Adolescent Dating Violence and Self-Efficacy

by

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ABSTRACT

This study examined relationships among adolescent dating violence, family violence, community violence, dating history, academic history, and various forms of self-efficacy among 306 high school and university students. Results showed that psychological, physical, and sexual dating violence were common occurrences among high school students with both males and females admitting perpetrating dating violence. Experiences with dating violence were less common among university students than high school students. The vast majority of university students had experiences with psychological aggression; however, experiences with physical and sexual dating violence were less common among this group of participants.

Many of the variables examined were related to experiences with dating violence for at least some participant groups. All forms of violence measured were related to experiences with dating violence. Specifically, experiences with community violence (as a witness, perpetrator, and/or victim) were related to experiences with dating violence for high school students and young women in university. Similarly, experiencing corporal punishment or physical abuse from a parent was significantly related to experiences with dating violence for these same groups of young people. Finally, witnessing parental spousal abuse was also correlated with dating violence involvement for young women. The findings regarding the relationship being dating violence and other experiences with violence are discussed within a social learning theory framework.

Dating history variables showed important connections with dating violence for all participant groups. Length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively

correlated with dating violence experiences for university students and young women in high school. Moreover, length of the current steady dating relationship was also positively correlated with dating violence experiences for young women in high school and university. Being younger when steady dating began was also related to dating violence involvement for young women. Additionally, experiencing a first date at a younger age was associated with dating violence for young women in university. Some unexpected results were also found regarding dating history variables and dating violence. For young men in high school, low frequency of dating was related to dating violence involvement. Also contrary to expect results, high use of negotiation by participants and their dating partners was associated with dating violence involvement for university students.

Academic history variables showed little relation to experiences with dating violence. For young men in high school, experiencing a grade repetition was related to involvement in dating violence. No other academic variables were found to be associated with dating violence experiences including school suspensions, expulsions, course failures, average grades, or academic aspirations or expectations.

Self-efficacy variables were significantly related to experiences with dating violence for high school students. Young women in high school who were victims of any form of dating violence demonstrated lower levels of dating self-efficacy (i.e., less confidence in their ability to secure and maintain dating relationships and to protect themselves from dating violence) and those who were victims of sexual dating violence had lower levels of physical self-efficacy. Young men in high school who had

perpetrated psychological aggression had lower academic self-efficacy. Implications for intervention and prevention programs are addressed.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

Adolescent Dating Violence and Self-Efficacy

Introduction

Adolescence is a significant period of development associated with a variety of new experiences and challenges. Within this period of the life span, the formation of intimate dating relationships is important to the continued healthy development of the individual (McCabe, 1984). For example, through dating, important intimate relationships can be established (Conger & Petersen, 1984). Not all dating relationships, however, lead to a positive developmental trajectory. A significant proportion of youths will engage in acts of violence against their dating partners during their adolescence. Although reported prevalence rates of dating violence have varied widely, based in part on factors such as the definition of dating violence utilized and sample characteristics, rates of between 30% and 40% have been commonly reported in the research literature (Foshee, 1996; Foshee et al., 1998; Gray & Foshee, 1997; O'Keefe, 1997). The vast majority of studies exploring rates of adolescent dating violence, however, have involved teenagers from the United States. Moreover, in the few studies of adolescent dating violence among Canadian youth, all published studies have been limited to teenagers from Central and Eastern Canada (Gagne & Lavoie, 1995; Jaffe, Sudermann, Reitzel, & Killip, 1992; Mercer, 1986; Price, Byers, Sears, Whelan, & Saint-Pierre, 2000; Sudermann & Jaffe, 1993). Thus, additional research which measures rates of dating violence for teen samples from other regions of Canada, such as Western Canada, will help provide a clearer picture of the extent of adolescent dating violence.

In order to help understand and explain the occurrence of dating violence, two major theoretical frameworks have been explored within the research literature: feminist

theory and social learning theory. Feminist theory stresses the importance of the patriarchal social structure including gender-based power inequities in the etiology of male violence towards female partners (Avery-Leaf, Cascardi, O'Leary, & Cano, 1997). In contrast, social learning theory posits that aggression is learned by observing the behaviour of others, such as family members and peers, and its positive consequences. Exposure to family or community violence is seen as affecting children's and adolescents' perceptions of legitimate methods of resolving conflict and providing models of behaviour to emulate (Malik, Sorenson, & Aneshensel, 1997). These theories, however, do share some common ground. For example, social learning theory recognizes that the media and cultural factors have significant influence on individuals' understanding of violence (Miedzian, 1995). The media is recognized as providing repeated examples of coercive and sexist models of relationships (Barongan & Hall, 1995). Moreover, youth with maltreatment histories, have been found to be particularly vulnerable to such messages (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1998). Both theories have been used to guide research and our understanding of adolescent dating violence. Consequently, the current research is also guided by contributions from both of these theoretical frameworks.

Researchers have found many risk factors for involvement in adolescent dating violence including variables such as witnessing parental spousal abuse, being a victim of child abuse, and high levels of relationship conflict. As a result, a profile of both the adolescent victim and perpetrator of dating violence has begun to emerge. Current research has also found dramatically different impacts of dating violence dependent upon

the gender of the victim and the perpetrator. For example, dating violence victimization has been associated with low levels of self-esteem for young women but not young men (Jezl, Molidor, & Wright, 1996; O'Keefe & Treister, 1988). This difference may be due to females' self-esteem being more closely related to the treatment received in relationships than males (Jezl et al., 1996). With regard to perpetration, high self-esteem has been found to be a protective factor for high risk teen males but not adolescent females (O'Keefe, 1998). Similarly, young women have been found to sustain more injuries from dating violence than young men (Foshee, 1996; Molidor & Tolman, 1988). Thus, it is clear that for adolescents, whose self-image and self-worth are developing, the introduction of violence into romantic relationships may be psychologically and physically devastating (O'Keeffe, Brockopp, & Chew, 1986). Moreover, young women may disproportionally fall victim to the negative impacts of dating violence.

Given that adolescent dating violence is not a rare phenomenon but rather, it is a significant health and social problem, understanding additional correlates of it may help guide prevention and treatment programs. One area of inquiry that may help increase our understanding of dating violence is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to individuals' judgments about how efficiently and effectively they will be able to deal with specific situations in the future (Ehrenberg, Cox, & Koopman, 1991). Current research examining the relationship between self-efficacy and adolescent dating violence has been quite limited. For example, a negative correlation between dating violence victimization and sexual victimization prevention efficacy in adolescent females has been found (Walsh & Foshee, 1998); however, self-efficacy in other areas, such as academic and social realms,

has yet to be examined in relation to dating violence. Given this finding along with the fact that dating violence has been linked to other areas of self-evaluation (e.g., self-esteem), it is plausible that a relationship may also exist between dating violence and additional forms of self-efficacy such as physical, social, academic, and dating self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy may have particular relevance to adolescence given the important pursuits that need to be accomplished during this stage of development. Adolescents are faced with tasks such as planning future educational and career endeavors. Self-efficacy may play a role in such matters, as the level and strength of an individual's self-efficacy has been found to have a strong effect on one's choice of activities and environmental setting (Bandura, 1977). Consequently, students with low academic self-efficacy may choose less demanding educational tasks or show a preference for settings that do not demand such skills. Such behaviors can inhibit academic performance. Academic performance has been linked to dating violence involvement as well. For example, being a victim of dating violence has been found to be negatively associated with academic performance for female adolescents (Bergman, 1992). Thus, low self-efficacy among victims of dating violence may influence not only their current judgments about their ability to affect their present circumstances, such as their perceived ability to be successful academically, but may also influence future decisions including post-secondary education and career choices.

The topic of adolescent dating violence is a relatively new area of academic inquiry. Despite this, dating violence in adolescent relationships has been found to be a

relatively common phenomenon associated with a variety of negative conditions. In order to more fully understand the problem of youth dating violence, researchers need to continue to identify additional correlates of dating violence. Given that preliminary research has found a link between one form of self-efficacy (i.e., sexual victimization prevention self-efficacy) and dating violence victimization, research examining the relationship between more general forms of self-efficacy (i.e., overall self-efficacy, as well as social, physical, dating, and academic self-efficacy) and dating violence is warranted and needed. If a significant relationship between these types of self-efficacy and dating violence is found, these results may guide services provided to youth. For example, group intervention programs may incorporate teaching modules that address self-efficacy both within and outside of dating relationships. Similarly, group prevention programs may also include learning components that encourage the development of self-efficacy in order to reduce adolescents' risk of involvement in violent relationships. Additionally, therapists who work individually with teenagers who have experienced violence in intimate relationships may address the role of self-efficacy with their clients. For example, therapists may help clients change their beliefs about their personal capacities and their ability to positively affect their present circumstances in both their dating relationships and their other pursuits such as school or other social relationships. Thus, the examination of the relationship between self-efficacy and adolescent dating violence will add to a growing body of literature which aids our understanding, treatment, and prevention of this significant social problem.

Literature Review

Prevalence of Adolescent Dating Violence

Adolescence has been recognized as an important period of development within the life span. One of the primary tasks occurring during this developmental phase is the establishment of meaningful relationships with members of the opposite sex (Conger & Petersen, 1984), frequently occurring through activities such as dating. Dating is a common activity for the majority of adolescents with over half of adolescents reporting dating by age 16 (Fiering, 1995). Dating not only serves to meet the need of developing intimacy for the adolescent but additionally it can shape and clarify the actual identity of the young person (Paul & White, 1990).

Although dating can serve as an activity through which many important developmental tasks are accomplished, dating can also be an activity fraught with acts and threats of violence and intimidation invoking fear and danger for many adolescents. Typically such acts have been classified as dating violence. Although research on adolescent dating violence began in the 1980s, agreement on a standard definition of dating violence does not exist. Wekerle and Wolfe (1998) recognized the lack of consensus in defining the problem, suggesting that it has been broadly construed along a continuum of interpersonal coercion, ranging from power assertion, such as persuasive and persistent arguments, to power abuse, such as the use of physical force or threats. Others provide a narrower definition of dating violence limited to the use or threat of physical force. For example, Sugarman and Hotaling (1989) define dating violence as "the perpetration or threat of an act of physical violence by at least one member of an

unmarried dyad on the other within the context of the dating process" (p. 5). Still others have placed restrictions on the definition of dating violence based on gender. Specifically, DeKeseredy and Schwartz (1994) restrict their studies to "women abuse" which they define as "any intentional physical, sexual, or psychological assault on a female by a male dating partner" (p. 53).

The multiple definitions of dating violence used in research with adolescents is one factor that has contributed to widely varying prevalence rates (see Table 1). Typically, studies using definitions that include acts of psychological abuse, such as swearing, along with acts of physical and sexual abuse report a higher number of respondents affirming that they have experienced dating violence than studies using definitions excluding such acts (Lane & Gwartney-Gibbs, 1985). In addition, definitions that include threats of violence along with actual acts of violence tend to report higher prevalence rates (e.g., Burcky, Reuterman, & Kopsky, 1998) than those that are limited to acts of violence alone (e.g., Mercer, 1986). In one study, prevalence rates of victimization dropped from 35.5% to 26.9% when cases involving only threats of violence were excluded (O'Keeffe et al., 1986). Sugarman and Hotaling (1989) suggested that prevalence statistics also vary as a function of the study sample. For example, a study of adolescent females who were residents of a shelter for displaced teenagers (Richards, 1991) reported much higher rates of victimization than studies restricted to high school students (e.g., Foshee, 1996; Jezl et al., 1996; Mercer, 1986).

In spite of widely varying prevalence rates, some common patterns have emerged from studies of adolescent dating violence. In general, less serious acts, such

Table 1

Prevalence Rates of Adolescent Dating Violence by Gender and Victim/Perpetrator Status

	MALE		FEMALE	
	Victimization	Perpetration	Victimization	Perpetration
Physical Violence Only	• 7.8% (Bergman, 1992) • 39.4% (Foshee, 1996)	• 1% ° (Mercer, 1986) • 12% (Simons, Lin, & Gordon, 1998) • 15% (Foshee, 1996)	• 11% ° (Mercer, 1986) • 15.7% (Bergman, 1992) • 36.5% (Foshee, 1996)	• 27.8% * (Foshee, 1996)
Sexual Violence Only	• 4% ° (Price et al., 2000) • 4.4% (Bergman, 1992) • 6.9% (Foshee, 1996) • 11.4% (Jezl et al., 1996)	• 4.5% * (Foshee, 1996) • 12% ° (Mercer, 1986)	• 14.5% * (Foshee, 1996) • 15.7% (Bergman, 1992) • 17.8% (Jezl et al., 1996) • 19% *° (Price et al., 2000) • 20% ° (Mercer, 1986)	• 1.2% (Foshee, 1996)
Psychological Violence Only	• 16.4% ° (Jaffe et al., 1992)	• 13% ° (Mercer, 1986) • 14.1% ° (Jaffe et al., 1992)	• 17% ° (Mercer, 1986) • 23.6% *° (Jaffe et al., 1992)	• 9.0% ° (Jaffe et al., 1992)
Physical Violence & Threats			• 24% (Burcky et al., 1988)	
Physical & Sexual Violence & Threats	• 37.1% (Molidor & Tolman, 1998) • 41.4% (Avery-Leaf et al, 1997 ◊) • 43.2% (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998)	• 16% (Schwartz, O'Leary, & Kendziora, 1997) • 21% (Avery-Leaf, et al, 1997 ◊) • 39% (O'Keefe, 1997)	• 36.4% (Molidor & Tolman, 1998) • 38.4% (Avery-Leaf et al, 1997 ◊) • 45.5% (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998)	• 43% * (O'Keefe, 1997) • 44% * (Schwartz et al., 1997) • 53% * (Avery-Leaf et al, 1997 ◊)
Physical, Sexual, & Psychological Violence & Threats	• 13% ° (Price et al., 2000) • 23.5% (Bergman, 1992) • 67.5%* (Jezl et al., 1996)		• 29% *° (Price et al., 2000) • 32% (Bergman, 1992) • 50.8% (Jezl et al., 1996)	

* significantly greater rate by gender ◊ 1 year prevalence rates

° Canadian data

as pushing or shoving, tend to be more common and also more variable across studies (Carlson, 1987). Conversely, the most serious types of violence, those that are very likely to cause physical injury, such as using a weapon, are much less common (Carlson, 1987). In addition, these most serious acts have prevalence rates that are very consistent across studies (Carlson, 1987).

