interventions based on the sociopolitical/feminist theory of intimate partner violence (Bograd, 1988; Dobash & Dobash, 1979). These standards ignore existing research, which establishes intimate partner violence as a multi-determined behavior. The present study contributes to the extant empirical research in favor of multi-dimensional treatment and intervention modalities. Continued research in the area of attachment and its implications for intimate partner violence can help to provide the empirical evidence needed to convince legislators and domestic violence coalitions to expand treatment options beyond the Power and Control Psychoeducational Group Model.

Summary and Conclusions

Phase 1

In Phase 1 the distribution of type of violent fantasy across three of Bartholomew 's (1990) four attachment styles (*secure, preoccupied and dismissing*) was examined in a sample of 20 non-battering men. The *fearful* attachment style was not included in the analysis due to insufficient sample size (n=1). Overall, results for phase 1 indicate that some men regardless of their respective attachment style will entertain fantasies about committing violence against their romantic partner that is non-sexual, overtly sexual or covertly sexual in nature. Evidence that the violent fantasies of *dismissingly -- attached*, non-battering men contain more sexual violence (combined overt and covert sexual violence) compared to the fantasies of preoccupied or securely attached men was also found. Moreover, it was demonstrated that the higher incidence of sexually violent fantasy material noted among *dismissingly attached*, non-battering men

can be attributed to covert sexual dynamics underlying their violent fantasies (e.g., suspected sexual infidelity, rejection of sexual advances or insults to the man's sexual prowess) not to fantasy about acts of overt sexual violence. That finding is contrary to the hypothesis that secure and preoccupied men reveal more violent fantasy material that is covertly sexual compared to dismissingly attached men.

Phase 2

In Phase 2 the distribution of both type of violent fantasy and type of actual violence was examined across three of Bartholomew's (1990) four attachment styles (*preoccupied*, *dismissing* and *fearful*) using a group of 15 self-acknowledged batterers. The *secure* group was not included in the analysis because none of the phase 2 participants scored into that category. The relationships between two sets of variables 1) actual non-sexual violence and projected non-sexual violence and 2) actual sexual violence and projected sexual violence were also assessed in phase 2. In addition, the degree to which the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique (IAT) successfully discriminates batterers from non-batterers and the theoretical assumption that actual use of negotiation tactics mediates against actual and projected violence was examined in Phase 2.

Projected Violence & Attachment Style

With respect to the distribution of violent fantasy across attachment style, no significant differences were found at the overall level for *overall*, *non-sexual*, *overt sexual* or *covert sexual violence*. However, near significant differences ($p = .055$) were found at the overall level for *sexually violent* fantasy material (e.g.,

fantasy material that includes both overt and covert sexual violence). Significant differences ($p = .02$) at the pair wise level were found between the *fearfully* and *dismissingly* attached groups with the *fearful* group revealing more sexually violent fantasy than the *dismissing* group. The fact that significant differences were found only between the *fearful* and *dismissing* groups and not the *fearful* and *preoccupied* groups was taken as evidence that a positive sense of self can mitigate against developing and maintaining sexually violent fantasies.

Actual Violence & Attachment Style

Near significant ($p = .055$) differences were found at the overall level for the distribution of actual non-sexual violence (actual assaults that do not include genital contact) across attachment style. At the pair wise level, significant ($p = .02$) differences were found between the *fearful* and *preoccupied* group with the *fearful* group committing more physical assaults than the *preoccupied* group. The fact that the *fearful* group only differed from the *preoccupied* group and not the *dismissing* group was interpreted as evidence that a positive sense of one's romantic partner can inhibit batterers from enacting their violent fantasies or impulses against them.

The hypothesis that *dismissingly* and *fearfully* attached batterers would endorse more incidents of actual sexual violence compared to *preoccupied* or *secure* batterers was not supported. This was attributed to the fact that two different operational definitions of sexual violence were used in the analysis.

Relationship Between Actual Non-Sexual Violence & Projected Non-Sexual Violence

The relationship between actual non-sexual violence and projected non-sexual violence was examined in two separate correlation tests. The first correlation test examined the relationship between the IAT Overall Projected Violence Scores and the CTS2 Physical Assault Scale. The second test assessed the relationship between the IAT Non-Sexual Violence Scores and the CTS2 Physical Assault Scale. Both tests failed to identify a relationship between variables. In both cases, the lack of relationship was attributed to the fact that two different operational definitions of violence were used in the analyses. For example, The CTS2 Physical Assault Scale excludes acts of overt sexual violence but may include violence that is covertly sexual, whereas the IAT Non-Sexual Violence Scores exclude both overt sexual violence and covert sexual violence. Similarly, the IAT Overall Violence Scores include overt sexual violence but the CTS2 Physical Assault Scale does not. Hence, it was concluded that to avoid the confounding variable of covert sexual dynamics inherent in some instances of physical violence future research intended to examine the relationship between projected violence on the IAT and actual violence should include some measure of motive and psychodynamics when assessing actual violent behavior. Only after the motive and psychodynamics underlying an act of violence are identified can that act be accurately classified as non-sexual.

Relationship Between Actual Sexual Violence & Projected Sexual Violence

The relationship between actual sexual violence and projected sexual violence was also examined in two separate correlation tests. The first test examined the relationship between the IAT Sexual Violence Scores and the CTS2

Sexual Coercion Scale Score. The second test examined the relationship between the IAT Overt Sexual Violence Scores and the CTS2 Sexual Coercion Scales. The first test found no relationship between the IAT Sexual Violence Scores and the CTS2 Sexual Coercion Scale. Again, this was attributed to the fact that two different operational definitions were used in the analysis since the CTS2 includes acts of covert sexual violence but the IAT Overt Sexual Violence Scores do not.

The second correlation test examined the relationship between the IAT Overt Sexual Violence Scores and the CTS2 Sexual Coercion Scale Scores and found a strong but statistically insignificant ($r = .58$, $p = .13$) relationship between those variables. Considering the magnitude of that correlation, the failure to reach statistical significance was interpreted to be a product of small sample size. Moreover and despite that caveat, the observed relationship was taken as evidence in support of the literature (Prentky et al, 1989; Burgess et al, 1986; Pam & Rivera, 1995, Myers et al 1998; Schlesinger & Kutash, 1981) regarding the disinhibitory role of sexual fantasy in the commission of overt sexual violence. In addition, the observed relationship was interpreted as evidence that the Interpersonal Apperceptive Technique can be useful in differentiating batterers who commit, or at least who have the propensity to commit overt sexual violence from batterers who commit non-sexual or covertly sexual violence.

Batterers V. Non-Batterers

The hypothesis that batterers would differ significantly from non-batterers with respect to their mean scores for all five IAT violence indices was not supported in a series of five separate t-tests. Hence, it was concluded that violent fantasies

alone are not sufficient to differentiate men who batter from those who don't. However, the strong but statistically insignificant correlation ($r = .58, p = .13$) between actual, overt sexual violence and projected, overt sexual violence also found in this dissertation suggests a strong and positive relationship between type of violent fantasy and type of violent behavior. Thus it was suggested that the IAT might be more useful in differentiating among types of batterers rather than differentiating batterers from non-batterers.

Supplemental Analyses

Negotiation & Violence

The theoretical assumption that actual use of negotiation tactics serves as a mediator, or inhibitor, of actual violence was supported. It was suggested that the teaching and development of negotiation skills should continue to be an integral component of programs aimed at preventing interpersonal violence.

The theoretical assumption that actual use of negotiation tactics inhibits projected violence was not supported. It was suggested that the lack of relationship might be a function of attachment style.

Appendix A

Consent to Participate in Research Study (Revised 6/29/01)

Name _____

Date _____

I understand that the purpose of this study is to identify the types of attitudes and situations that men believe contribute to violence and aggression between men and women.

If I choose to participate in this study, I agree to meet with the interviewer for approximately 1.5 hours. During that time, I will be asked to look at a series of 13 drawings that show a man and woman together in different situations. I will then be asked to make up a story about each of these drawings. I also agree to fill out two different questionnaires, one that asks me to describe how I usually feel when I am involved in a relationship with a woman, and another that asks me to describe the different ways that I have tried to resolve conflict with a romantic partner during the last year. By participating in this study I also give my permission to the interviewer, Ms. Jacqueline Guajardo, to view any and all unsealed criminal records that I may have. I will be paid \$20.00 for participating in this study.

I understand that the stories I make-up about the drawings will be tape recorded and that this and all other information I provide to the interviewer will remain confidential. On the tapes and questionnaires, I will only be identified by participant identification number. I will not be asked to write my name on the questionnaire. I will not be asked my name, address or telephone number during the taping, but I will be asked to provide this information on a separate sheet of paper. This sheet of paper will be kept separate from the tapes and questionnaires and kept in a locked file cabinet. The interviewer, Ms. Jacqueline Guajardo and her research supervisor, Dr. Jeffrey Rosen, are the only people who will have access to this information.