Given the obvious differences in possible effects for victims and perpetrators of adolescent dating violence, most researchers report separate prevalence rates for victims and perpetrators. Rates of reported perpetration have varied dramatically ranging from as low as 1% for high school males' self-reported acts of physical violence (Mercer, 1986) to a high of 53% for high school females' self-reported acts of physical or sexual violence along with threats of violence (Avery-Leaf et al., 1997). Similarly, rates of victimization have varied considerably across studies ranging from a low of 4.4% for adolescent male sexual victimization (Bergman, 1992) to a high of 67.5% for male victims of physical, sexual and psychological violence and threats of violence.

In almost all studies which asked participants to report both their victimization and perpetration of dating violence, self-reported rates of victimization significantly exceeded self-reported rates of perpetration where tests of statistical significance were performed (e.g., Foshee, 1996; Foshee et al., 1998; Jaffe et al., 1992; Jezl et al., 1996; O'Keeffe et al., 1986; Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986). There were some exceptions to this pattern. For example, Malik, Sorenson, and Aneshensel (1997) found that overall rates of perpetration were slightly higher (39.3%) than overall rates of victimization (38.2%). Similarly, Avery-Leaf and colleagues (1997) found a greater percentage of adolescent

girls reported being a perpetrator of violence (53%) than a victim of violence (38.4%). Nevertheless, the bulk of the research findings suggest that self-reported rates of victimization exceed perpetration. These results are not surprising given the finding that social desirability measures are more strongly related to individuals' reports of their use of violence than to their reports of victimization (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1997). In other words, given the negative stigma associated with the perpetration of intimate violence, many adolescents may be more willing to report the use of violence against them than their own use of violence against a dating partner.

For many studies, questions about dating violence differ by gender. Specifically, some studies that have included both adolescent males and females limited victimization questions to females and perpetration questions to males (e.g., Mercer, 1986). Others limit their samples to one gender and focus exclusively on male perpetration (e.g., Simons et al., 1998) or female victimization (e.g., Burcky et al., 1988). In the studies that have explored and statistically compared both male and female victimization and perpetration, a somewhat unclear and controversial picture has emerged. The challenges raised by some researchers regarding gender differences in rates of dating violence, such as selection bias, differing consequences of violence, and self-defense will be addressed at a later point. For overall rates of adolescent victimization, three studies found significantly more female victims compared to male victims (e.g., Price et al., 2000; Roscoe & Callahan, 1985; Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986). In contrast, Jezl and colleagues (1996) reported significantly more male victims than female victims. However, the majority of the studies which compared rates of victimization by gender found no

statistically significant difference (e.g., Avery-Leaf et al., 1997; Foshee, 1996; Malik et al., 1997; Molidor & Tolman, 1998; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Symons, Groer, Kepler-Youngblood, & Slater, 1994). Based on these types of findings, Martin (1990) suggested that for adolescents, patterns of violence and abuse may be less differentiated by gender, giving the impression that abusive behaviour in adolescence does not yet follow an adult-like pattern. It is important to note, however, that prevalence statistics provide only a broad picture of dating violence. As such, they do not provide much information about the phenomenology of the experience which may involve significant differences by gender.

In contrast to the inconsistencies reported regarding gender differences in victimization, the findings regarding perpetration are considerably more uniform. In studies that compared gender differences in rates of overall dating violence perpetration, females were more likely than males to report being the perpetrator of violence when statistically significant differences were found (e.g., Avery-Leaf et al., 1997; Foshee, 1996; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1997; Schwartz et al., 1997). Moreover, only one study (Jaffe et al., 1992) found no significant gender difference in overall rates of perpetration. Some researchers have suggested that findings of equal or higher levels of perpetration by females than males may not accurately represent the violence in relationships. For example, selection bias in sampling may come into play. Given that men hitting women is generally viewed by our society as less acceptable than women hitting men, male perpetrators of dating violence may be less likely than female perpetrators to participate in studies (Foshee, 1996). It has also been suggested that males

may under-report their violent behaviours more than females because of the greater unacceptability of violence by males (Foshee, 1996). However, a meta-analysis found a weak to moderate negative relationship between social desirability and intimate violence in adult relationships with no gender differences (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1997). Overall, the possibility still exists that the reported findings regarding gender differences in perpetration may be distorted.

Regardless of the accuracy regarding gender differences in perpetration, it is important to note that criticisms have been levied against merely counting discrete acts of violence. Researchers have suggested that the psychological significance and context of the violence are important to understanding and defining relationship violence (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). As with adults, adolescent male perpetration has very different physical and psychological consequences compared to violence perpetrated by females, given the greater potential for injury (Scott, Wekerle, & Wolfe, 1997). Also, the initiation of violence may be due to different motivations for males and females. Specifically, reasons given by adolescent females for their use of violent or abusive tactics with dating partners are often tied to feelings of anger and frustration, whereas males attribute their actions to attempts to joke or be playful (Scott et al., 1997). Thus, the although the majority of studies reported greater perpetration by adolescent females, the consequences of these findings require careful evaluation.

Researchers have also examined gender differences in the types of violence perpetrated and experienced by level of severity. Similar inconsistencies in gender differences have been found in the rates of perpetration and victimization by severity as

have been found for overall rates of dating violence. Foshee (1996) found that females were more likely to report perpetrating all types of violence than males, be it mild (e.g., scratching, slapping or pushing; 25.8% vs 10.6% respectively), moderate (e.g., twisting arm, kicking, or biting; 16.4% vs 8.7%), or severe (e.g., choking, burning, hitting with fist, or using a weapon; 11.1% vs 4.2%). Another study found that males reported receiving significantly more moderate physical violence than females but no differences in the other types of violence were found (Molidor & Tolman, 1998). In contrast, two other studies found that females were more likely to be the targets of severe violence compared to males (Molidor & Tolman, 1998; Roscoe & Callahan, 1985). This final finding concurs with the majority of the results reported in the adult abuse literature.

It is difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding gender differences in rates of psychological violence, which includes acts such as monitoring and insults, given the paucity of studies that have examined this form of dating violence in adolescence. In the two studies that found gender differences in victimization, females were more likely than males to be the victim. Specifically, Jaffe and colleagues (1992) found that females were significantly more likely to be the victims of verbal force compared to males. Similarly, Foshee (1996) found females reported more victimization than males from monitoring, personal insults, and emotional manipulation (e.g., an act intended to produce jealousy). However, in regard to the perpetration of verbal force, Jaffe and colleagues (1992) found no significant gender difference. Foshee (1996) reported no significant gender differences in the perpetration of monitoring or personal insults; however, females reported more perpetration of emotional manipulation than males.

A dramatically different picture emerges when prevalence rates are reported for sexual violence, independent of all other forms of violence, in adolescent dating relationships. In studies of sexual dating violence which compared prevalence rates for males and females, females were always more likely than males to report being victims of sexual violence (Foshee, 1996; Molidor & Tolman, 1998; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Price et al., 2000) and males were always more likely than females to report being perpetrators of sexual violence (Foshee, 1996; O'Keefe, 1997); however, in some cases these differences were not statistically significant (Jezl et al., 1996; Schwartz et al., 1997) or tests of statistical significance were not conducted (Bergman, 1992).

Regardless of the form of violence, it is clear that dating violence is neither a rare nor isolated occurrence. Both males and females are perpetrating violence and are being victimized in dating relationships at alarming levels in the United States and Canada. Although reports have varied, typically the research suggests dating violence occurs in approximately 30% to 40% of adolescent dating relationships in the United States (e.g., Avery-Leaf et al., 1997; Molidor & Tolman, 1998; O'Keefe, 1997; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Schwartz et al., 1997). The equivalent statistics for Canadian youth suggest slightly lower rates, with most researchers finding 20% of adolescents have been involved in dating violence (e.g., Gagne & Lavoie, 1995; Jaffe et al., 1992; Mercer, 1986; Price et al., 2000). Given that this area of research is relatively new, the Canadian prevalence data has been thus far limited to Central and Eastern Canada. Although the rates are not expected to be significantly different in Western Canada, in order to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the extent of this problem, data measuring rates of

dating violence from other regions of Canada is needed.

Effects of Dating Violence

Although the majority of the studies have found similar rates of dating violence victimization based on gender, the subjective experience and physical and psychological effects of this violence are often very different. Thus, in spite of the fact that violence may be bi-directional, the evidence suggests that it is not symmetrical because females are affected more negatively by intimate violence than are males (Vivian & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 1994). Moreover, these gender differences are distinct, substantial, and severe (Molidor & Tolman, 1998). For example, in adult relationships, women are more likely to experience physical injury or emotional injury (defined as depression, stress, and psychosomatic symptoms) than are men (Stets & Straus, 1990). The data regarding differences in the effects of dating violence by gender in adolescent relationships, although not as comprehensive and conclusive as the adult data, has found many substantial differences.

Prevalence of Physical Injury

In the limited number of studies that assessed rates of physical injury, the majority reported significant differences by gender in which females sustained more injuries than males (Foshee, 1996; Molidor & Tolman, 1988). Foshee (1996) found that among teens who had experienced dating violence not only were females significantly more likely to receive an injury from dating violence than males (69.9% versus 51.6% respectively) but that females also reported receiving an injury a greater number of times than males. Similarly, in an examination of the worst incident of dating violence experienced, males

reported no effect (i.e., did not hurt at all) or a little effect (i.e., hurt me a little) in over 90% of the incidents (Molidor & Tolman, 1998). In contrast, only 9% of females reported not being hurt at all. Moreover, 48% of females reported serious harm (i.e., hurt me a lot) and 33.6% reported physical injury (i.e., caused bruises and/or needed medical attention; Molidor & Tolman, 1998). Overall, males in this study were significantly more likely to report little or no physical consequences of the violence they experienced (Molidor & Tolman, 1998). In the one study that found non-significant differences in injury rates, 16.5% of the young women and 11.8% of the young men (from the entire sample not just limited to those those who were involved in dating violence) reported sustaining some form of injury (Avery-Leaf et al., 1997). Overall, the majority of the evidence suggests that adolescent females are at higher risk for injury as a result of dating violence.

Prevalence of Psychological Effects

The differences in the effects of dating violence are not only physical; the psychological consequences also differ by gender. In the two studies that examined emotional responses to dating violence victimization in adolescents, significant gender differences were found. Among female victims, the most common response to victimization was fear, followed closely by emotionally hurt (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). Among males, the most common effects were that the male victim "thought it was funny," followed closely by anger (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). In addition, among adolescent females severe dating violence victimization was significantly related to high levels of post-traumatic stress and anxiety and low life satisfaction (Callahan, 1998). For

victims of mild and severe dating violence, females reported significantly more post-traumatic stress than did males (Callahan, 1998). Overall, the evidence suggests that for adolescents, whose self-image and self-worth are developing, the introduction of violence into romantic relationships may be psychologically crippling (O'Keeffe et al., 1986), particularly so for females.

Theoretical Frameworks

Feminist Theory

In order to help understand and explain the occurrence of dating violence, two major theoretical frameworks have been examined within the research literature: feminist theory and social learning theory. Feminist theory views violence as a manifestation of the patriarchal structure, which includes gender-based power inequities, within North American culture (Gentemann, 1984). Male abuses of power and control are hypothesized to occur within the culture as a whole as well as within intimate relationships (Avery-Leaf et al., 1997). Feminist researchers suggest that the patriarchal structure is reflected in the patterns of behaviours and attitudes of individuals which includes male violence towards female partners (Kalmuss, 1984). Within this perspective, the combination of patriarchal values, including men in a position of control and women being dependent, and romanticism are viewed as key factors in the perpetration and maintenance of intimate violence (Lloyd, 1991).

There is a variety of empirical support for a feminist perspective of dating violence. For example, some researchers have found that abusive men frequently espouse more traditional views about women than do nonabusive men (Sigelman, Berry, & Wiles,

1984; Telch & Lindquist, 1984) while other have found no such relationship (Johnston, 1988; Rouse, 1988). Similarly, men with a high power need have been found to be significantly more physically abusive in relationships than men without a high power need (Mason & Blankenship, 1987). Finally, within feminist theory, acts of violence by men are seen as qualitatively different than those perpetrated by women as they are viewed as eliciting more fear and injury (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Most of the empirical data appears to support this assertion of qualitative differences in acts of violence by gender (e.g., Foshee, 1996). There are limitations, however, with the application of feminist theory to the problem of dating violence. First, the vast majority of empirical studies have been limited to adults. There has been no empirical work with an adolescent sample that has been a direct test of the major tenets of feminist theory. Second, the feminist model fails to adequately address female aggression against male partners (Dutton, 1994). Feminist theory acknowledges that female violence exists, but emphasizes that the context of such acts typically involves self-defense (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Indeed, some researchers have found that if females use violence it is usually in self-defense (e.g., Saunders, 1986). Another researcher, however, found that 15.9% of adolescent females reported perpetrating dating violence in self-defense while 27.8% reported ever perpetrating dating violence (Foshee, 1996). Thus, it is evident that self-defense cannot explain all instances of females' use of violence in intimate relationships.

Feminist theory has some direct application to this current project. Specifically, variables such as forms of self-efficacy will be assessed separately by gender. Thus, if

females are more prone to suffering negative consequences from victimization than males, as would be suggested by the feminist perspective, analyses performed separately by gender will be able to identify this.

Social Learning Theory

In contrast to feminist theory's emphasis on a patriarchal structure, an individual's learning environment and outcome expectations are the focus in social learning theory. Social learning theory posits that aggression is learned by observing the behaviour of others, such as family members and peers, and its positive consequences. In terms of the role of the family, this theory holds that children learn about intimate relationships by observing parental interactions. Consequently, children who witness spousal violence are expected to learn that aggression is a normal part of romantic relationships and a script for violent behaviour (Simon et al., 1998). Whether the observed behaviours and associated cognitive patterns are learned and utilized depends on the observed consequences of the violent behaviour and the anticipated outcome of employing the behaviour (Foshee, Bauman, & Linder, 1999). For example, a child may witness compliance and submission from the abused parent to the abuser following the use of violence. Thus, the child who witnesses such violence may come to view intimate violence as having functionally positive consequences (Foshee et al., 1999). In contrast, a child may observe more negative than positive consequences for the use of violence and form negative outcome expectations resulting in the child not using violence in future romantic relationships (Foshee et al., 1999). Social learning theory proposes that if a child comes to believe that violence has positive outcome potentials in one's intimate

relationships, then violence will likely be utilized within the relationship.

Social learning theory also proposes that the use of violence in intimate relationships can be learned in situations beyond witnessing parental spousal abuse. Violence from a parent directly to a child has also been hypothesized to lead to the use of violence in dating relationships through a similar mechanism. Parental use of violence in these circumstances is thought to provide children and adolescents with models of behaviour to emulate (Malik et al., 1997). In addition, witnessing the use of violence in one's community is thought to affect young people's perceptions of violence as a legitimate method of resolving conflict (Malik et al., 1997). Finally, social learning theory has also been utilized to explain the use of violence in relationships in which both members of the dyad engage in violent behaviour. For example, a victim of dating violence may view the consequences of the perpetrator's use of violence as positive and accordingly learn to perpetrate violence in similar situations (Gray & Foshee, 1997). Thus, within a social learning framework, the utilization of violence in a dating relationship can be learned through viewing violence and developing positive outcome expectations for its use from numerous settings.

Proponents of this framework have provided a considerable quantity of research that supports the use of social learning theory as an explanatory model of adolescent dating violence. Several researchers have found a positive link between observing parental aggression and either experiencing or perpetrating violence in a dating relationship (Foshee et al., 1999; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keeffe et al., 1986; Peterson & Olday, 1992). Similarly, significant evidence has been found for an association between

parental violence toward children (i.e., corporal punishment or child abuse) and dating violence (Foshee et al., 1999; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998; Peterson & Olday, 1992; Reuterman & Burcky, 1989; Simon et al., 1998; Smith & Williams, 1992). Finally, exposure to community violence has been found to be related to both the victimization and perpetration of dating violence (Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). Furthermore, in a specific test of the social learning model, approximately 21% of female perpetration and 15% of male perpetration was accounted for by social learning theory variables (which included witnessing a parent hit a parent, being hit by an adult, being hit by a parent, outcome expectations for the use of violence, prescribed norms [e.g., "it's okay for a boy to hit his girlfriend if she insults him"], aggressive conflict response style and constructive resolution skills; Foshee et al., 1999).

Social learning theory's application to this current research is threefold. First, past research exploring social learning theory variables play a significant role in providing a comprehensive understanding of the factors associated with dating violence perpetration and victimization detailed in this study. Second, social learning theory and self-efficacy share a major tenet, namely outcome expectancies. As applied to self-efficacy, outcome expectancies play a role in whether an adolescent engages in a particular activity be it academic, social, or physical. For example, an adolescent who has poor academic self-efficacy may believe that there is little possibility for success on a school project and thus fail to even attempt the task. Thus, social learning theory also has a theoretical link to the major hypothesis in this current study namely that self-efficacy beliefs will be correlated with experiences with dating violence. Finally, one of social

learning theory's tenets has guided an additional hypothesis in this project. The hypothesis that adolescents are unlikely to be perpetrators of dating violence without also being victims of it is consistent with social learning theory.

Although social learning theory and feminist theory stress different factors in the development and initiation of violence in intimate relationships, some of the main tenets of social learning theory and feminist theory can be viewed as compatible. Specifically, media and cultural factors, which play a sizable role in feminist theory, are also acknowledged as being important determinants of adolescents' understanding of violence in social learning theory (Miedzian, 1995). That coercive and sexist models of relationships inundate the entertainment media (Barongan & Hall, 1995), is recognized within both frameworks. Social learning theory focuses on findings such as the vulnerability of youth with maltreatment histories to such messages (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1998). Thus, the interplay and exchange possible within these two theories are clear.

Finally, it is important to note that while each of these theories contributes uniquely to our understanding of adolescent dating violence, violence is multidetermined (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Thus, although both feminist theory and social learning theory can help to increase our understanding of the risk factors associated with dating violence, neither alone nor together do they satisfactorily explain all aspects of this health and social problem. In spite of this current project being guided by both theories, the goal of this research is not to test either of these models. Rather, the aim of this project is to examine factors beyond these frameworks (i.e., self-efficacy) in order to provide a more complete understanding of adolescent dating violence.

Adolescent Perpetrators of Dating Violence

Given the growing body of research examining adolescent dating violence, it is now increasingly possible to describe common characteristics and experiences typical of adolescent perpetrators. Research findings enable such a portrait to include: demographic characteristics, such as race and age; other forms of violence outside of dating relationships, such as witnessing parental spousal abuse, experiencing maltreatment from a parent, and exposure to community violence; features of perpetrators' dating relationships including reciprocity of violence, levels of conflict, duration, and seriousness of the relationship; school performance; and self-esteem. In addition to providing descriptions of perpetrators, current research has found that the risk factors for perpetrating dating violence vary by gender (e.g., Foshee et al., 1999; Schwartz et al., 1997). Thus, characteristics and experiences of perpetrators will be presented separately by gender for variables where significant differences were found.

Demographic Variables

In regard to the link between demographic variables and dating violence, it has been suggested that caution should be exercised in the interpretation of these findings. Some of the significant results which have linked demographic variables and dating violence involvement were found to be mediated by another variable. Thus, adolescent dating violence should not and cannot be examined solely as a problem based on race or any other demographic variable. That is not to suggest that demographic variables cannot help to provide some understanding of the problem of adolescent dating violence; rather, future research which also includes variables related to past experiences of violence and

current relationship factors will be of benefit.

Somewhat inconsistent findings have been reported regarding the relationship between race and dating violence perpetration. However, the majority of studies which examined the relationship between these two variables found that African-American adolescents reported perpetrating significantly more dating violence than adolescents from other racial groups (Foshee et al., 1996; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1997). In addition, one study also found Latinos to be significantly more likely to inflict dating violence than Caucasian adolescents (O'Keefe, 1997). Given these findings, it appears that African American adolescents are at a higher risk for perpetrating dating violence compared to adolescents from other racial groups. However, given that not all studies controlled for mediation by other variables, it is possible that the link between race and dating violence perpetration may be less powerful than suggested by the findings in general. Higher rates of exposure to other forms of violence may be the reason why many studies have found African American adolescents to be at a greater risk for perpetrating dating violence compared to adolescents from other racial groups (Malik et al., 1997).

There is limited empirical work on the relationship between age and dating violence perpetration. Only one study examined these variables. The researchers found that 17-year-olds had the highest level of perpetration and 15-year-olds had the lowest level (Malik et al., 1997). The authors of the study suggested that this finding was largely due to corresponding differences in exposure to violence (Malik et al., 1997). In other words, older adolescents perpetrated more dating violence because of exposure to greater amounts of violence. Given the paucity of research with this variable, further

investigation is needed.

Other Forms of Violence Outside of Dating Relationships

Many studies have found a relationship between previous experiences of violence, such as witnessing parental spousal abuse and being a victim of child abuse, and the perpetration of dating violence. A positive link between the perpetration of dating violence and witnessing parental spousal abuse has been found in many (Foshee et al., 1999; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1997; Schwartz et al., 1997) but not all studies (Mercer, 1986; Simons et al., 1998). However, gender appears to play a role in the relationship between witnessing parental violence and perpetrating dating violence. Specifically, in two studies, a significant relationship between witnessing interparental violence and perpetrating dating violence was found for males but not for females (O'Keefe, 1997; Schwartz et al., 1997). Thus, this pattern suggests that male perpetration may be more impacted from witnessing parental violence than female perpetration. These findings may be explained, in part, by modeling theory which posits that a given behaviour is more likely to be engaged in if the model is viewed as similar to the observer (Bandura, 1995). Specifically, perpetrating violence may be more likely to occur if the observer is the same gender as the model perpetrating the violence. Thus, young men may be more likely to perpetrate dating violence after witnessing parental violence than young women if the perpetrators of the parental spousal violence are fathers.

Empirical research has suggested that a link may exist between experiencing parental violence (i.e., corporal punishment or child abuse) and later perpetration of dating violence. Specifically, one study found a positive correlation between

experiencing child abuse and perpetrating dating violence for both genders (Smith & Williams, 1992). In all other studies, gender has been found to play a role in the relationship. For example, one study found a positive relationship between corporal punishment and perpetration for adolescent males (Simons et al., 1998), while others found a link between child abuse or corporal punishment and perpetration for young women but not young men (Foshee et al., 1999; O'Keefe, 1998). Still others have found no link between the perpetration of dating violence and experiencing violence from parents (Malik et al., 1997; Mercer, 1986).

In contrast to the findings regarding the relationship between dating violence and witnessing parental spousal abuse or parental violence, somewhat greater consistency has been found in the link between exposure to community violence and dating violence. Exposure to community violence (e.g., witnessing acts of violence such as someone being beaten) has been found to be a significant predictor of perpetration across genders (Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998). Overall, it appears that exposure to community violence is a significant predictor of dating violence involvement especially for adolescents who have been exposed to other forms of violence (e.g., child abuse and parental violence; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998).

Similarly, researchers have found a significant relationship between the perpetration of aggression outside of dating relationships and within them. For example, Connolly, Pepler, Craig, and Taradash (2000) found that young adolescents who engaged in bullying (defined as "the abuse of power by one child over another through repeated aggressive behaviours," p. 300) had higher levels of physical and social aggression within

their dating relationships compared to a sample of non-bullying peers. The authors concluded that young adolescents who engage in bullying their peers may be on a negative developmental trajectory for their romantic relationships.

Although some studies failed to find a link between the perpetration of dating violence and exposure to violence, whether it involved witnessing parental spousal abuse, experiencing physical violence from one's parent, or witnessing violence within one's community, the preponderance of the evidence suggests that a relationship does exist. Thus, these studies provide support for the utility and value of examining the perpetration of dating violence within a social learning theory framework. Moreover, given that unique patterns of perpetration emerged based on gender, these findings also can be viewed as strong evidence for the need to examine variables hypothesized to be associated with the perpetration of violence separately for young men and young women.

Characteristics of the Dating Relationship

Researchers have explored a variety of characteristics of adolescent dating relationships including relationship seriousness and violence reciprocity and their link to perpetration. Viewing the relationship as being serious has been found to be a significant predictor for female, but not male perpetration (O'Keefe, 1997; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). A possible explanation for these findings is that male dating violence may be less tied to young men's level of emotional commitment than female dating violence (O'Keefe, 1997). Alternatively, violent males may be less willing to acknowledge an emotional commitment.

Reciprocity of violence has proven to be an important variable in understanding

the use of dating violence in adolescent relationships. All of the studies that have explored reciprocity of dating violence have found that dating violence is most likely to be reciprocal within a relationship although the rates of mutually violent relationships have differed (Gray & Foshee, 1997; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1997; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; O'Keeffe et al., 1986; Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986). For example, Gray and Foshee (1997) found that the majority (66.2%) of relationships with violence were mutually violent in that participants were both victims and perpetrators of violence in their dating relationship. This compares to 14.3% of participants who were victims only (violence was sustained but not initiated) and 19.5% of participants who were perpetrators only (violence was initiated but not sustained) in their relationships. In contrast, Roscoe and Kelsey (1986) found that all respondents in their study reported being both a recipient and perpetrator of dating violence. Moreover, being the recipient of violence was a significant predictor of perpetration for both genders (O'Keefe, 1997).

Many researchers and theorists, however, have speculated as to what the underlying cause of this "mutual violence" may be. Accordingly, reciprocity of dating violence has been explored through an examination of the use of self-defense. Some researchers have suggested that a significant proportion of female perpetration can be explained as acts of self-defense (e.g., Dobash, Dobash, Wilson, & Daly, 1992). Here again, the results are equivocal. For example, one study found that 36% of females indicated that they defended themselves when they experienced a violent act by their partner (Molidor & Tolman, 1998). Thus, the authors have suggested that males' reports of experienced violence, in fact, be their female partners' acts of self-defense (Molidor &

Tolman, 1998). Similarly, O'Keefe (1997) suggested that females are more likely than males to hit in self-defense given the finding that being a victim of dating violence was a stronger predictor for females' use of violence compared with males. However, Foshee (1996) found that even when looking at perpetration that excluded self-defense, females reported significantly higher levels of perpetration than males (27.8% to 15%). Overall, the research findings suggest that regardless of the motivation behind the use of violence, perpetrating violence puts an adolescent at risk for becoming a victim of violence.