Although I may learn something about myself by participating in this project, I understand that the purpose of this research is not for my immediate benefit. However, I also understand that the investigator is aware of the sensitive nature of the topic being studied and that she will refer me to a staff member at the program where I am currently attending treatment for the prevention of family violence in the event that I experience any emotional discomfort associated with my participation in this project.

I understand that my participation in the present study is completely voluntary and that I may stop at any time without penalty. My decision to participate or not to participate is completely independent of my status in any program with which I am currently associated and in no way effects my eligibility for current or future services offered there or elsewhere.

I have been informed about the systems for insuring my confidentiality and emotional well being in connection with this study. I have also been given the opportunity to ask any question(s) I have regarding my participation in this study, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have also been informed that my participation in this study will not subject me to any physical stress or danger. However, if I have any future questions about the study, I may call Jacqueline N. Guajardo at (212) 650-6602 or Dr. Jeffrey Rosen, Professor of Psychology at the City College of the City University of New York at (212) 650- 5694. I may also call Ethel Breheny, Institutional Review Board Administrator, at (212) 650-7903 during regular business hours if I have questions or complaints about my rights as a subject.

By signing this form I agree that I am willing to be contacted in the future for possible follow-up studies although I am under no obligation to participate if and when I am contacted. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

I agree to participate in this study.

Witness



Signature _____

Print Name _____

Signature _____

Print Name _____

Appendix A

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Name _____

Date _____

I understand that the purpose of this study is to identify the types of attitudes and situations that men believe contribute to violence and aggression between men and women.

If I choose to participate in this study, I agree to meet with the interviewer for approximately 1.5 to 2.0 hours. During that time, I will be asked to look at a series of 13 drawings that show a man and woman together in different situations. I will then be asked to make up a story about each of these drawings. I also agree to fill out two different questionnaires, one that asks me to describe how I usually feel when I am in a relationship with a woman, and another that asks me to describe the different ways that I have tried to resolve conflict with a romantic partner during the last year. I will be paid \$30.00 for participating in this study.

I understand that the stories I make-up about the drawings will be tape recorded and that this and all other information I provide to the interviewer will remain confidential. On the tapes and questionnaires, I will only be identified by a participant identification number. I will not be asked to write my name on the questionnaires. I will not be asked my name, address or phone number during the taping but I will be asked to provide this information on a separate sheet of paper. This sheet of paper will be kept separate from the tapes and questionnaires and kept in a locked file cabinet. The interviewer, Ms. Jacqueline Guajardo and her research supervisor, Dr. Jeffrey Rosen, are the only people who will have access to this information.

Although I may learn something about myself by participating in this project, I understand that the purpose of this research is not for my immediate benefit. However, I also understand that the investigator is aware of the sensitive nature of the topic being studied and that she will refer me to a staff member at the program where I am currently attending treatment for the prevention of family violence in the event that I experience any emotional discomfort associated with my participation in this project.

I understand that my participation in the present study is completely voluntary and that I may stop at any time. My decision to participate or not to participate is completely independent of my status in any program with which I am currently associated and in no way effects my eligibility for current or future services there or elsewhere.

I have been informed about the systems for insuring my confidentiality and emotional well being in connection with this study. I have also been given the opportunity to ask any question(s) I may have regarding my participation in this study and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have also been informed that my participation in this study will not subject me to any physical stress or danger. However, if I have any future questions about the study I may call Jacqueline Guajardo at (212) 650-6602 or Dr. Jeffrey Rosen, Professor of Psychology at the City College of the City University of New York at (212) 650-5694. I may also call Ethel Breheny, Institutional Review Board Administrator, at (212) 650-7903 during regular business hours if I have questions or complaints about my rights as a subject.

By signing this form I agree that I am willing to be contacted in the future for possible follow-up studies although I am under no obligation to participate if and when I am contacted. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

I agree to participate in this study.

Volunteer Signature_____
Print Name_____
Witness Signature_____
Print Name

Appendix A

Sunset Park Family Health Center – Lutheran Medical Center
Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Name _____

Date _____

I understand that the purpose of this study is to identify the types of attitudes and situations that men believe contribute to violence and aggression between men and women.

If I choose to participate in this study, I agree to meet with the interviewer for approximately 1.5 to 2.0 hours. During that time, I will be asked to look at a series of 13 drawings that show a man and woman together in different situations. I will then be asked to make up a story about each of these drawings. I also agree to fill out two different questionnaires, one that asks me to describe how I usually feel when I am in a relationship with a woman, and another that asks me to describe the different ways that I have tried to resolve conflict with a romantic partner during the last year. I will be paid \$30.00 for participating in this study.

I understand that the stories I make-up about the drawings will be tape recorded and that this and all other information I provide to the interviewer will remain confidential. On the tapes and questionnaires, I will only be identified by a participant identification number. I will not be asked to write my name on the questionnaires. I will not be asked my name, address or phone number during the taping but I will be asked to provide this information on a separate sheet of paper. This sheet of paper will be kept separate from the tapes and questionnaires and kept in a locked file cabinet. The interviewer, Ms. Jacqueline Guajardo and her research supervisor, Dr. Jeffrey Rosen, are the only people who will have access to this information.

Although I may learn something about myself by participating in this project, I understand that the purpose of this research is not for my immediate benefit. However, I also understand that the investigator is aware of the sensitive nature of the topic being studied and that she will refer me to a staff member at the program where I am currently attending treatment for the prevention of family violence in the event that I experience any emotional discomfort associated with my participation in this project.

I understand that my participation in the present study is completely voluntary and that I may stop at any time. My decision to participate or not to participate is completely independent of my status in any program with which I am currently associated and in no way effects my eligibility for current or future services there or elsewhere.

I have been informed about the systems for insuring my confidentiality and emotional well being in connection with this study. I have also been given the opportunity to ask any question(s) I may have regarding my participation in this study and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have also been informed that my participation in this study will not subject me to any physical stress or danger. However, if I have any future questions about the study I may call either Jacqueline Guajardo at (718) 238-7979, or Dr. Guiseppe Costantino, Director of Clinical Services at Sunset Terrace Mental Health Center at (718) 437-5225. I may also call Claudia Lyon, DO, Institutional Review Board Chairperson for Lutheran Medical Center, at (718) 630-8695 during regular business hours if I have questions or complaints about my rights as a subject.

By signing this form I agree that I am willing to be contacted in the future for possible follow-up studies although I am under no obligation to participate if and when I am contacted. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

I agree to participate in this study.

Volunteer Signature

Print Name

Approval date start: Nov. 22, 2002

Witness Signature

Print Name

Approval date end: Nov. 18, 2003

Appendix A

MEMO

To: LFHC Clinicians

Date: January 28, 2003

From: Jacqueline N. Guajardo

RE: Volunteers for Research Study
On Intimate Partner Violence

Dear Colleagues:

I would like to ask your help in recruiting volunteers to participate in my dissertation research study. The study has full approval from the Lutheran Medical Center Institutional Review Board.

Volunteers must be **men** 18 years or older, speak and read English proficiently, and have a known history of at least one incident of violence against a female intimate partner. Volunteers should either be your primary client or the partners/family members of your clients.

Volunteers will be asked to complete two brief questionnaires, one that asks them to describe how they feel about being in a romantic relationship with a woman, and another that asks them to indicate the different ways that they have tried to resolve conflict in their romantic relationships. Volunteers will also be asked to look at a series of 13 pencil drawings that depict men and woman together in different situations and make up a story about each drawing. The entire process should take about one and one-half hours.

Testing will be done at either the Sunset Terrace Family Health Center on 49th Street in Sunset Park, Brooklyn or at the Healthy Connections office on 5th Avenue and 74th Street, in Bayridge, Brooklyn. Whenever, possible and appropriate, I will make arrangements to meet with volunteers at the site of the referring agency (e.g., Magical Years, Caribbean Ctr ...) **Volunteers will be paid \$30.00 cash when they complete all three instruments.**

Attached are several flyers that describe the project and how interested volunteers can contact me to set up an appointment. I would really appreciate it if you could distribute them to any of your clients whom you feel meet the eligibility criteria. Please keep in mind that these flyers should be distributed directly to potential volunteers and not posted on public bulletin boards, as only certain men are eligible to participate. **When presenting the flyer to potential volunteers they should be told only that I am a graduate student who is interested in hearing men's' opinions on what contributes to violence between men and women and that all information is completely confidential and will not be shared with you or your agency.**

If you or your program director would like more information on the project, you may reach me at (718) 238-7979. I would be happy to come to your office and make a more formal presentation or answer any questions you may have.