There is a clear need for Canadian data regarding the reciprocity of violence in relationships as the research in this area is quite limited. For example, Canadian researchers have limited their studies to questions regarding female victimization and male perpetration (Mercer, 1986), or victimization for both genders (Price et al., 2000; Sudermann & Jaffe, 1993), or reciprocity of verbal violence only (Jaffe et al., 1992). Although it is probable that similar patterns exist for Canadian adolescents, empirical data are needed. Knowledge regarding the patterns of perpetration and victimization is needed to ensure programs aimed at the prevention of dating violence can adequately target and educate adolescents. For example, if adolescents who engage in dating violence are found to be most likely both a victim and perpetrator of violence rather than a victim only or a perpetrator only, programs that are built on the premise that perpetration involves only adolescent males may be of limited value. Such programs may fail to address female perpetration placing both males at risk for victimization and females perpetrators at risk for becoming victims of violence that may cause significant injury.

School Performance

Only one published study has considered the relationship between academic performance and dating violence perpetration (O'Keefe, 1998). In it, the author found poor school performance successfully differentiated females exposed to interparental violence who inflicted dating violence from those who had dating relationships free of violence. In contrast, males' poor school performance was unrelated to dating violence perpetration. Thus for females but not males, success in school has been found to produce a protective effect, mitigating the relationship between witnessing interparental violence and inflicting dating violence (O'Keefe, 1998).

Given the limited breadth and number of studies examining the relationship between academic performance and dating violence perpetration further evaluation is needed. Unlike victimization, the link between violence perpetration and academic success (e.g., typical grades received) has yet to be evaluated. Similarly, the relationship between future educational plans and dating violence perpetration remains unexplored. Further research into these areas is both warranted and necessary as significant findings may help guide treatment and prevention programs. Specifically, such programs may need to include components which address links between dating violence and academic performance.

Self-Esteem

A link between self-esteem, which involves judgments of self-worth, and dating violence perpetration has begun to emerge in the research literature. In the one study that explored these variables, results showed significant differences based on gender.

Specifically, no relationship was found between self-esteem and dating violence perpetration for females (O'Keefe, 1998). However, lower self-esteem levels were found to differentiate young men exposed to interparental violence who inflicted dating violence from those who did not (O'Keefe, 1998). The author reported that this finding was consistent with research on resilient children indicating that high self-esteem produces a protective effect on children at risk (Garmezy, 1985).

In addition to self-esteem being related to dating violence perpetration it has also been linked to self-efficacy in adolescents. In a sample of early adolescents from different racial/ethnic backgrounds, self-esteem was found to be positively correlated with self-efficacy (Smith, Walker, Fields, Brookins, & Seay, 1999). Thus, given the link between dating violence perpetration and self-esteem, and the link with self-efficacy and self-esteem, an examination of the relationship between self-efficacy and dating violence perpetration is warranted. An exploration of the relationship between dating violence perpetration and self-efficacy is needed because it involves an individual's judgment regarding one's ability to deal with specific situations; this differs from the evaluations of self-worth which comprise self-esteem.

Adolescent Victims of Dating Violence

Just as a body of research has begun to amass regarding typical characteristics and experiences of adolescent perpetrators of dating violence, a similar literature has begun to develop regarding victims of dating violence. Many of the same variables examined in relation to perpetrators of dating violence have been explored in terms of victimization. Thus, empirical findings enable a description of dating violence victims to include:

demographic characteristics, such as race and age; previous experiences with violence outside dating relationships, such as witnessing parental spousal abuse, experiencing maltreatment from a parent, and exposure to community violence; features of victims' dating relationships including levels of conflict, relationship seriousness, reciprocity of violence, and number of relationships; school performance including grade point average, academic program, and school suspensions; and self-esteem.

Demographic Variables

Inconsistent findings have been reported concerning the relationship between race and dating violence victimization in adolescent relationships. Some studies have found no overall differences in rates of victimization by race (O'Keeffe et al., 1986; Symons et al., 1994), while others, however, have reported racial differences in rates of adolescent dating violence victimization (Foshee et al., 1996; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). When differences in victimization by race have been found, the results have been similarly inconsistent. One study found African American youth experienced greater rates of dating violence victimization (Malik et al., 1997); whereas, another found only African American males more likely to receive dating violence (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). In contrast, the same study found that African American females were less victimized by dating violence than were White females (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). The authors also found that Asian American females received more dating violence than White females (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). In direct contrast to O'Keefe and Treister's (1998) findings, Malik and colleagues (1997) found that Asian Americans were less likely than Whites to receive dating violence victimization. Finally, Foshee and

colleagues (1996) found that White adolescents reported less victimization of nonsexual dating violence than either African American adolescents or adolescents in the "other" racial category. Although the results are far from conclusive, in general, the findings suggest that race may be a risk factor for experiencing dating violence victimization.

The role of age has been in examined in a variety of ways in relation to dating violence victimization. The different ways that age has been explored have included the age at which dating began, the age of the respondent's dating partner, and the respondent's current age. The age at which dating begins has been found to have no relation to female victimization (Bergman, 1992; Reuterman & Burcky, 1989). In contrast, age of the dating partner and victimization have been found to be significantly related for young men only (Foshee, 1996). Males have been found to be significantly more likely to be victims of dating violence from partners who were older than from partners who were the same age or younger (Foshee, 1996). Finally, in one study that examined the current age of respondents in relation to experiences of victimization, without conducting separate analyses by gender, age emerged as a statistically significant variable (Malik et al., 1997). Sixteen-year-olds had the highest level and 14-year-olds had the lowest level of victimization (Malik et al., 1997). This finding is not surprising given that older adolescents likely have more dating experiences than younger adolescents which increase their risk of exposure to violence. Given the established link between current age of respondents and victimization has been limited to one study, additional research is needed. Moreover, given the different patterns that have emerged for victims by gender, the link between victimization and age requires research that

analyzes these variables separately for male and female adolescents.

Other Forms of Violence Outside of Dating Relationships

Many studies have found a link between being a victim of dating violence and previous experiences of violence including witnessing parental spousal abuse, being a victim of abuse, and witnessing community violence. In regard to the relationship between exposure to parental spousal abuse and dating violence victimization, however, equivocal findings have been reported. In some studies, both gender of the child and gender of the parent made a significant difference in regard to victim status. One study found that witnessing male-on-female spousal abuse was unrelated to dating violence victimization (Malik et al., 1997). In contrast, exposure to female-on-male spousal abuse was found to be significantly related to dating violence victimization for adolescent boys but not for adolescent girls (Malik et al., 1997). Others have found interparental violence to be unrelated to dating violence victimization at the multivariate level (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998), or to female victimization (Mercer, 1986). Thus, it is difficult to draw any substantive conclusions in regard to the relationship between witnessing parental spousal abuse and dating violence victimization.

Equivocal findings were also reported for the relationship between experiencing violence from a parent and dating violence victimization. One study found that female victims of dating violence reported that their parents were more likely to have used various forms of violence as means of discipline including pushing or shoving (Reuterman & Burcky, 1989). Others have found a significant relationship between parent to child violence and dating violence victimization at the bivariate but not

multivariate level (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). Still other researchers have found differences in the relationship between dating violence victimization and experiencing parental violence based on gender. In a subsample of adolescents who witnessed high levels of interparental violence, experiencing child abuse was a significant predictor of female, but not male, dating violence victimization (O'Keefe, 1998). Malik and colleagues (1997) report a similar finding in that experiencing child abuse was associated with dating violence victimization for adolescent girls but not for adolescent boys. In contrast, only one study failed to find any link between receiving violence from parents and being a victim of dating violence for adolescent females (Mercer, 1986).

Although definitive conclusions cannot be made regarding the relationship between parental violence towards children and later experiences with dating violence, a pattern has begun to emerge. First, the preponderance of studies found a significant relationship between the two variables suggesting that being a victim of parental violence may play a role in acclimatizing youth to violence in intimate relationships. Second, when gender differences were found within a study, the relationship between dating violence victimization and parental violence was always found to be significant for females and non-significant for males. Thus, it appears that females may be more impacted in their current dating relationships by their past experiences with parental violence than males. Learned helplessness, which involves recurring traumatic experiences that lead to outcomes such as depression, passivity, and indecision (Walker, 1984), may help to explain these findings. Young women may start to develop feelings of learned helplessness in regard to their ability to control individuals' acts of violence

against them. They may start to believe that they can do little to stop or prevent their victimization by others.

The findings regarding the relationship between dating violence victimization and exposure to community violence have been more consistent than those reported for witnessing parental spousal abuse or experiencing parental violence. In all studies that have examined this variable, a significant relationship was found for adolescent females. In one study, exposure to community violence was found to be a significant predictor of dating violence victimization for both genders (Malik et al., 1997). Another study found gender differences in the relationship between community violence exposure and victimization (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). O'Keefe and Treister (1998) found both high school males' and females' exposure to community violence was correlated to victimization; however, at the multivariate level, the variable contributed to a significant portion of unique variance for females only. Overall, the findings have suggested that exposure to community violence can be a significant predictor of dating violence victimization especially for adolescents who have experienced or witnessed other forms of violence (Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998). These adolescents may come to view the world as a hostile and violent place where an individual can do little to protect oneself.

Similar to the relationship between the perpetration of aggression outside of dating relationships and within them, a link has been found between bullying and dating violence victimization. Connolly and her colleagues (2000) found that young adolescents who engaged in bullying had higher levels of both physical and social aggression victimization within their dating relationships compared to non-bullying youth. The

authors concluded that there is a continuity of aggression across relationships for young adolescents.

In spite of the fact that not all of the research that has explored the relationship between prior experiences with violence and dating violence victimization found a significant relationship, the majority of the studies have found a link. These findings are important for a number of reasons. First, these results assist in describing factors that may put an adolescent at risk for experiencing dating violence. Secondly, they help to provide evidence in support of the main tenets of social learning theory, namely that previously experiences with violence can impact upon its future use. Finally, the results that have been found to differ by gender provide empirical support for the practice of studying variables expected to be related to dating violence victimization separately by gender.

Characteristics of the Dating Relationship

In order to help understand the factors which can play a role in dating violence victimization, many facets of adolescent relationships have been studied. For example, researchers have explored levels of seriousness, reciprocity of violence, and number of dating relationships. In regard to relationship seriousness and victimization, significant gender differences have emerged. Specifically, the seriousness of the relationship was found for be a significant predictor for female but not male victimization (O'Keefe, 1997; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998) mirroring the positive correlation between relationship seriousness and perpetration. A possible explanation for this finding is that female victimization may be more tied to their level of emotional commitment than male

victimization (O'Keefe, 1997).

Reciprocity of violence in adolescent dating relationships has been recognized as an important factor in understanding the conditions that lead to victimization. Indeed, reciprocity had been identified as being the most significant predictor of sustaining dating violence for both young men and young women in one study (O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). Moreover, typically a young person is unlikely to be a victim of dating violence without also being a perpetrator of it (Gray & Foshee, 1997). Thus, the findings suggest that being a victim of dating violence also puts an adolescent at risk for being a perpetrator of violence.

Number of past dating partners has also been explored in relation to dating violence. Many studies have found that for adolescent girls, the greater the number of dating partners, the greater the risk of being the victim of dating violence (Bergman, 1992; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Reuterman & Burcky, 1989). As an explanation of this link, it has been suggested that a high number of partners for an adolescent girl may indicate that an adolescent is more invested in dating and/or that the adolescent is less selective than other adolescents in choosing dating partners (Bergman, 1992). The link between the number of past dating partners and dating violence victimization, however, is more equivocal for adolescent males. For example, O'Keefe and Treister (1998) found that the number of dating partners was significantly correlated with dating violence for both genders. However, in a multiple regression, the variable was not found to be significant for high school males. Although a greater number of dating partners has been identified as a risk factor for sustaining violence, the research has not examined any other

relationships between these two variables. For example, no studies have explored whether sustaining violence from multiple partners leads to increased risk for negative sequelae such as increased levels of injury or psychological harm. Thus, there is a need to examine whether violence from multiple partners puts youth at increased risk for its harmful effects.

School Performance

The examination of the relationship between academic experiences and dating violence victimization has focused almost exclusively on female adolescents. All studies which have explored the link between school related successes and dating violence victimization have found significant relationships for at least one measure of academic success for female adolescents. In regard to grade point average, an equivocal relationship was found between the variable and dating violence victimization. Bergman (1992) found a low grade point average to be the second best predictor of dating violence victimization following number of dating partners. Similarly, O'Keefe (1998) found females exposed to interparental violence who experienced dating violence had lower average grades compared those females without a history of dating violence victimization. For males, however, there was no link between dating violence victimization and grade average (O'Keefe, 1998). In contrast, Reuterman and Burcky (1989) found that experiencing dating violence was unrelated to grade point average for female adolescents. However, these researchers did find that female victims were more likely to be in a general academic program in high school and less likely to be enrolled in college preparatory courses than non-victims. They also found that females who had

been dating violence victims were more likely to have been expelled or suspended from school than non-victims (Reuterman & Burcky, 1989). Similar data from Canadian students has not been explored in the research literature. It is important to note that given the design of these studies it is not known whether these negative educational experiences are a result or an antecedent of the dating violence.

In spite of the difficulty researchers have in making conclusions about the impact of experiencing dating violence on adolescent females' academic lives, one study gave young women the opportunity to describe how their educational experiences would be different in an environment free from "male abuse" (Larkin & Popaleni, 1994). Their ideas are highlighted in the following quotes:

> "A lot of girls would excel in their school work ... we could freely express how we feel about a subject because we wouldn't face the intimidation factor."
> "In a harassment-free school [girls] would be freely able to strive to perform to their full level. They would be surprised what they can actually do. I think it would have a very big bearing on their performance in class and in sports" (Larkin & Popaleni, 1994, p. 225).

Although these quotations pertain to harassment by males, the possibility exists that similar sentiments may be echoed by victims of dating violence given that between 27% to 43% of adolescents who experienced dating violence reported that it occurred at school (Molidor & Tolman, 1998; Roscoe & Callahan, 1985; Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986). These findings support the need for researchers to examine the link between beliefs about educational abilities (i.e., academic self-efficacy) and aspirations and dating violence victimization.

Self-Esteem

Like many of the other variables which have been linked to dating violence, self-esteem has been found to have a different relationship with dating violence based on gender. In two studies that examined the relationship between dating violence victimization and self-esteem, there was a significant relationship for females but not for males (Jezl et al., 1996; O'Keefe & Treister, 1988). In addition, female victims who remained in physically abusive relationships have been reported to have the lowest self-esteem relative to all other young men and women (Jezl et al., 1996). Moreover, Callahan (1998) found that female victims of severe violence also reported significantly lower self-esteem than female victims of mild violence. Due to the strong relationship between self-esteem and victimization, further evaluations incorporating other areas of self-evaluation, namely self-efficacy, are needed.

The gender difference in the relationship between self-esteem and dating violence victimization found may be explained, in part, with the help of feminist development theories. These theories posit that women form an identity through relationships, while men form an identity through separation (Chodorow, 1990; Gilligan, 1982). Accordingly, a female's self-esteem may relate more closely to the treatment she receives in her relationships and thus abuse in a dating relationship may have a great impact on her self-esteem (Jezl et al., 1996). In contrast, a male's self-esteem may be less linked to the treatment he receives from his dating partner, as his identity is more closely linked to his ability to be autonomous (Jezl et al., 1996). Thus, psychological abuse in a male's dating relationship may not be damaging unless it is directed at his competence and ability to be

autonomous (Jezl et al., 1996). In addition, although the number of eligible dating partners is highest during the high school and college years, many female adolescents with low self-esteem are wary about leaving the security of their present relationship even if violence has been experienced (Koval, 1989). Resuming dating with new partners can be an uncertainty for females with low self-esteem (Koval, 1989).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to individuals' judgments regarding how efficiently and effectively they will be able to deal with specific situations in the future. Efficacy beliefs influence how individuals feel, think, motivate themselves, and act (Bandura, 1995). When challenged with obstacles, problems, or failure, individuals who experience strong doubts about their abilities tend to decrease their efforts or give up, whereas individuals with a strong sense of efficacy exert greater effort to master the task (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). As a result, self-efficacy contributes to individuals' choices of activities and environmental settings (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy has also been found to be a strong predictor of future behaviour and has been found to often be a better predictor of future behaviour than past behaviour (Bandura, 1977).

Individuals' efficacy beliefs have been hypothesized to be developed by four main sources (Bandura, 1995). First, Bandura (1995) suggests that mastery experiences lead to the most efficient creation of strong efficacy beliefs. Mastery experiences, which involve an individual effectively executing a given task, provide the most genuine evidence that one possesses the skills necessary for success (Gist, 1989). A second way of influencing efficacy beliefs involve vicarious experiences provided by models (Bandura, 1995).

Viewing an individual master an activity through effort raises beliefs that one has the ability to similarly succeed (Schunk, 1987). Social persuasion is an additional method of increasing an individual's efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1995). If an individual is persuaded that he or she has the capacity to succeed at an activity, greater efforts can be mobilized and sustained if challenges arise (Schunk, 1989). Finally, enhancing physical status, reducing stress and negative emotional moods, and correcting misinterpretation of bodily states are methods of increasing efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1995).

Perceptions of self-efficacy can play a critical role in adolescent development. Young people's beliefs in their personal efficacy play a vital role in the organization, creation, and management of the environment that affect their development pathways (Bandura, 1997). During this transitional phase, adolescents must face challenges involving the mastery of new skills needed for adult life. The way adolescents develop and exercise their self-efficacy during this period can play an important role in setting their life course (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, young people who enter adolescence with a low sense of efficacy bring vulnerability to stress and dysfunction into this new phase of the life span (Bandura, 1997).

Physical Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy can come into play during adolescence in a number of different domains including physical, social, and academic realms. Physical self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs regarding their ability to master tasks and situations which demand physical responses. Given that pubertal changes can affect physical ability in ways that impact on self-efficacy in physical functioning (Bandura, 1997), this domain may be

particularly relevant during adolescence. Indeed, deficits in physical self-efficacy have been linked to negative outcomes for teenagers. For example, physical self-efficacy has been found to be negatively correlated with levels of depression in adolescents (Ehrenberg et al., 1991). Conversely, high physical self-efficacy has been linked to positive participation in school-related activities (Allison, Dwyer, & Makin, 1999). In addition, female high school students have been found to have lower levels of physical self-efficacy than male students (Allison et al., 1999). Clearly, physical self-efficacy can play an important role in the well-being of adolescents.

Academic Self-Efficacy

In addition to facing changes associated with biological maturation, adolescents must also face academic transitions. Such changes often include a move from a smaller, personalized educational environment to a larger, less personal setting compartmentalized by different academic tracks. In this new environment, adolescents often experience significant pressures related to academic achievement and early academic/career specialization (Elkind, 1984). In contrast to previous generations, youth with limited schooling no longer have ample opportunities in industrial and manufacturing jobs which are rapidly diminishing in the current economy (Bandura, 1995). As a result, education is becoming an increasingly important prerequisite needed for complex occupational roles.

Within the often pressure filled academic environment, there are multiple ways in which efficacy beliefs contribute to adolescent academic development. Academic self-efficacy, which involves personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated types of educational performances (Zimmerman,

1995), can make important impacts on scholastic progress (Bandura, 1995). Students' academic self-efficacy affects their aspirations, level of interest in intellectual pursuits, academic accomplishments, and how well they prepare themselves for different occupational careers (Bandura, 1995). A number of different negative outcomes have been associated with low academic self-efficacy. For example, low academic self-efficacy has been linked to scholastic anxiety (Meece, Wigfield, & Eccles, 1990), depression (Ehrenberg et al., 1991), early sexual activity (Brooks-Gunn & Furstenberg, 1989), physical and verbal aggression (Bandura, 1995), and problem behaviors such as smoking and alcohol use (Chung & Elias, 1996) for adolescents. In contrast, young people with a high sense of efficacy to regulate learning and master academic skills have been found to behave more prosocially, are more popular and experience less rejection from peers (Bandura, 1995).

Social Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy also plays a role in social development for adolescents. Because peers serve as a major agency for the development and validation of self-efficacy, disrupted or impoverished peer relationships may adversely affect the growth of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Moreover, during adolescence, pubertal changes can affect social status in peer groups in ways that affect self-efficacy in psychosocial functioning (Bandura, 1997). Accordingly, adolescents need to reestablish their social self-efficacy, which involves judgments of how efficiently and effectively they will be able to deal with social interactions. Often connectedness and status within the peer group also needs to be reestablished during this period of development (Bandura, 1997). During this phase in

the life span, however, adolescents can experience heightened sensitivity to social evaluation, along with reduced self-confidence and motivation (Eccles & Midgley, 1989), which can contribute to problems in social self-efficacy. In adolescent males, low social self-efficacy has been linked to problem behaviours, low prosocialness, and poor academic performance (Bandura, 1997). Low social self-efficacy and a reduced capacity to resist peer pressure also may lead to potentially risky activities and a reduction in prosocial behaviours (Bandura, 1997). In addition, a link between low social self-efficacy and depression has been established for adolescent males and females (Bandura, 1997).

Just as low social self-efficacy can negatively impact on a teen's developmental trajectory, high levels of social self-efficacy have been linked to positive outcomes. Specifically, adolescents who have high levels of social efficacy have been found to be better at developing supportive friendships than adolescents who experience self doubt in this realm (Connolly, 1989). This is not surprising given the finding that strong social efficacy is required to cultivate and maintain beneficial relationships (Leary & Atherton, 1986). Supportive relationships, in turn, can enhance personal efficacy. For example, supportive friends can demonstrate effective coping attitudes and strategies for managing problem situations, model the value of perseverance, and give positive incentives for skillful coping (Bandura, 1997).

General Self-Efficacy

The aforementioned examples clearly illustrate the concept of self-efficacy in three domain specific areas (i.e., physical, academic, and social). In addition to the commonly held view of self-efficacy being domain specific, researchers have also

proposed that self-efficacy can take a generalized form (Schwarzer, 1994). General self-efficacy refers to individuals' global confidence in their coping ability across a wide range of demanding or novel situations (Schwarzer, 1994). Given the numerous demands placed on adolescents, possessing a sense of personal competence to efficiently handle a variety of challenges may be important for optimally effective functioning. Conversely, low levels of general self-efficacy have been recognized as a risk factor for impaired functioning including depression (Ehrenberg et al., 1991).

Self-Efficacy and Dating Violence

The relationship between self-efficacy and a number of problem behaviours has been clearly established. Further research, however, is needed to better understand the possible links between self-efficacy and dating violence. To date, only one empirical study has examined the link between self-efficacy and adolescent dating violence and this study was limited to sexual victimization prevention efficacy in adolescent females (Walsh & Foshee, 1998). Specifically, high prevention self-efficacy was negatively associated with experiencing forced sexual activity (Walsh & Foshee, 1998; see table 2 for a summary of all variables associated with dating violence involvement). Similarly, in a study of college students, self-efficacy for performing resistance behaviours was found to be negatively correlated with prior rape by a date or lover (Walsh, 1994).

Other research has suggested that there may be a link between self-efficacy and dating violence without testing for such a relationship. For example, in a dating violence prevention support group changes in self-efficacy were reported and attributed to group

Table 2

Typical Characteristics and Experiences of Victims and Perpetrators of Dating Violence

Perpetrators	**Victims**
Consistent Findings	*Consistent Findings*
Older Adolescents	Older Adolescents
Exposed to Community Violence	Exposed to Community Violence
Victims of Dating Violence	Perpetrators of Dating Violence
High levels of Relationship Conflict	High levels of Relationship Conflict
Aggressive Conflict Response Style	Greater Number of Dating Partners
Inconsistent Findings	*Inconsistent Findings*
Race	Race
Witnessed Parental Violence	Witnessed Parental Violence
Experienced Child Abuse	Experienced Child Abuse
Female Specific Findings	*Female Specific Findings*
Views Relationship as Serious	Views Relationship as Serious
Poor School Performance	Difficulties involving School
	Low Self-Esteem
	Low Sexual Victimization Prevention Efficacy
Male Specific Findings	*Male Specific Findings*
Low Self-Esteem	Older Dating Partner

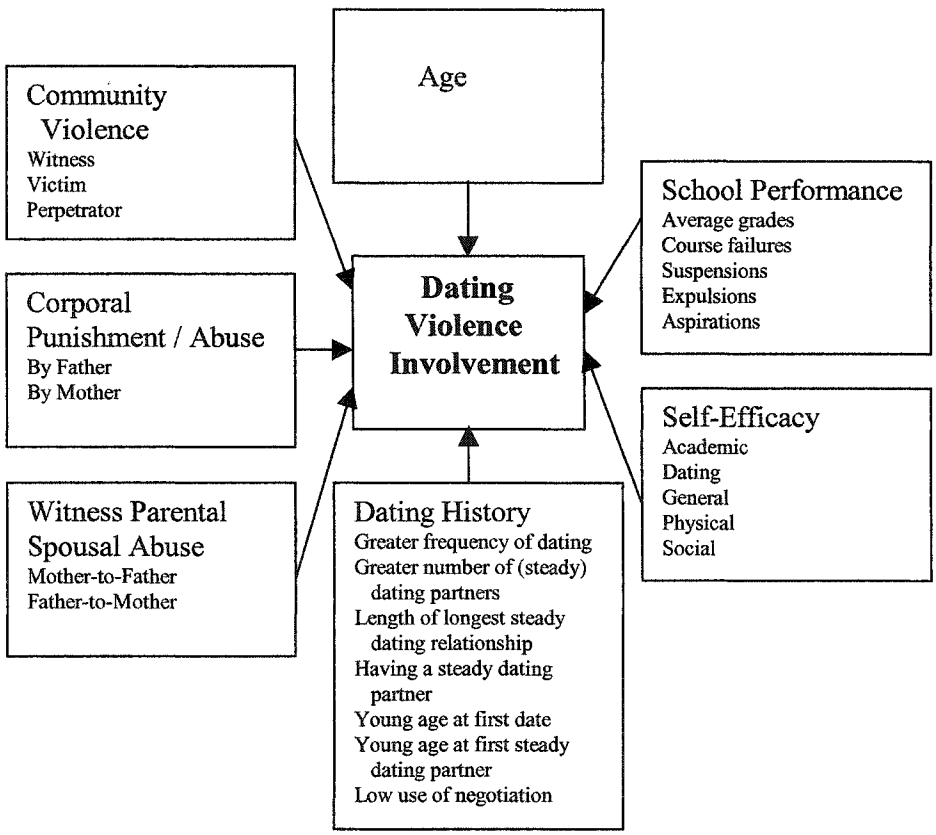
involvement (Rosen & Bezold, 1996). However, no measures of self-efficacy were taken prior to group involvement and the post group measure was limited to a brief summary of what group members had learned (Rosen & Bezold, 1996). From the authors' descriptions, it is unclear as to whether the attitudes measured reflected self-efficacy or would be better described as relationship expectations. Other research has reasonably hypothesized that, for females, self-efficacy may reduce the likelihood of involvement in dating violence (O'Keefe, 1998). For example, school success was found to produce a protective effect, mitigating the relationship between witnessing interparental violence and both inflicting and receiving dating violence for females (O'Keefe, 1998). The hypothesis was made that the experience of success and accomplishment at school helped "at risk" females acquire a sense of self-efficacy or ability to control what happened to them, reducing the likelihood of becoming involved in or staying in an abusive dating relationship (O'Keefe, 1998). Clearly, research exploring the relationship between self-efficacy in a number of areas is both warranted and necessary.