Thanks for your time and attention!

Men:

**Speak Your Mind
&
Earn \$20.00 Cash Fast!**

Student is looking for men 18 years old or older to give their opinions about violence between husbands, friends and lovers. Volunteers will be paid \$20.00 to look at a set of 13 drawings and fill out two questionnaires.

**For more information:
Call Jacqueline at (718) 238-7979**

Appendix A

Relationship Style Questionnaire

Please read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which it describes your feelings about *romantic relationships* by circling the appropriate number. Think about all of your romantic relationships, past and present, and respond in terms of how you generally feel in these relationships.

	Not at all like me		Somewhat like me		Very much like me	
	1	2	3	4	5	
1. I find it difficult to depend on other people.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. It is very important to me to feel independent.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. I find it easy to get emotionally close to others.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. I want to merge completely with another person.	1	2	3	4	5	
5. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.	1	2	3	4	5	
6. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	
7. I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them.	1	2	3	4	5	
8. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others.	1	2	3	4	5	
9. I worry about being alone.	1	2	3	4	5	
10. I am comfortable depending on other people.	1	2	3	4	5	
11. I often worry that romantic partners don't really love me.	1	2	3	4	5	
12. I find it difficult to trust others completely.	1	2	3	4	5	
13. I worry about others getting too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	
14. I want emotionally close relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	
15. I am comfortable having other people depend on me.	1	2	3	4	5	
16. I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.	1	2	3	4	5	
17. People are never there when you need them.	1	2	3	4	5	
18. My desire to merge completely sometimes scares people away.	1	2	3	4	5	
19. It is very important to me to feel self-sufficient.	1	2	3	4	5	
20. I am nervous when anyone gets too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	
21. I often worry that romantic partners won't want to stay with me.	1	2	3	4	5	
22. I prefer not to have other people depend on me.	1	2	3	4	5	
23. I worry about being abandoned.	1	2	3	4	5	
24. I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others.	1	2	3	4	5	
25. I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5	
26. I prefer not to depend on others.	1	2	3	4	5	
27. I know that others will be there when I need them.	1	2	3	4	5	
28. I worry about having others not accept me.	1	2	3	4	5	
29. Romantic partners often want me to be closer than I feel comfortable being.	1	2	3	4	5	
30. I find it relatively easy to get close to others.	1	2	3	4	5	

Relationship Style Questionnaire (RSQ). From Griffin and Bartholomew (1994). Copyright 1994 by Jessica Kingsley. Reprinted by permission.

APPENDIX: Part 3
The CTS2 follows in the form to be administered.

ID# _____

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIORS

No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they disagree, get annoyed with the other person, want different things from each other, or just have spats or fights because they are in a bad mood, are tired, or for some other reason. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. This is a list of things that might happen when you have differences. Please circle how many times you did each of these things in the past year, and how many times your partner did them in the past year. If you or your partner did not do one of these things in the past year, but it happened before that, circle "7."

How often did this happen?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1 = Once in the past year | 5 = 11-20 times in the past year |
| 2 = Twice in the past year | 6 = More than 20 times in the past year |
| 3 = 3-5 times in the past year | 7 = Not in the past year, but it did happen before |
| 4 = 6-10 times in the past year | 0 = This has never happened |

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 1. I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 2. My partner showed care for me even though we disagreed. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 3. I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 4. My partner explained his or her side of a disagreement to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 5. I insulted or swore at my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 6. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 7. I threw something at my partner that could hurt. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 8. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 9. I twisted my partner's arm or hair. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 10. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 11. I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 12. My partner had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 13. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 14. My partner showed respect for my feelings about an issue. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 15. I made my partner have sex without a condom. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 16. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 17. I pushed or shoved my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 18. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 19. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 20. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 21. I used a knife or gun on my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 22. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 23. I passed out from being hit on the head by my partner in a fight. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 24. My partner passed out from being hit on the head in a fight with me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 25. I called my partner fat or ugly. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 26. My partner called me fat or ugly. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 27. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 28. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 29. I destroyed something belonging to my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 30. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 31. I went to a doctor because of a fight with my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 32. My partner went to a doctor because of a fight with me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 33. I choked my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 34. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 35. I shouted or yelled at my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 36. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 37. I slammed my partner against a wall. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 38. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 39. I said I was sure we could work out a problem. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 40. My partner was sure we could work it out. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 41. I needed to see a doctor because of a fight with my partner, but I didn't. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 42. My partner needed to see a doctor because of a fight with me, but didn't. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 43. I beat up my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 44. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |

- | | |
|---|-----------------|
| 45. I grabbed my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 46. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 47. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 48. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 49. I stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 50. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 51. I insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but did not use physical force). | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 52. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 53. I slapped my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 54. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 55. I had a broken bone from a fight with my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 56. My partner had a broken bone from a fight with me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 57. I used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 58. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 59. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 60. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 61. I burned or scalded my partner on purpose. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 62. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 63. I insisted my partner have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force). | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 64. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 65. I accused my partner of being a lousy lover. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 66. My partner accused me of this. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 67. I did something to spite my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 68. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 69. I threatened to hit or throw something at my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 70. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 71. I felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 72. My partner still felt physical pain the next day because of a fight we had. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 73. I kicked my partner. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 74. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 75. I used threats to make my partner have sex. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 76. My partner did this to me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 77. I agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |
| 78. My partner agreed to try a solution I suggested. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 |

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Appendix A

*CTS2 Scale Items**Negotiation Scale Items*

<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Item</i>
1	I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed.
13	Showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue
39	Said I was sure we could work out a problem
3	Explained my side of a disagreement to my partner.
59	Suggested a compromise to a disagreement.
77	Agreed to try a solution to a disagreement that my partner suggested.

Physical Assault Scale

<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Item</i>
7	Threw something at my partner that could hurt.
9	Twisted my partner's arm or hair.
17	Pushed or shoved my partner.
45	Grabbed my partner.
53	Slapped my partner
21	Used a knife or gun on my partner
27	Punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt.
33	Choked my partner.
37	Slammed my partner against a wall.
43	Beat up my partner
61	Burned or scalded my partner on purpose.
73	Kicked my partner.

Sexual Coercion Scale Items

<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Item</i>
15	Made my partner have sex without a condom.
51	Insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but did not use physical force).
63	Insisted my partner have oral sex (but did not use physical force).
19	Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex).
47	Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex.
57	Used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex.
75	Used threats to make my partner have sex.

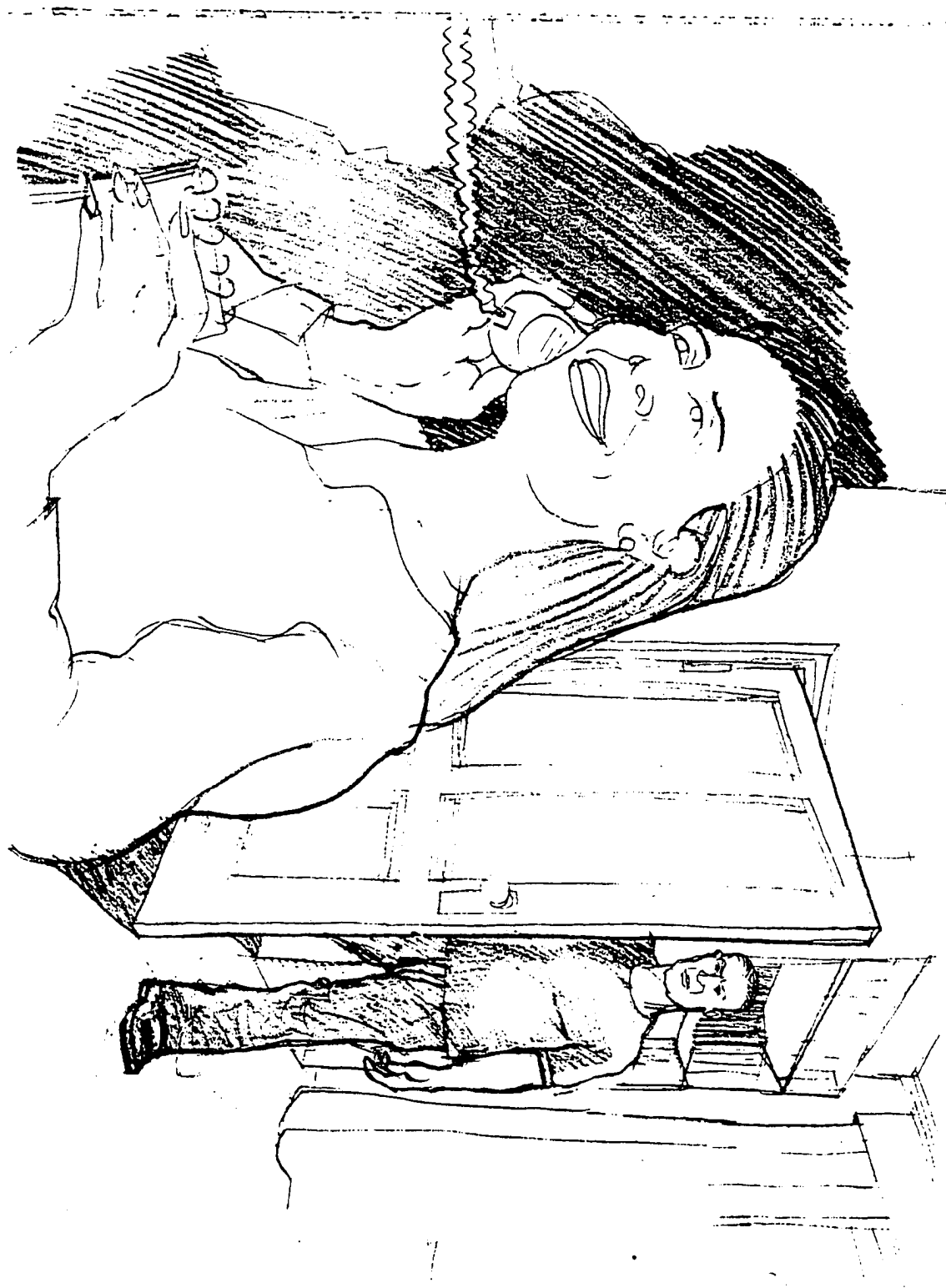
Appendix A

IAT Card 1



Appendix A

IAT Card 2



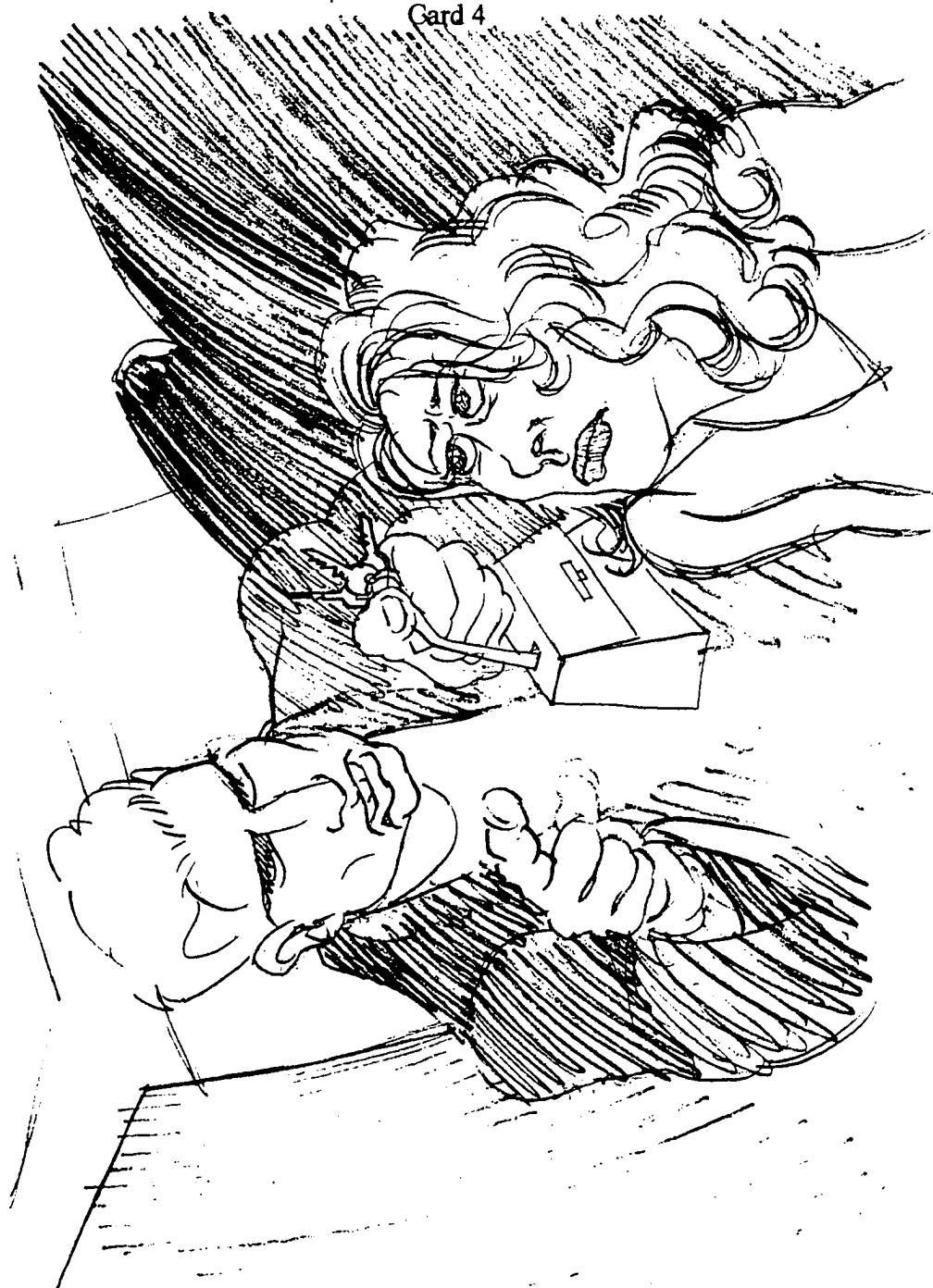
Appendix A

IAT Card 3



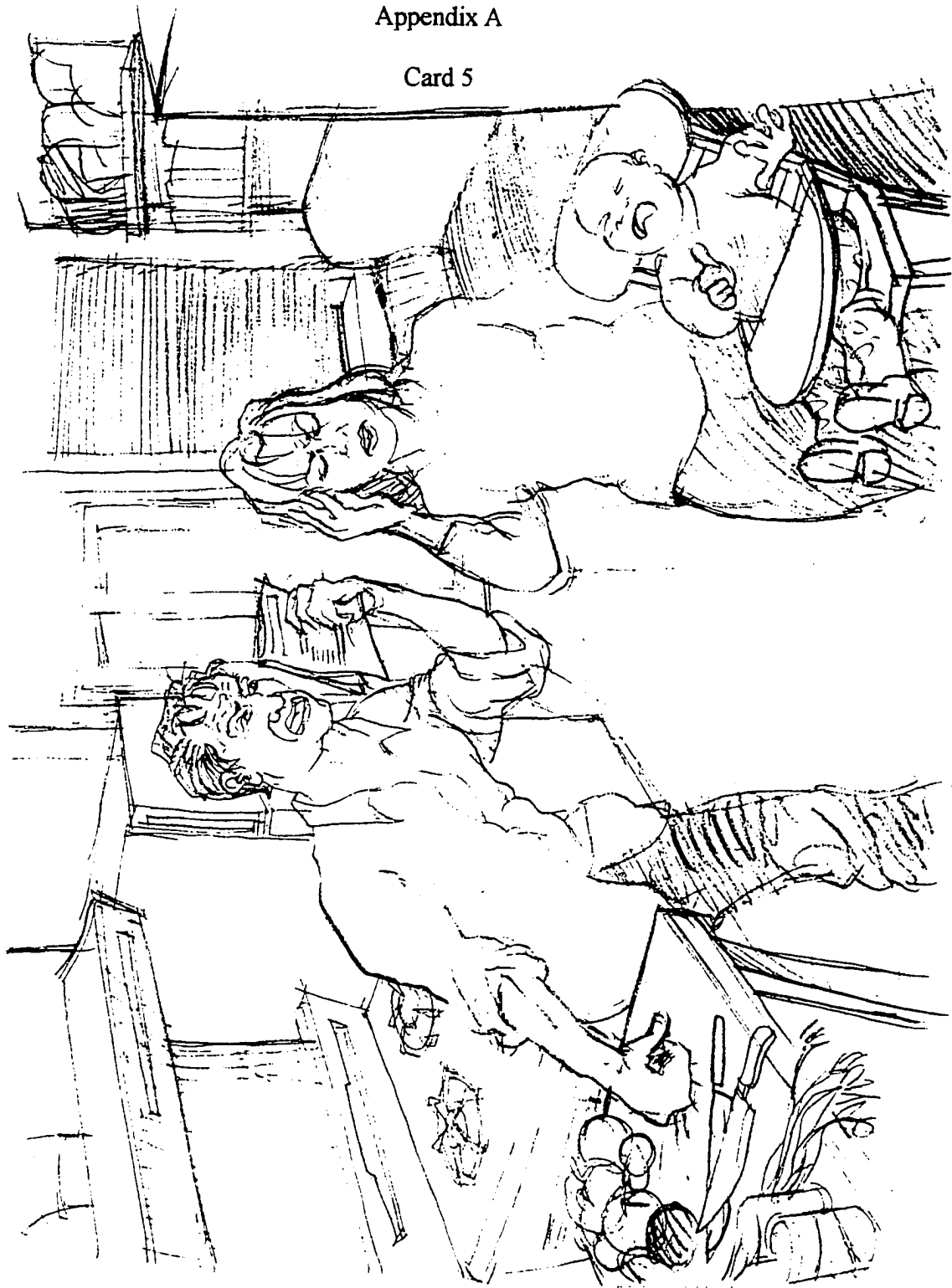
Appendix A

Card 4



Appendix A

Card 5



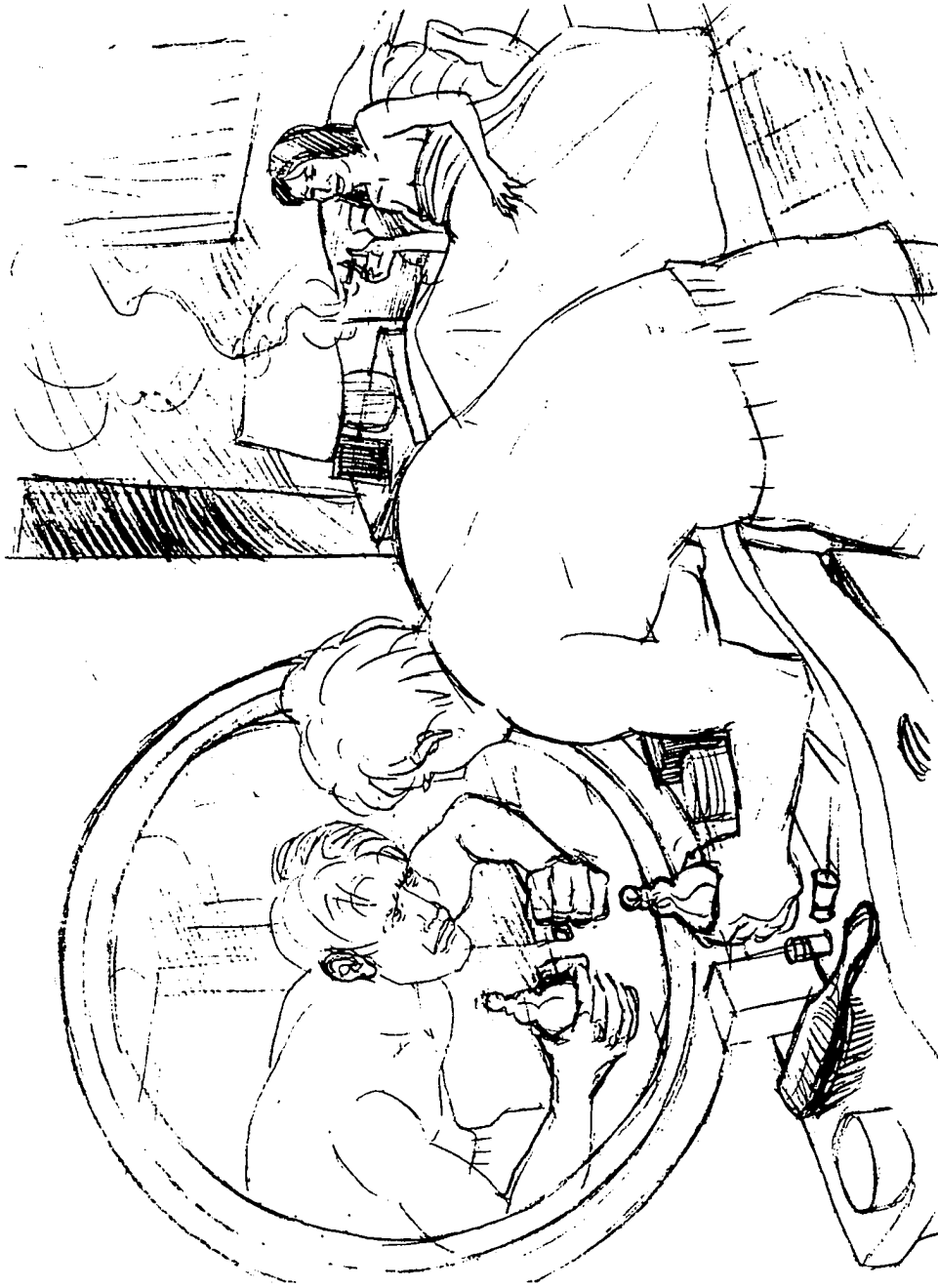