Conceptual Framework

In addition to the two theoretical frameworks used to help explain and predict the occurrence of dating violence (i.e., feminist theory and social learning theory), an original conceptual framework has been created for this study (see Figure 1). This conceptual model focuses on the numerous variables expected to be associated with involvement in dating violence. Consistent with social learning theory, previous experiences of violence including experiencing child abuse, witnessing parental spousal violence, and involvement in community violence (as a witness, perpetrator, and/or victim) are

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework of Variables Proposed to be Associated with Dating Violence



expected to be significant predictors of involvement in dating violence. The model also proposes that adolescents' dating history will impact on dating violence involvement. Specifically, a greater frequency of dating and a greater number of dating partners are expected to be significant predictors of dating violence involvement. In addition, a history of dating violence victimization is expected to be a predictor of dating violence perpetration, and conversely, a history of dating violence perpetration is expected to be a predictor of dating violence victimization. In regard to school performance, average grades, course failures, suspensions, expulsions and academic aspirations are all expected to be significant predictors of dating violence involvement. Additionally, all types of self-efficacy measured in this study (i.e., academic, dating, general, physical, and social) will be examined in relation to dating violence involvement. Finally, age is the only demographic variable expected to be a significant predictor of dating violence involvement.

In addition to the relationships between dating violence and the aforementioned variables, it is expected that other relationships exist. For example, a significant positive correlation is expected between child abuse and witnessing parental spousal abuse. It is, however, beyond the scope of this current study to examine the relationship of variables apart from dating violence.

Purpose of Current Study

Although adolescent dating violence is a fairly new area of academic inquiry, a body of knowledge has begun to amass. Statistics regarding the percentage of youth who have been involved in dating violence now exist for samples from Ontario (e.g., Jaffe et

al., 1992; Mercer, 1986; Sudermann & Jaffe, 1993), Quebec (e.g., Gagne & Lavoie, 1995), and New Brunswick (Price et al., 2000). Findings from these studies suggest that approximately 20% of Canadian youth will experience some form of dating violence during their adolescence. Data examining the percentage of adolescents who have experienced dating violence (including psychological aggression, physical assault, and sexual coercion) from Western Canadian samples are also needed. The current study will help to address the gap in the literature in this area. Moreover, if the findings from this study suggest that adolescent dating violence is a common experience, it may provide the impetus for establishing a dating violence prevention program within the Capital Regional District along with the evidence needed to secure funding to support such a program.

As information regarding teen dating violence has begun to grow, it becomes possible to describe the typical adolescent perpetrator and victim of dating violence. Although the distinction between victim and perpetrator is clearly of consequence, it is also important to note that all of the studies that have explored the reciprocity of violence within teen relationships have found that dating violence is most likely to be reciprocal (Gray & Foshee, 1997; Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1997; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; O'Keeffe et al., 1986; Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986). Given that all of these samples involved American teenagers, it would be helpful to explore the issue of patterns of dating violence victimization and perpetration among Canadian youth. It is likely that similar patterns exist for Canadian adolescents, however, empirical data is necessary to determine if this is the case. This information is needed to help guide intervention programs aimed at the

prevention and elimination of dating violence. For example, if the majority of adolescents involved in dating violence are found to be both victims and perpetrators rather than only victims or only perpetrators, prevention programs can be encouraged to address perpetration and victimization for both genders. Specifically, even though male perpetration is more likely to result in greater injury than female perpetration, addressing female perpetration may help reduce female victimization by reducing the overall level of violence in the relationship.

A lack of data exploring the relationship between demographic variables and dating violence for adolescents from Canada is also evident in the literature. Significant differences based on age have been found in relation to perpetration and victimization experiences of American teenagers. This variable also needs to be examined separately by gender in a Canadian sample. In addition, in order to better describe the sample of teenagers participating in this study, additional demographic questions will be asked including information about socio-economic status, race, parental education, family income, parental marital status, and living arrangements.

Similarly, the link between academic performance and dating violence involvement has been examined only in a sample of American adolescents. Moreover, the relationship between academic experiences and dating violence has been explored mainly in the context of female victimization. The relationship between academic success and dating violence involvement needs to be expanded to include a greater exploration of the link between dating violence perpetration and academic success for young people of both genders.

A relationship between dating violence and self-evaluation has been explored in the research literature. Specifically, significant relationships have been identified between low self-esteem and both female victimization (Jezl et al., 1996; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998) and male perpetration (O'Keefe, 1988). The research has recently begun to expand in the area of self-evaluation to include self-efficacy. One study has found a negative relationship between dating violence victimization and sexual victimization prevention efficacy for females (Walsh & Foshee, 1998). An examination of the link between experiences of dating violence and additional areas of self-efficacy, such as general, social, physical, dating, and academic self-efficacy, is warranted.

Hypotheses

(1) Prevalence of dating violence: Based on the findings of previous Canadian studies of adolescent dating violence (e.g., Price et al., 2000), I expect that approximately 20% to 30% of this adolescent sample will have experienced some form of physical dating violence. Moreover, I anticipate that more adolescents will experience psychological aggression than physical forms of dating violence such as physical or sexual assault. Some gender differences in perpetration and victimization are anticipated. Specifically, I expect that more young men will perpetrate sexual dating violence than young women and more young women will be victims of sexual dating violence than young men. In addition, for adolescents who have been victims of physical dating violence, more young women than young men are expected to have suffered a physical injury. Although I anticipate that young women will sustain more injury both at the minor level (e.g., sprain, bruise, or small cut) and severe (e.g., broken bone) level than

young men, it is expected that the gender difference in rates of injury will be most extreme for severe rather than minor injuries.

(2) Relationship between victim and perpetrator status: Similar to previous findings, I expect that the majority of adolescents involved in dating violence will be both victims and perpetrators of violence rather than only victims or only perpetrators.

(3) Relationship between injury and physical aggression: I hypothesize that teenagers who experience high levels of physical violence will sustain significantly more injuries than adolescents who experience low levels of physical violence.

(4) Relationship between injury and number of physically aggressive relationships: I expect adolescents who have experienced physical violence from multiple partners to have sustained more physical injuries than teenagers who experienced physical violence from a single partner.

(5) Relationship between dating violence and demographic variables: I predict that older adolescents will have higher rates of victimization and perpetration than younger adolescents given their likely greater exposure to a larger number of dating partners. Other demographic variables (e.g., socio-economic status and parental marital status) are expected to be unrelated to involvement in dating violence.

(6) Relationship between dating violence and other forms of violence outside of dating relationships: I hypothesize that experiences with violence outside of dating relationships (i.e., history of childhood physical abuse, witnessing parental spousal abuse, and experiences with violence in the community) will be positively correlated with experiences of dating violence.

(7) Relationship between dating violence and dating history: I hypothesize that a greater number of dating experiences will be related to more experiences with dating violence. Thus, I hypothesize that having had a greater number of dating partners and steady dating partners will be positively correlated with involvement in dating violence. Similarly, I predict that frequency of dating and length of longest steady dating relationship will positively correlate with experiences of dating violence. Those adolescents who experienced having a steady dating partner are expected to have more experiences with dating violence than those who have not had such experiences. I expect to find that a younger age at first date and first steady dating partner will both be correlated with dating violence involvement. Finally, I predict that adolescents who perpetrate physical acts of dating violence will be less likely to use acts of negotiation than teenagers who do not perpetrate physical acts of dating violence.

(8) Relationship between dating violence and academic history: It is expected that experiences of victimization will be associated with both limited academic success (e.g., failed courses and lower average grades) and limited educational aspirations (e.g., less likely to express a plan to attend a professional school). Moreover, high levels of academic success and aspiration are expected to be protective factors against the perpetration of dating violence.

(9) Relationship between dating violence and self-efficacy: Part of this study will attempt to describe the relationship between involvement in dating violence and types of self-efficacy including physical, academic, social, dating, and general self-efficacy. Given the paucity of previous research examining a possible link between dating violence

involvement and self-efficacy, research questions rather than specific hypotheses will be used in conjunction with these variables. Thus, this study will attempt to address the following research questions:

(I) Is involvement in dating violence, either as a victim or perpetrator, related to levels of self-efficacy?

(a) Do victims of dating violence have lower levels of self-efficacy than perpetrators of dating violence?

(b) Do victims and perpetrators of dating violence have different patterns of self-efficacy?

(c) Is gender related to the relationship between victimization and self-efficacy? If so, how?

(d) Is gender related to the relationship between perpetration and self-efficacy? If so, how?

(II) Are levels of self-efficacy related to the severity of dating violence experienced?

(a) For victims of dating violence, are levels of self-efficacy related to the severity of dating violence experienced?

(b) For perpetrators of dating violence, are levels of self-efficacy related to the severity of dating violence perpetrated?

(c) Are some forms of self-efficacy more likely to be associated with the severity of victimization than others?

(d) Are some forms of self-efficacy more likely to be associated with the severity of perpetration than others?

(e) Is gender related to the relationship between self-efficacy and severity of dating violence perpetrated?

(f) Is gender related to the relationship between self-efficacy and severity of dating violence perpetrated?

(III) How do the different types of self-efficacy (i.e., general, academic, social, physical, and dating self-efficacy) vary in their relationship to involvement in dating violence?

(a) Are some types of self-efficacy (e.g., dating self-efficacy) better predictors of dating violence perpetration than others (e.g., physical self-efficacy)?

(b) Are some types of self-efficacy better predictors of dating violence victimization than others?

(c) In regard to self-efficacy, do young men and women share similar patterns of predictors of dating violence?

Methods

Participants

A total of 306 participants completed questionnaires for this study. Ninety-one (29.7%) of these participants were high school students enrolled in an alternative high school for students with academic and behavioural difficulties. The remaining 70.3% of participants (n = 215) were university students enrolled in an introductory psychology course at the University of Victoria. All participants included in the study were between 16 and 19 years old with the average age being 18.0 years old. The majority of participants were female (72.8%) with only 27.2% being male. In regard to ethnic background, most participants were Caucasian (82.7%); however, participants from other ethnic groups were represented (Aboriginal 3.5%, Asian 8.3%, Black 0.3%, East Indian 1.0%, Middle Eastern 0.3%, and mixed ethnic heritage 3.9%; see table 3 for a summary of participant demographic data).

High School Students

Of the 91 questionnaires completed by high school students, 11 were excluded from this study. Six were deemed unusable due to inconsistencies in responding and five were excluded because participants were outside the specified age range for inclusion. In return for their participation in the study, the high school students received ten dollars. The mean age of the high school participants was 16.7 years old (SD = 0.7; range 16 to 19), and 52.5% of high school participants were male and 47.5% were female. In regard to maternal socio-economic status, participants had a mean score of 39.6 (SD = 10.6,

Table 3

Participant Demographic Data

	High School				University			
	Females		Males		Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P	n	P	n	P
Ethnic / Racial Background								
White	33	86.8	35	83.3	143	83.1	28	75.7
First Nations	4	10.5	4	9.5	2	1.2	0	0
Biracial	1	2.6	1	2.4	6	3.5	2	5.4
Asian	0	0	1	2.4	18	10.5	5	13.5
East Indian	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	2	5.4
Black	0	0	1	2.4	0	0	0	0
Middle Eastern	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0
Parental Marital Status								
Married	8	23.5	8	19.1	124	71.7	30	81.1
Divorced	16	47.1	20	47.6	37	21.4	5	13.5
Never Married	5	14.7	5	11.9	2	1.2	2	5.4
Separated	4	11.8	8	19.0	7	4.1	0	0
Widowed	1	2.9	1	2.4	3	1.7	0	0

(table continues)

Table 3 con't

Participant Demographic Data

	High School				University			
	Females		Males		Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P	n	P	n	P
Living Arrangements								
2 Parents	11	31.4	15	38.5	139	80.4	33	89.2
Single Parent	16	45.7	15	38.5	20	11.6	3	8.1
1 Parent & 1 step-parent	4	11.4	4	10.3	14	8.1	1	2.7
Legal Guardian	4	11.4	5	12.8	0	0	0	0

possible range 8 - 66) on the Hollingshead's two-factor index of social position (Hollingshead, 1957). The paternal score on this measure was 35.6 (SD = 11.2). The participants were predominantly Caucasian (85%) although participants from other ethnic groups also participated (Aboriginal 10%, Asian 1.3 %, Black 1.3% and mixed ethnic heritage 2.6%). In regard to parental marital status, slightly less than half of the participants had divorced parents. Additionally, more participants grew up in single parent household than any other living arrangement.

University Students

Of these 215 questionnaires completed by university students, five were excluded because participants were not within the age restrictions for this study. Thus, a total of 210 useable questionnaires were completed by the university students. In return for their participation in the study, students received bonus points toward their grade in their introductory psychology course. In the university sample, the mean age of participants was 18.5 years old (SD = 0.5; range 17 to 19). The large majority of university participants were female (82.4%); only 17.6% were male. Participants had a mean score of 47.2 (SD = 13.3) on the measure of maternal socio-economic status and a score of 47.2 (SD = 11.3) for fathers on this same measure. Similar to the high school sample, the university participants were predominately Caucasian (81.8%), although participants from other ethnic groups were also represented in the sample (Asian 11%, East Indian 1.4%, Aboriginal 1%, Middle Eastern 0.5% and mixed ethnic heritage 4.4%). The majority of participants had married parents and had grown up in two-parent households.