Appendix A

Card 6



Appendix A

Card 7



Appendix A

Card 8



Appendix A

Card 9



Appendix A

Card 10



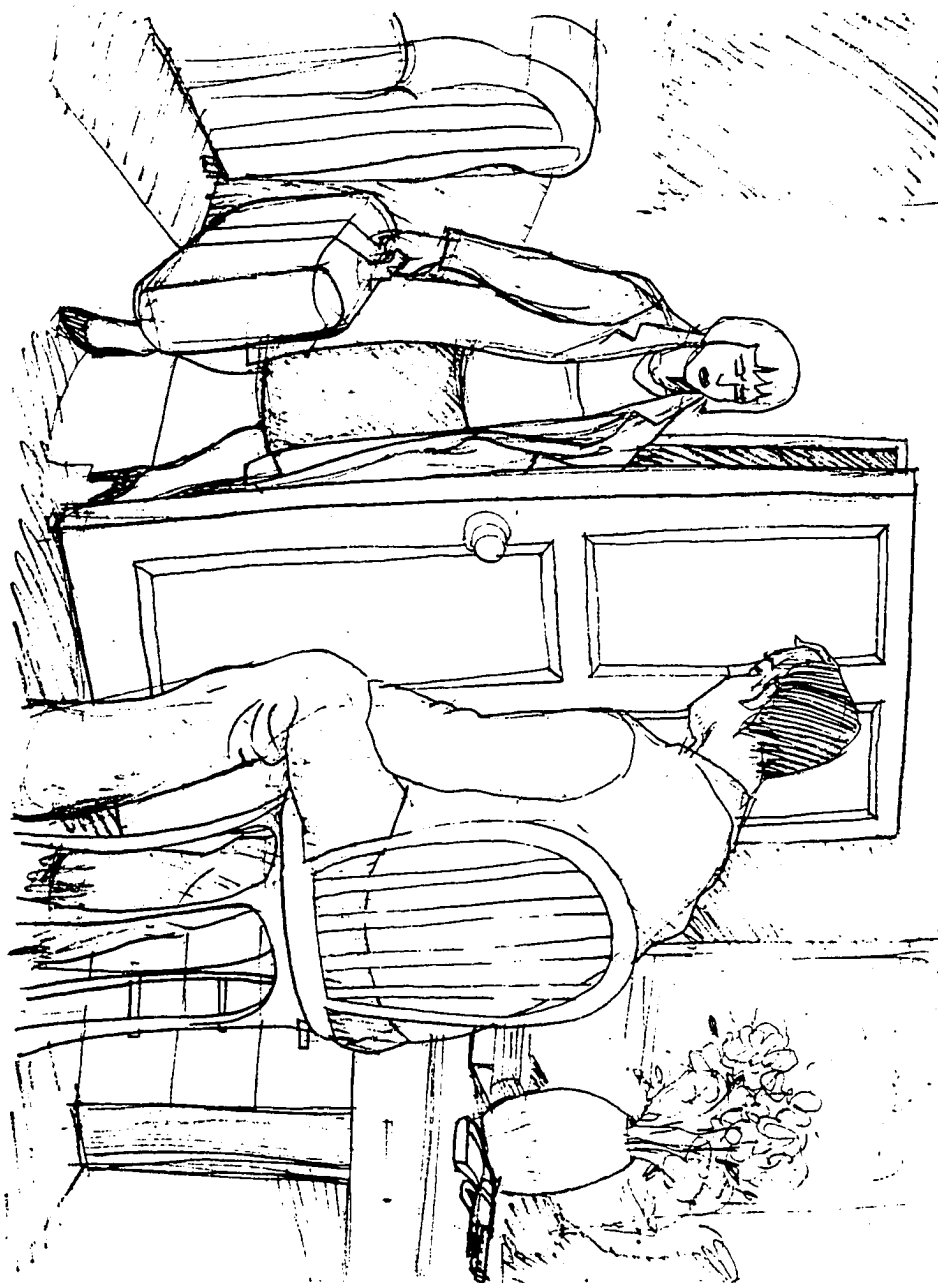
Appendix A

Card 11



Appendix A

Card 12



Appendix A

Card 13



Appendix B

Table B1: Main Storylines for Phase 1

Card 1.