Measures

The procedures used for data collection were identical for both university and high school students with one exception. For the high school students only, a parental information letter (see Appendix A) was sent to parents of students who expressed an interest in participating. Upon arrival to the session, participants were given a package of materials that included informed consent materials (see Appendix B for university students' informed consent form and Appendix C for high school students' informed consent form), instructions, and questionnaires. In addition, a standard set of oral instructions was presented to all participants. To ensure anonymity of respondents and to enhance openness in responding, no identifying information was attached to the questionnaire booklets and participants were informed that their responses could in no way be linked to their identity. Participants took between 20 minutes and 50 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Upon completion of the study, all participants were given a list of community mental health resources (see Appendix D).

Demographic Information

Participants were asked to provide demographic information including: age, gender, grade in high school or year in university, ethnic/racial background, parental education level, parental occupation, parental marital status, and living arrangements prior to age 18 (see Appendix E).

Academic Information

Participants were asked to detail information regarding their academic history and aspirations. Participants were asked to report their average grades from the last five

courses taken, grades from grade 12 English, mathematics, and sciences courses (university sample only), course failures, grade repetitions, school suspensions and expulsions, and their future academic plans (see Appendix F).

Dating History Information

Participants were asked to provide information regarding their dating history. They were asked to report if they had ever been involved in a dating relationship, how frequently they date, their age at the time of their first date, the age at which they became involved with their first steady dating partner, whether they are currently in a steady dating relationship, the number of steady dating partners they have ever had, and the total number of dating relationships in which they have been involved (see Appendix G).

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2)

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) was used to evaluate participants' experiences of victimization and perpetration of many forms of dating violence (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996; See Appendix H). The CTS2 is a standardized instrument for eliciting information from individuals regarding the extent to which partners in a dating relationship engage in psychological and physical attacks on each other along with the use of reasoning and negotiation to deal with conflicts (Straus et al., 1996). The CTS2 shares the same theoretical basis as the original CTS (henceforth referred to as the CTS1; Straus et al., 1996). The revised version of the scale does not present items in a hierarchical order of social acceptability in order to reduce response sets such as blindly marking all items as "never" (Straus et al., 1996). In addition, the CTS2 has 60 more items than the CTS1 and also contains two new scales. Thus, the

CTS2 contains 78 items with five scales including physical assault, psychological aggression, negotiation, injury, and sexual coercion.

The physical assault scale measures acts of physical violence from one dating partner to another. It contains five items of minor severity (e.g., slapped my partner) and seven items considered to be severe (e.g., choked my partner). The psychological aggression scale is comprised of acts of verbal and psychological aggression. The scale is composed of four items deemed minor (e.g., insulted or swore at my partner) and four items classified as severe (e.g., destroyed something belonging to my partner). The negotiation scale includes "actions taken to settle a disagreement through discussion" (Straus et al., 1996, p. 289). The scale contains three items dealing with emotional negotiation (e.g., showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue) and an equal number of items focused on cognitive negotiation (e.g., suggested a compromise to a disagreement). An injury scale was added to the CTS2 which was designed to measure partner-inflicted physical injury. The scale is comprised of two minor items (e.g., felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with my partner) and four severe items (e.g., passed out from being hit on the head by my partner in a fight). Finally, a sexual coercion scale was added which measures "behaviour that is intended to compel the partner to engage in unwanted sexual activity" (Straus et al., 1996, p. 290). There are three minor items on this scale (e.g., insisted on sex when my partner did not want to [but did not use physical force]) and four severe items (e.g., used force [like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon] to make my partner have oral or anal sex).

A 6th grade reading level is required to complete the CTS2 making it suitable for

use with most adolescents. The administration time for the CTS2 ranges from 10 to 15 minutes rendering it a practical measure for gaining information about a wide range of violent behaviours. In addition, the CTS2 has good internal consistency ranging from .79 for the psychological aggression scale to .95 for the injury scale making it a psychometrically sound measure (Strauss et al., 1996).

A number of small modifications were made to the CTS2 for this project. The standard instructions for the CTS2 refer to one relationship. These instructions were changed to refer to conflict tactics used in any dating relationship. This change was made in order to ensure all possible incidents of violence were measured. In addition, the word "couple" was replaced with "people who are dating" again for the purpose of measuring all acts of dating violence, not just those limited to steady dating relationships. In order to make the wording of the CTS2 most relevant to adolescents and in order to not restrict the questionnaire to steady dating relationships, the word "partner" was changed to "date" or to "date or boyfriend/girlfriend." The CTS2 also asks how many times an incident occurred in the past year. This was changed to reflect how often an incident ever occurred. This change allowed for a calculation of the total number of violent incidents experienced by a participant rather than the number of incidents experienced in the previous year. In addition, participants were asked to report the number of relationships in which the participant was a victim or perpetrator of physical violence. Finally, an extra question was added to the end of the scale to ascertain if any of the strategies used occurred in relationships outside of heterosexual dating relationships. This modification was made to ensure that acts of aggression in a homosexual dating relationship were not

mistakenly assumed to have occurred in heterosexual dating relationships.

Conflict Tactics Scale - Witnessing Spousal Abuse

Participants completed a version of The Conflict Tactics Scale designed to measure experiences of witnessing parental spousal abuse (see Appendix I). This twelve item scale contains both acts of verbal aggression (e.g., yelled, screamed, or called the other names) and physical violence (e.g., choked the other) perpetrated by one parent against the other. The Conflict Tactics Scale - Spousal Abuse Version is a retrospective-report questionnaire which has been used with university students (Bulcroft & Straus, 1975). Correlations between parental self-reports of spousal violence perpetration and university students' reports of their parents' use of spousal violence have ranged from .33 (students and mothers) to .64 (students and fathers; Bulcroft & Straus, 1975). Overall, the researchers found a tendency for the students to report somewhat more violence by their fathers towards their mothers than their fathers reported and to report less violence by their mothers than the mothers reported (Bulcroft & Straus, 1975). To ensure that the psychometric properties of the scale were adequate for the current sample, an internal consistency reliability analysis was conducted.

Conflict Tactics Scale - Community Violence

Participants were asked to report their experiences of witnessing, perpetrating and being a victim of physical violence in the community. In order to measure these experiences, nine questions from the Conflict Tactics Scale were used to assess all three kinds of experiences (see Appendix J). The nine items range in severity from mild (e.g., being pushed, grabbed, or shoved) to severe (e.g., being shot). In order to clearly

distinguish experiences of witnessing, perpetrating or being victimized, each of the nine scale items was asked separately by experience type. Additionally, a separate set of instructions was given at the beginning of each section. In regard to witnessing community violence, participants were asked to indicate how often they witnessed specified acts in the community. Examples of community locations such as neighbourhoods and schools were provided. In addition, the instructions specified to exclude acts of violence in the home. Similarly, the instructions preceding experiences of perpetrating acts of violence in the community asked participants to exclude dating experiences. Finally, the instructions for the victimization of community violence section asked participants to exclude acts perpetrated by a dating partner or parent. Following the perpetration and victimization questions, participants were asked if any of the experiences involved family members such as siblings. An internal consistency reliability analysis was conducted to ensure that each of the scales had adequate psychometric properties.

The Physical Abuse Questionnaire

In order to assess childhood experiences of physical abuse, participants completed The Physical Abuse Questionnaire (see Appendix K). The Physical Abuse Questionnaire (Demaré, 1992) is a retrospective-report questionnaire created to assess physical maltreatment experiences that occurred prior to age 18. Items comprising this measure were based on a review of the literature and on the author's clinical experience (Demaré, 1996). The items range from relatively low severity (e.g., hitting or slapping) to high severity (e.g., physical torture; Demaré, 1996). The psychometric properties of this scale have been proven to be acceptable with alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .89 to

.90 (Demaré, 1996). One item was added to the questionnaire in order to assess spanking.

The Self-Efficacy Scale

As a measure of both general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy, participants completed the Self-Efficacy Scale (Sherer et al., 1982; See Appendix L). The self-efficacy scale contains 23 items in total with 17 items belonging to the general self-efficacy subscale (e.g., When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work) and 6 items comprising the social self-efficacy subscale (e.g., I do not handle myself well in social gatherings). The general self-efficacy items tap into individuals' expectations of their abilities to succeed in a variety of situations whereas the social self-efficacy items are specific to the social realm. Although the measure was designed for use with adults, it has been used successfully with adolescents in previous research (Ehrenberg et al., 1991). In addition, the scale has proven construct validity and criterion validity (Sherer et al., 1982). Construct validity was established by correlating the measure with several other personality characteristic measures (e.g., the Interpersonal Competency Scale; Holland & Baird, 1968; the Internal-External Control Scale; Rotter, 1966) with all resulting correlations being moderate in magnitude and in the appropriate direction (Sherer et al., 1982). Criterion validity was established by demonstrating that past success experiences in vocational, educational, and military areas were positively correlated with scores on the self-efficacy scale (Sherer et al., 1982).

Physical Self-Efficacy Scale

In order to assess participants' physical self-efficacy, the Physical Self-Efficacy Scale (PSE; Ryckman, Robbins, Thornton, & Cantrell, 1982) was included as a measure in this study (See Appendix M). The PSE is composed of two factors including perceived physical ability (e.g., I have excellent reflexes) and physical self-confidence (e.g., I am not hesitant about disagreeing with people bigger than me). The former consists of 10 items and the latter has 12 items. The PSE has been used with both undergraduate (Ryckman et al., 1982) and high school populations (Ehrenberg et al., 1991). It has been found to have high test-retest reliability (.80; Ryckman et al., 1982), internal consistency (.82; Ryckman et al., 1982) construct validity (Ryckman et al., 1982), and criterion validity (Ryckman et al., 1985).

Academic Self-Efficacy Scale

In order to assess participants' levels of academic self-efficacy, the Measure of Academic Self-Efficacy (MASE) was used (Lalonde, 1980 as cited in Ehrenberg et al., 1991; see Appendix N). The MASE measures individuals' beliefs about their ability to succeed in an academic setting (e.g., I am confident in my academic abilities). It contains 21 items that generate a single total academic self-efficacy score. The MASE has been established as a highly reliable measure of academic self-efficacy in high school students (Ehrenberg et al., 1991). In addition, Lalonde (1980 as cited in Ehrenberg et al., 1991) found a relationship between high academic self-efficacy scores, successful academic behaviour, and plans to continue with formal education using this measure.

Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

In order to assess participants' levels of dating self-efficacy, a 28-item dating self-efficacy scale was created for this study (see Appendix O). The scale attempted to assess five areas of individuals' beliefs in their dating abilities including: *Securing Dates* (e.g., I have an easy time meeting people that I might be interesting in dating.), *Skill at Dating* (e.g., I do not find it easy making conversation on a date), *Terminating a Date/ Relationship* (e.g., If someone I was not interested in asked me for a date, I would not find it difficult to say no.), *Protecting Self from Dating Violence* (e.g., If my date became sexually aggressive, I would have a difficult time protecting myself), and *Access to Supports* (e.g., If I experienced dating violence, I would be able to turn to my friends for support). An equal number of positively and negatively phrased items were included in the scale.

Questionnaire Ordering

In order to evaluate the influence of the ordering of measures within the questionnaire, two versions of the questionnaire were used. The ordering of the questionnaires in version one was as follows: demographic information, academic information, dating history information, dating violence experiences, witnessing spousal abuse, child physical abuse, witnessing community violence, perpetrating community violence, victim of community violence, dating self-efficacy, general and social self-efficacy, physical self-efficacy, and academic self-efficacy. In the second version, the ordering of the questionnaires were reversed with the following exceptions: the

demographic information section remained at the beginning of the questionnaire and dating history questions preceded information regarding dating violence experiences.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Questionnaire Ordering

The relationship between questionnaire ordering and CTS2 subscales was measured by a series of t-tests. The ordering of the items within the two versions of the questionnaires was not found to have a significant effect on reported rates of dating violence victimization or perpetration (including psychological, physical, and sexual violence) for either high school or university students as measured by scores on the CTS2. All t-tests were found to be non-significant (see Appendix P).

Scale Psychometric Properties

Conflict Tactics Scale. Many of the subscales comprising the Conflict Tactics Scale showed high levels of internal consistency reliability (see Table 4). For the high school students, all of the Conflict Tactics Scales had high levels of internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's alpha values ranged from a low of .74 (for severe psychological aggression perpetration scale and minor physical aggression perpetration scale) to a high of .98 (for severe sexual coercion perpetration scale). All ten of the total composite scores had Cronbach's alpha values above .81.