- a. First encounter between a man and woman with romantic intent.
- b. First encounter between man and woman without romantic intent.
- c. Woman ending romantic relationship with man.
- d. Romantic partners engaged in cooperative problem solving.
- e. Romantic partners engaged in antagonistic problem solving.

Card 2.

- a. Man suspects romantic partner of speaking to an illicit love interest.
- b. Man perceives romantic partner to be unavailable to address his immediate needs.
- c. Man breaking an entering an unfamiliar woman's home with intent to rob.
- d. Woman phones for external help to resolve conflict with romantic partner.

Card 3.

- a. Romantic partners suspect each other of sexual infidelity.
- b. Woman ends long-time physically abusive relationship.
- c. Woman drug addict elicits drugs from male acquaintance.
- d. Romantic partners express dissatisfaction with each other.
- f. Romantic partners engage in antagonistic problem solving.

Card 4.

- a. Man forcefully evicts romantic partner from their home.
- b. An unfamiliar man mugs a woman.
- c. An unfamiliar man murders a woman.
- d. A pimp murders one of his prostitutes.
- e. Man attempts to control his partner's mobility.
- f. Man disregards romantic partner's request.
- g. A longtime male acquaintance physically assaults a woman.
- h. Man contemplates invading his partner's privacy.
- i. A male acquaintance advises woman to be more careful with her purse.

Card 5.

- a. Romantic partners distressed about debt and family responsibilities.
- b. Man invades romantic partner's privacy.
- c. Romantic partners argue about family responsibilities.

Card 6.

- a. Partner Rape
- b. Man physically assaults romantic partner.
- c. Man ignores the needs of his romantic partner and their unborn child.

Appendix B

Table B1: Main Storylines for Phase 1 (Continued)

- d. Man questions the paternity of his romantic partner's unborn child.
- e. Man abandons his romantic partner and their unborn child.
- f. Man contemplates his future.
- g. A male acquaintance accidentally intrudes on woman as she dresses herself

Card 7

- a. Sexual encounter between romantic partners.
- b. Sexual encounter between a man and a prostitute.
- c. Sexual Dysfunction.
- d. Man asks his romantic partner to forgive some indiscretion.
- e. Man is angry because he ran out of shaving cream.
- f. Man suspects partner of infidelity.

Card 8.

- a. Romantic partners engage in physical altercation while intoxicated.
- b. Man breaking and entering unfamiliar woman's home with intent to rape.

Card 9

- a. Unprotected consensual sex.
- b. Extramarital Affair.
- c. Woman rejects her partner's sexual advances
- d. Sexual Dysfunction
- e Rape
- e. Romantic Partners feeling upset

Card 10.

- a. Partner rape.
- b Man forcefully evicts partner from their home.
- c. Man invades his romantic partner's privacy.
- d. Consensual sex
- e. Man aids his injured or sick partner.
- f. Physical assault and robbery of female prostitute.
- g. Partner assault.
- h. Sexual dysfunction.

Appendix B

Table B1: Main Storylines for Phase 1 (End)

Card 11.

- a. Partner rape.
- b. Incest.
- c. Acquaintance.
- d. Partner assault.
- e. Sexual Encounter

Card 12.

- a. Woman leaving family home and ending the relationship.
- b. Man questions romantic partner about her comings and goings.
- c. Man sits unaffected by partner's routine return home from
- d. Man attempts to control partner's mobility.

Card 13.

- b. Chance encounter between a man and woman.
- c. Chance encounter between acquaintances
- d. Romantic partners making plans to spend time together.
- d. First Encounter between a man and woman with romantic intent.

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2**Card 1**

- a. Romantic Partners engaged in Cooperative Problem Solving (n=5)
- b. Romantic Partners engaged in Antagonistic Problem solving. (n=4)
- c. First Encounter between a man and woman with Romantic Intent. (n=2)
- d. Acquaintances meet in Chance Encounter with Romantic Intent. (n=1)
- e. Acquaintances engaged in Cooperative Problem Solving. (n=1)
- f. Romantic Partners enjoying Time Together. (n=2)

Card 2

- a. Man suspects his Romantic Partner of speaking to an Illicit Love Interest. (n=5)
- b. Man attempts to control Romantic Partner's Activities. (n=3)
- c. Woman phones for External Help to resolve Conflict with Romantic Partner. (n=1)
- d. Man perceives Romantic Partner to be Unavailable to meet his Immediate Needs. (n=3)
- e. Man perceives Acquaintance to be Unavailable to meet his Immediate Needs. (n= 1)
- f. Man Spies on Romantic Partner and feels jealous because she is enjoying Time With Someone Else. (n=1)
- g. Man Spies on Romantic Partner and Makes Plans to ask her about her conversation . (n=1)

Card 3

- a. Romantic Partners engaged in Antagonistic Problem Solving. (n=7).

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2 (Continued)

- b. Man ponders why an acquaintance Hates All Men. (n=1)
- c. Acquaintances engage in Physical Altercation related to Illicit Drug Activity (n=1)
- d. Romantic Partners engaged in Physical Altercation related to Illicit Drug Activity (n=1)
- e. Man tries to convince Romantic Partner to get help for her Drug Addiction. (n=1)
- f. Romantic Partners Resign to an Unhappy Life Together. (n=1)
- g. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner because he suspects her of Sexual Infidelity. (n=2)

Card 4

- a. Man attempts to Control his Romantic Partner's Mobility. (n=11)
- b. Man Intimidates female Acquaintance/Family Member. (n=1)
- c. An Unfamiliar man Mugs a woman (n=1).
- d. A Drug Addicted man steals money from his Mother. (n=1)
- e.. Romantic Partners engaged in Antagonistic
- f. Problem Solving (n=1)

e.

Card 5

- a. Romantic Partners Distressed about Debt and Family Responsibilities. (n=13)
- b. Man perceives his Romantic Partner to be unavailable to meet his Immediate Needs. (n=2).

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2 (Continued)**Card 6**

- a. Man Ignores his Romantic Partner. (n=1)
- b. Man ignores his Romantic Partner after she Rejects his Sexual Advances (n=1)
- c. Building Superintendent Extorts Sexual Favors from Acquaintance. (n=1)
- d. Man Rapes his Romantic Partner. (n=8)
- e. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner (n=1)
- f. Woman cries after Romantic Partner becomes Sadistic during Sex (n=1).
- g. Woman becomes Hysterical after Argument with Romantic Partner (n=1)
- h. An Older Woman Regret becoming Pregnant by an Adolescent Boy (n=1)

Card 7

- a. Man feels Guilty about having an Extramarital Affair. (n=4)
- b. Sexual Encounter between a Man and a woman Prostitute (n=1)
- c. Man feels Guilty and Ashamed after having a Sexual Encounter with a Transvestite Prostitute. (n=1)
- d. Man is feeling Sexually Frustrated and Wants More Sex after a Sexual Encounter with his Romantic Partner. (n=).
- e. Man is feeling Sexually Frustrated and Wants more Sex after a Sexual Encounter with an Acquaintance (n=1).

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2 (Continued)

- f. Man is feeling Frustrated and plans to have a Sadistic Sexual Encounter with his Romantic Partner. (n=1)
- g. Male Sexual Dysfunction/Impotence (n=2)
- h. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner because of her Sexual Insults against him. (n=1)
- i. Man is worried. (n=1)
- j. Man loves woman and is feeling Frustrated and Sad because she only wants a Sexual Encounter . (n=2)

Card 8

- a. Romantic Partners engaged in Physical Altercation while intoxicated. (n=10)
- b. Acquaintances engaged in Physical Altercation while Intoxicated (n=1)
- d. Man commits Sadistic Rape Against an Acquaintance (n=1)
- c. Man Rapes his Romantic Partner (n=1)
- d. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner as Retribution for her Sexual Insults against him (n=1).
- e. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner as Retribution for some Misdeed (n=1)

Card 9

- a. Man and Woman Contemplating the Consequences of an Unprotected Sexual Encounter (n=6)
- b. Male Sexual Dysfunction/Impotency (n=3)
- c. Romantic Partners feeling Sad after Ending their Relationship (n=1)
- d. Man contemplating about his Extramarital Affair (n=1)

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2 (Continued)

- e. Romantic Partners engaged in Cooperative Problem Solving (n=1)
- f. Man is feeling Sexually Frustrated (n=1)
- g. Man gets angry and kills a woman (n=1)
- h. Man rapes and kills his Romantic Partner as Retribution for her Sexual Insults against him (n=1).

Card 10

- a. Man suspects his Romantic Partner of Sexual Infidelity and forcefully evicts her from their home (n=1)
- b. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner because he suspects her of Sexual Infidelity. (n=2)
- c. Drug Addicted man Kills Romantic Partner because he suspects her of Sexual Infidelity (n=1).
- d. Drug addicted man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner and Invades her Privacy. (n=1)
- e. Sexual Encounter between a man and a woman Prostitute (n=2)
- f. Sexual Encounter between a man and a Drug Addicted Acquaintance (n=1)
- g. Man has a Sexual Encounter with an Acquaintance the Physically Assaults her. (n=1)
- h. Man Physically Assaults his Intoxicated Romantic Partner (n=2)
- i. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner after she Refuses to give him money (n=1)
- j. Man Rapes and Kills his Intoxicated Romantic Partner (n=1).
- k. Sexual Encounter between Romantic Partners (n=2 : S#'s 27, 28)

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2 (Continued)**Card 11**

- a. Man rapes his Romantic Partner (n=5)
- b. Man Sadistically rapes his Romantic Partner (n=3)
- c. Man Rapes and Kills his Romantic Partner (n= 1)
- d. Man Sadistically Rapes and Kills his Romantic Partner (n=1)
- e. Man Rapes an Acquaintance (n= 3)
- f. Man Physically Assaults his Romantic Partner (n= 2).

Card 12

- a. Man kills Romantic Partner and commit suicide after she attempts to leave the relationship (n=3)
- b. Woman leaves the relationship s her Romantic Partner threatens to commit suicide (n=1)
- c. Man threatens to Kill his Romantic Partner and commit suicide as she attempts to end the relationship (n=2).
- d. Man threatens to Kill Romantic Partner as she attempts to end the relationship. (n=3)
- e. Man Contemplates Suicide after his Romantic Partner ends the relationship. (n=1)
- f. Romantic Partners agree to end relationship over disagreement regarding whether or not to keep a gun in the house. (n=1)
- g. Woman ends relationship as her Romantic Partner who is a Police Officer watches (n=1)
- h. Woman returns home and comforts her Romantic Partner as he contemplates suicide (n=1).
- i. Man commits suicide after his Romantic Partner ends the relationship (n=2)

Appendix B

Table B2: Main Story Lines for Phase 2 (End)**Card 13**

- a. Chance Encounter between a man and a woman with Romantic Intent. (n=7)
- b. Romantic Partners Making Plans to spend Time Together (n=3)
- c. Romantic Partners engaged in Cooperative Problem Solving (n=2)
- d. Romantic Partners enjoying Time Together (n=2)
- e. Man attempts to Woo Romantic Partner after a Break-up (n=1)

Appendix B

**Table B3: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text
for Phase 1 IAT Narrative Analyses**

Code	Supporting Text	Card #	S#
1. First Encounter	It could be a man asking her the time	1	5
	He's introducing himself to her	13	1
	He's somewhere and just spots her and decides to go speak to her	1	15
2. Romantic Intent	He might be saying that she	1	20
	He would like to go out on a date with her and get to know her better.	1	4
	He'll probably ask her out	1	9
3. Ending Relationship	Cooler like she's breaking up with him or something	1	8
	Probably just split ways	3	9
	She told him she's gonna leave	12	10
4. Cooperative Problem Solving	She's showing acceptance	1	17
	... He's ok with what she's doing She's listening to him... like she understands where he's coming from.	1	16
5. Antagonistic Problem Solving	He said something to her and she couldn't care less.	1	20
	She wants him to do something and he's not having it... Nah, I'm not doing it.	3	14
6. Illicit Love Interest	He's afraid she's talking to another man	2	20
	He thinks she is talking to another man	2	15
	She might be speaking to some office love affair	2	11

Appendix B

Table B3: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 1 IAT Narrative Analyses

Code	Supporting Text	Card #	S#
7. Unavailable to Meet Immediate Needs	Why is she on the phone and not cooking his dinner	2	20
	She's spending too much time on the phone and his dinner is not ready	2	14
	Where's my dinner? It's not on time and here you are, bullshitting on the phone.	2	8
	He's angry that she's on the phone and not paying much attention to him.	2	7
	She didn't have food ready for him	2	1
8. Breaking & Entering	A stranger trying to get into the house	2	13
	The lady was in her home and suddenly a man comes in...	8	6
9. Rob	He's trying to run a robbery or something.	2	13
	I'm gonna take your money and go	10	17
10. External Help	The lady is either going to call a friend or family member.	2	9
	She was calling the police	2	10
	She called somebody who was involved to explain to her husband what happened	2	6
	Made her phone call to get help	2	1
12. Sexual Infidelity	He had an affair	3	1
	She could have cheated on him	3	3
	One is cheating on the other	3	5

Appendix B

Table B3: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 1 IAT Narrative Analyses

Code	Supporting Text	Card #	S#
13. Sexual Encounter sex	They had just finished having	7	18
	He just banged her	7	19
	They slept together	7	16
14. Sexual Dysfunction/ Impotence	He can't perform	9	16
	He can't get it up	7	17
	He has a sexual problem... sexual dysfunction	7	7
	He has no erection... he can't please her	7	8
	I didn't get no satisfaction, get no satisfaction, get out of bed	9	11
	She expected a good time from the guy but it just didn't happen	9 10	5 11
	He can't perform	9	16
15. Extramarital Affair	They are cheating	9	5
16. Acquaintance	Maybe a friend or something	3	13
	Friend	4	3
	Roomates	6	6
	They know each other but not that well	11	7
17. Romantic Partner		1-13	
	They're in a relationship	7	20
	Husband and wife	4	1
	They are together	5	10
	These people look married	5	16
	They live together	10	19

Appendix B

**Table B3: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text
for Phase 1 IAT Narrative Analyses**

Code	Supporting Text	Card #	S
18. Unfamiliar Man/Woman	They don't have any relation	2	6
	A stranger	2	13
	They don't know each other	4	2
19. Attempts to Control Mobility	He's taking her pocket book and her keys so she can't get away	4	4
	he's like holding her in captivity	4	7
20. Physically Assaults	He hit her, you know striking her	6	13
	Somebody just attacking her	4	12
	He hit her	10	8
	He beat her	11	10
21. Physical Altercation	The two had a bad fight	8	10
	It's a big fight	8	11
	They're smacking each other	8	14
	The lady is going to be raped	6	16
	He forced her to have sex	9	20
	He forced himself on her	11	16
	I think he's violating her	11	14
22. Mug	Looks like a mugging	4	2
	The man expects to catch the money and find some money in there	4	6
23. Debt	How we gonna get this paid	5	15
	All these bills to pay	5	16
	How are we gonna pay for them	5	17
24. Family Responsibilities	Kid crying... nothing cooked	5	16
	She's about to cook and the baby is crying	5	17

Appendix B

**Table B3: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text
for Phase 1 IAT Narrative Analyses**

Code	Supporting Text	Card #	S#
25. Invades Privacy	He is thinking about opening her bag	4	11
	He's going through all her things	10	8
	He's searching through her drawer	10	12
26. Drug Addict	... Like a drug addict person's face	3	3
27. Intoxicated	They're using drugs and alcohol	8	5
	He's drunk	8	4
	He got drunk	8	3
28. Time Together	Meeting up to go out to dinner	13	3
	Having a good time	13	15
	Meeting to go to dinner	13	20
29. Chance Encounter	They haven't seen each other in years	13	18
	Just bumped into each other	13	19
30. Unprotected sex	The condom broke	9	1
	Unprotected sex	9	12
	The condom popped	9	13
	I don't want to use a condom	9	14
31. Evicts from home	He's forcing her to leave	4	10
	He's telling her to get out	4	15
	He's dumping her out	4	5

Appendix B

Table B4: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 2 IAT Narrative Analyses

<u>Code</u>	<u>Supporting Text</u>	<u>Card #</u>	<u>S#</u>
1. Romantic Partners	Married couple	1	21
	Lovers	2	25
	You're my woman	11	29
2. Acquaintances	Friends	1	30
	Therapist	2	29
	They know each other from the neighborhood	8	22
4. Cooperative Problem-Solving	Thinking about decisions they plan to make in the future	1	33
	Deciding what they're going to do	1	37
5. Antagonistic Problem Solving	An argument about a lot of things... money, jealous, dissatisfaction in the relationship	3	25
	He yelled at her and now she's just getting back at him	3	26
	He's mad and she looks like she's not interested in how he feels	3	32
6. First Encounter	They just met	1	24
	She just met the guy	1	27
7. Chance Encounter	Friends saying hello	1	30
	They haven't talked to each other more than one word before this	13	22
	A chance meeting	13	35
8. Time Together	We're gonna go out and see a show	13	21
	They're on some kind of date	13	24
	Talking about what they're going to do	13	27
	Just a calm type of setting no tension between them	1	35

Appendix B

Table B4: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 2 IAT Narrative Analyses

<u>Code</u>	<u>Supporting Text</u>	<u>Card #</u>	<u>S#</u>
9. Illicit Love Interest	She's on the phone with someone she is chatting with	2	25
	He's jealous because he thinks she's talking to someone else	2	27
	... Maybe another guy	2	31
12. External Help	She's seeking help	2	26
13. Unavailable to Meet Immediate Needs	She is showing the person on the phone more attention than he is getting	2	35
	She's been on the phone for a couple of hours and maybe didn't prepare dinner	2	28
	He wants her to acknowledge what he is saying as opposed to holding the baby.	5	36
	She doesn't want to hear what he is saying	5	32
14. Physical Altercation	They're fighting	8	21
	Both of them are fighting	8	31
	They are clawing at each other		
15. Physical Assault	He'll try to hit her, strike her	7	33
	He beat up his...	6	25
	She's gonna get battered	10	31
	He tossed her around a little bit	11	26
17. Suicide	... and then shot himself	12	21
	Bring harm to himself	12	36
	Thinking about suicide	12	37
18. Rape	He raped her	11	35
	Forcible sex	11	28
	He raped her	6	33
	the sex was forced on her	6	24
19. Mugs	robbing a woman's...	4	27

Appendix B

Table B4: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 2 IAT Narrative Analyses

<u>Code</u>	<u>Supporting Text</u>	<u>Card #</u>	<u>S#</u>
20. Sadistic	Rough sex	7	28
	He's going to be very violent... she likes rough sex	8	22
	He fulfills himself by bringing her to within an inch of her sanity	11	22
	Like a bully but more mean	11	24
	... Whip her, break down her spiritually or physically	11	24
21. Sexually Frustrated	They had intercourse... he's not satisfied	7	25
	They made love but he wanted more than she gave him	7	26
	It's probably sexual frustration	9	28
22. Sexual Dysfunction/ Impotence	He's not functioning properly in bed	7	27
	He's not gonna be intimate with her because he's too tense	7	29
	he can't do sex	9	29
	He's impotent	9	22
23. Illicit Drug Activity	Drugs are involved	3	24
	... arguing ... about drugs	3	30
24. Sexual Infidelity	Cheating or something like that	10	25
	Caught her with another guy	10	31
	Are you screwing around	10	35
25. Sexual Advances	He tried to force her to have sex	6	26
26. Sexual Insults	Said he had a small pee-pee or called him a lousy lover	7	33
	... Her telling him he's whack in bed	9	33

Appendix B

Table B4: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 2 IAT Narrative Analyses

<u>Code</u>	<u>Supporting Text</u>	<u>Card #</u>	<u>S#</u>
27. Attempts to Control Mobility	He took keys and pocketbook	4	26
	... he's controlling and domineering	4	28
	... something he didn't want her to do ... you're not going anywhere	4	31
28. Making Plans	What are we going to do on this date	13	21
	animated discussion about if they are going to dinner or the theater	13	28
	a couple talking about what they are going to do now	13	27
29. Unprotected Consensual Sex	He didn't use a condom	9	26
	He didn't use the condom	9	31
	You didn't put a condom on	9	30
30. Retribution	She did something and he's getting after her for it now	8	32
	What goes around comes around comes around people get what they deserve	9	33
31. Intimidates	He likes to pick on the weak	4	24
32. Ignores	He's totally ignoring her	6	21
	He's not paying attention to her	6	26
33. Drug Addicted	This guys on drugs	4	30
	To kick the habit	3	27
	His drug problem	10	37
	He's going through with drawl	10	21
	I need a fix	10	30
34. Intoxicated	Getting drunk	8	25
	It's alcohol induced	8	36
	Too much drinking	8	26

Appendix B

Table B4: Major Codes & Sampling of Supporting Text for Phase 2 IAT Narrative Analyses

<u>Code</u>	<u>Supporting Text</u>	<u>Card #</u>	<u>S#</u>
35. Debt	Looking at bills	5	28
	Very poor family	5	22
	He has to pay the electric bill	5	24
36. Family Responsibilities	Take care of the house and kids	5	31
	Taking care of a child and trying to prepare a meal for the family	5	27
	Taking care of the baby and cooking dinner	5	26
37. Romantic Intent	He has been attracted to her	13	22
	He's had a crush on her for years	13	27
38. Extramarital Affair	This guy's having an affair	7	21
	It's an extramarital affair	7	22
	To get back at her boyfriend she seduced him	7	31
	Cheated on his wife	9	24
39. Attempts to control partners activities	Demanding the household chores be done when he wants them done	2	22
	He's a control freak... he's angry that she's on the phone	2	21
	Is that all you do? Stay at home on the phone?	2	36
40. Invading privacy	He's going through her drawers	10	21

Appendix C

Table C-I
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics
Overall Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	7	10.29
Preoccupied	6	7.42
Dismissing	6	12.25

Table C-II
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics
Overall Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
2	2.25	.32	

Table C-III
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	7	12.43
Preoccupied	6	6.58
Dismissing	6	10.58

Appendix C

Table C-IV
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Non-sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi –Square	p	alpha
2	3.59	.17	

Table C-V
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	7	6.36
Preoccupied	6	8.75
Dismissing	5	14.80

Table C-VI
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi –Square	p	alpha
2	7.82	.02	.05

Appendix C

Table C-VII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Secure V. Preoccupied

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	7	5.93
Preoccupied	6	8.25

Table C-VIII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Sexual Violence:
Secure V. Preoccupied

	df	Chi –Square	p	alpha
	1	1.29	.26	.05

Table C-IX
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Secure V. Dismissing

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	7	4.43
Dismissing	5	9.40

Appendix C

Table C-X
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics
Pairwise Comparisons for Sexual Violence:
Secure V. Dismissing

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
1	5.83	.02	.05

Table C-XI
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Sexual Violence
Preoccupied V. Dismissing

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Preoccupied	6	4.0
Dismissing	5	8.4

Table C-XII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics for Sexual Violence:
Preoccupied V. Dismissing

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
1	5.01	.03	.05

Appendix C

Table C-XIII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	7	7.64
Preoccupied	3	8.17
Dismissing	5	8.40

Table C-XIV
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
2	.106	.94	.05

Table C-XV
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	3	3.00
Preoccupied	5	5.80
Dismissing	5	10.60

Appendix C

Table C-XVI
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
2	.8.65	.01	.05

Table C-XVII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Covert Sexual Violence
Secure V. Preoccupied

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	3	3.0
Preoccupied	5	5.40

Table C-XVIII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Covert Sexual Violence:
Secure V. Preoccupied

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
1	2.40	.12	.05

Appendix C

Table C-XIX
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for CovertSexual Violence
Secure V. Dismissing

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	3	2.0
Dismissing	5	6.0

Table C-XX
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics
Pairwise Comparisons for Covert Sexual Violence:
Secure V. Dismissing

df	Chi –Square	p	alpha
1	5.39	.02	.05

Table C-XXI
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Pairwise Comparisons for Covert Sexual Violence
PreoccupiedV. Dismissing

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Preoccupied	5	3.4
Dismissing	5	7.6

Appendix C

Table C-XXII
Phase 1 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics for Covert Sexual Violence:
Preoccupied V. Dismissing

df	Chi -Square	p	alpha
1	5.19	.02	.05

Table C-XXIII
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics
Overall Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	-	-
Preoccupied	6	8.08
Dismissing	5	6.10
Fearful	4	10.25

Table C-XXIV
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics
Overall Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi -Square	p	alpha
2	1.97	.37	.05

Appendix C

Table C-XXV
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	-	-
Preoccupied	6	8.0
Dismissing	5	7.60
Fearful	4	8.50

Table C-XXVI
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Non-Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
2	.09	.96	.05

Appendix C

Table C-XXVII
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	-	-
Preoccupied	5	6.60
Dismissing	5	4.40
Fearful	4	10.75

Table C-XXVII
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi -Square	p	alpha
2	5.29	.07	.05

Appendix C

Table C-XXIX
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	-	-
Preoccupied	1	1.5
Dismissing	3	4.7
Fearful	4	5.1

Table C-XXX
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Overt Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
2	1.82	.40	.05

Appendix C

Table C-XXXI
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics:
Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

Attachment Style	n	Mean Rank
Secure	-	-
Preoccupied	5	8.6
Dismissing	5	4.5
Fearful	4	9.9

Table C-XXXII
Phase 2 Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics:
Covert Sexual Violence by Attachment Style

df	Chi-Square	p	alpha
2	5.2	.07	.05

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