The Conflict Tactics Scales did not show the same high levels of internal consistency within the university sample. For this sample, the Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .26 (for severe psychological aggression victimization scale) to .91 (for partners' negotiation scale). Forty percent of the total composite scores had Cronbach's scales with an alpha below .70, six had items with zero variance. In other words, none

Table 4

Scale Internal Consistency Reliabilities: Cronbach's Alphas

Scale	High School Sample	University Sample
Conflict Tactics Scales		
Participants' Negotiation	.88	.89
Partners' Negotiation	.84	.91
Total Psychological Aggression Perpetration	.81	.78
Minor Psychological Aggression Perpetration	.81	.84
Severe Psychological Aggression Perpetration	.74	.46
Total Psychological Aggression Victimization	.85	.76
Minor Psychological Aggression Victimization	.83	.83
Severe Psychological Aggression Victimization	.83	.26
Total Physical Aggression Perpetration	.85	.76
Minor Physical Aggression Perpetration	.74	.72
Severe Physical Aggression Perpetration	.89	.52
Total Physical Aggression Victimization	.94	.70
Minor Physical Aggression Victimization	.88	.71
Severe Physical Aggression Victimization	.92	.40
Total Sexual Coercion Perpetration	.82	.42

(table continues)

Table 4 con't

Scale Internal Consistency Reliabilities: Cronbach's Alphas

Scale	High School Sample	University Sample
Minor Sexual Coercion Perpetration	.75	.49
Severe Sexual Coercion Perpetration	.98	.65
Total Sexual Coercion Victimization	.85	.51
Minor Sexual Coercion Victimization	.75	.56
Severe Sexual Coercion Victimization	.89	.89
Injury Victimization	.82	.40
Injury Perpetration	.89	.34
Family Violence Scales		
Mother-to-Father Abuse	.87	.84
Father-to-Mother Abuse	.88	.81
Physical Abuse by Mother	.94	.87
Physical Abuse by Father	.88	.78
Community Violence Scales		
Witnessing Community Violence	.91	.81
Community Violence Perpetration	.87	.71
Community Violence Victimization	.83	.78

(table continues)

Table 4 con't

Scale Internal Consistency Reliabilities: Cronbach's Alphas

Scale	High School Sample	University Sample
Self-Efficacy Scales		
Academic Self-Efficacy	.91	.89
Dating Self-Efficacy	.87	.83
General Self-Efficacy	.90	.89
Physical Self-Efficacy	.81	.83
Social Self-Efficacy	.65	.74

of the participants endorsed some of the most extreme items (i.e., used knife or gun against date, burned or scalded date, date used knife or gun, used force to make date have oral/anal sex, had broken bone from fight with date, date passed out from being hit on head, and date had broken bone from fight).

Given the problems of poor internal consistency for many of the total and subscales of this measure, none of the scales with alphas lower than .70 were used in any statistical analyses. As a result, the relationship between total sexual coercion victimization and perpetration and all other variables could not be assessed for the university student sample. Given that the severe sexual coercion victimization scale did show adequate internal consistency for the sample of young women in university (e.g., Cronbach's alpha was .89 for the severe sexual coercion victimization scale for this subsample of participants), this scale was used in all subsequent analyses rather than the total sexual coercion scale. For the young men in university, however, none reported experiencing any severe sexual coercion victimization. Thus, it was not possible to ascertain if there were any relationships between any forms of sexual coercion and any other variables for the young men in university.

Family violence and community violence scales. In regard to the family violence scales (i.e., violence between parents and by parents towards the participant), good internal consistencies were found for both samples. For the high school sample, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .88 to .94. The equivalent statistics for the university sample were slightly lower ranging from .78 to .87. Similarly high levels of internal consistency were found for the community violence scales. The Cronbach's alphas

ranged from .83 to .91 for the high school sample. Once again, the equivalent statistics for the university sample were only somewhat lower falling between .71 and .81.

Self-efficacy scales. For the self-efficacy scales, the pattern of findings regarding internal consistency were similar to the findings for the other scales. Overall, the scales completed by the high school students had slightly higher Cronbach's alphas for all but one scale (range .65 to .91). For the university sample, the range of the Cronbach's alphas was .74 to .89. For both samples, the scale with the lowest alpha, social self-efficacy, had considerably fewer items than the other self-efficacy scales (i.e., 6 items compared to 17 to 22 items).

In addition to the internal consistency analyses, further statistics were computed for the dating self-efficacy scale. A principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed on this scale which included both the high school and university samples. The samples were pooled together given Comrey and Lee's (1992) recommendation of a minimum of 300 subjects for such an analysis. In order to ensure the factorability of the scale, several preliminary tests were done. First, a correlation matrix of the scale items was computed to ensure numerous pairs were significant and exceeded .30. Second, an anti-image matrix correlation was created to confirm that mostly small values among the off-diagonal elements of the anti-image matrix correlation were found. Last, Kaiser's measure of sampling adequacy was conducted and found to be .78, and therefore above the required value of .60 showing that the necessary preliminary requirements needed to ensure the factorability of the scale were met.

Based on the results of the scree plot, two factors were extracted. Using a level of

.45 for inclusion of a variable in the interpretation of a factor (as suggested by Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), 11 of 28 variables did not load on any factor. These were items: 1, 4, 5, 9, 13, 14, 16, 18, 21, 22, and 23. All proposed subscales (e.g., *Securing Dates, Skill at Dating, Terminating a Date/ Relationship,* and *Access to Supports*) except for *Protecting Self from Dating Violence* contained at least one item that did not load on any factor. Loading of variables on factors and percents of variance are shown in Table 5. This two factor solution was able to account for 28% of the cumulative variance.

Factor 1 contained all of the items from the initially proposed subscale called *Protecting Self from Dating Violence.* In addition, it contained one variable from the proposed subscale called *Access to Supports* (i.e., item 27: "If I experienced dating violence, I would not be able to turn to my family for support") and one variable from the proposed scale called *Terminating a Date/ Relationship* (i.e., item 10: "I cannot easily let my date know when I want the date to end"). Overall, this factor can still be reasonably described as *Protecting from Dating Violence* given the two additional items that tap into that concept.

Factor 2 contained four items from the proposed subscale called *Securing Dates* and four from the proposed subscale called *Terminating a Date.* In addition, it included one from the proposed subscale called *Skill at Dating* (i.e., "I often worry that my date will not like me"). Given the pattern of items that loaded on factor 2, it was called *Dating Skills.*

The factor analysis provided important information regarding the structure of the Dating Self-Efficacy scale. All subsequent analyses used the two factors separately rather

Table 5

Factor Analysis for Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

Variable Number	Variable	Factor Loadings Factor 1	Factor 2
1	I have a difficult time accepting when a person no longer wants to date me	.37	.10
2	If my date called me names or became disrespectful, I would not know how to handle the situation	**.56**	.08
3[R]	It is easy for me to get a date when I want one	.06	**.74**
4	I do not find it easy making conversation on a date	.40	.41
5[R]	If I experienced dating violence, I would be able to turn to my friends for support	.33	.19
6	When my dating relationships come to an end, my dating partner is typically the one who chooses to end the relationship	.02	**.63**
7[R]	I feel confident in my ability to protect myself if my date became physically aggressive with me	**.59**	-.11
8[R]	I have an easy time meeting people that I might be interested in dating	.19	**.47**

(table continues)

Table 5 con't

Factor Analysis for Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

Variable Number	Variable	Factor Loadings Factor 1	Factor 2
9	If I experienced dating violence, I would not utilize community resources	.37	.15
10	I cannot easily let my date know when I want the date to end	**.45**	.24
11[R]	I feel confident in my ability to protect myself if my date became verbally threatening	**.67**	.08
12[R]	When my dating relationships come to an end, I am typically the one who chooses to end the relationship	-.12	**.62**
13	I often feel uncomfortable during a date	.39	.35
14[R]	I do not find it embarrassing when I am asked for a date	.14	.25
15	Dates frequently end before I want them to	.12	**.49**
16[R]	If I experienced dating violence, I would utilize on-campus resources	.34	.04
17	I often worry that my date will not like me	.34	**.49**
18[R]	I do not have difficulty ending a dating relationship	.31	.31
19	If my date made unwanted sexual advances, I would have difficulty letting my date know that I was not interested	**.45**	.12

(table continues)

Table 5 con't

Factor Analysis for Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

Variable Number	Variable	Factor Loadings Factor 1	Factor 2
20	People do not approach me for dates very often	.02	**.75**
21[R]	I am good at planning activities for a date	.38	.24
22	If someone I was not interested in asked me for a date, I would find it difficult to say no	.33	.19
23[R]	I can tell when my date is enjoying himself/herself	.38	.27
24	If my date became sexually aggressive, I would have a difficult time protecting myself	**.63**	-.02
25	In general, I have a hard time asking someone I am interested in for a date	.26	**.53**
26[R]	My dating relationships typically last as long as I want them to	.16	**.47**
27	If I experienced dating violence, I would not be able to turn to my family for support	**.45**	.21
28[R]	I know how to make sure I stay safe on dates	**.54**	.04

Factor 1: Protection from dating violence *14.24% of variance explained*

Factor 2: Dating Skills *13.98% of variance explained*

Note. [R] = item score reversed so that higher scores always indicated greater dating self-efficacy.

than the scale as a whole. There were two reasons for this decision. First, some different results were found for the correlations examining the six measured forms of dating violence (i.e., including the victimization and perpetration of psychological aggression, physical aggression, and sexual coercion) and dating self-efficacy using the entire scale and the two factors separately. For example, the second factor showed a significant correlation with psychological aggression perpetration for young women in university. In contrast, the scale as a whole was not significantly correlated with any form of dating violence for young women in university. Thus, the two factors provided a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between dating violence and dating self-efficacy in these particular variables and in other analyses computed. Second, there was only a slight drop in the internal consistencies of the two factors compared to the scale as a whole. The Cronbach's alphas for the high school sample were as follows: Factor 1: .73; Factor 2: .77; Total scale: .87. For the university sample, the following Cronbach's alphas resulted: Factor 1: .71; Factor 2: .79; Total scale: .83. Thus, the Cronbach's alphas for the two factors still resulted in high levels of internal consistency.

Main Analyses

Hypothesis 1: Prevalence of Dating Violence

Approximately 20% to 30% of this adolescent sample was expected to have experienced some form of physical dating violence given published findings for similar samples. In addition, more adolescents were expected to have experienced psychological aggression than physical forms of dating violence such as physical or sexual assault. Some gender differences in perpetration and victimization were anticipated. More young

men were expected to perpetrate sexual dating violence than young women and more young women were anticipated to be victims of sexual dating violence than young men. In addition, more young women than young men were expected to have suffered a physical injury with the most extreme differences anticipated at the severe injury level. Partial support for these hypotheses was found, particularly in regard to rates of physical dating violence among university students and rates of psychological aggression exceeding physical forms of dating violence.

High school sample. In the sample of high school students, the majority of participants had some experiences with dating violence. In regard to the perpetration of psychological aggression, 94.1% of female high school students and 91.9% of male high school students reported perpetrating at least one incident of psychological aggression (see Table 6 for prevalence rates of individual scale items). Similarly high levels of psychological aggression victimization were reported by this sample of high school students (see Table 7). Almost every female high school student (97.1%) reported being a victim of psychological aggression while a large majority of high school males (86.5%) also reported this form of victimization. No significant gender differences were found for rates of psychological perpetration or victimization for the composite scales (i.e., minor, severe or any psychological aggression). In order to reduce the risk of a type I error, individual item analyses by gender were not performed. All chi square analyses were performed on composite scales of the CTS2.

A high prevalence rate of physical dating violence perpetration was also found. Of the young women, nearly three-quarters reported perpetrating physical violence

Table 6

High School Sample: Psychological Aggression Perpetration Experiences

CTS Item	Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P
MINOR PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Insulted or swore at date	27	79.4%	21	56.8%
Shouted or yelled at date	24	72.7%	24	63.2%
Stomped out of the room or house or yard during disagreement	25	75.8%	26	68.4%
Did something to spite date	21	63.6%	15	39.5%
Any minor psychological aggression perpetration	*32*	*94.1%*	*34*	*91.9%*
SEVERE PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Called date fat or ugly	7	21.2%	10	26.3%
Destroyed something belonging to date	14	42.4%	15	39.5%
Accused date of being a lousy lover	8	24.2%	10	26.3%
Threatened to hit or throw something at date	11	33.3%	6	15.8%
Any severe psychological aggression perpetration	*23*	*69.7%*	*20*	*52.6%*
Any psychological aggression perpetration	***32***	***94.1%***	***34***	***91.9%***

Table 7

High School Sample: Psychological Aggression Victimization Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Insulted or sworn at by date	27	79.4%	25	67.6%
Shouted or yelled at by date	24	72.7%	20	54.1%
Date stomped out of the room or house or yard during disagreement	26	78.8%	20	52.6%
Date did something to spite	20	60.6%	13	34.2%
Any minor psychological victimization	*33*	*97.1%*	*30*	*81.1%*
SEVERE PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Called fat or ugly by date	14	42.4%	9	23.7%
Had something destroyed by date	16	48.5%	11	29.7%
Accused of being a lousy lover by date	12	36.4%	10	26.3%
Date threatened to hit or throw something at	8	24.2%	5	13.2%
Any severe psychological victimization	*23*	*69.7%*	*17*	*44.7%*
Any psychological victimization	***33***	***97.1%***	***32***	***86.5%***

compared to one-half of the young men (see Table 8). Additionally, significantly more young women reported perpetrating severe physical aggression ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 6.42$, $p < .01$) than young males.

The reported rates of overall physical aggression victimization were similar to reported perpetration rates. In terms of victimization, 70.6% of the young women and 51.4% of the young men reported being a victim of some form of physical aggression (see Table 9). There were no significant gender differences found for the composite physical aggression victimization scales.

Experiencing an injury from dating violence was a common experience for these high school students. Of the young women, 44.1% reported being a victim of injury compared to 35.1% of the young men (see Table 10). In regard to perpetration, 23.5% of the young women and 24.3% of the young men reported ever inflicting an injury against a dating partner. These rates were not significantly different. Similarly, there were no significant gender differences in injury when the sample studied was limited to those youths with experiences with physical dating violence.

Similarly high rates of sexual coercion perpetration and victimization were reported in the high school sample. Forty-two percent of the young women and fifty percent of young men reported perpetrating sexual coercion during their dating experiences (see Table 11). Over two-thirds of the young women and just over one-half of the young men reported being a victim of any form of sexual coercion (see Table 12). Once again, no significant gender differences were found for sexual perpetration or victimization; however, it was not possible to conduct a chi square analysis comparing

Table 8

High School Sample: Physical Aggression Perpetration Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR PHYSICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Threw something at date that could hurt	12	35.3%	7	18.9%
Twisted date's arm or hair	8	23.5%	4	11.1%
Pushed or shoved date	20	60.6%	10	27.0%
Grabbed date	17	51.5%	13	34.2%
Slapped date	16	48.5%	5	13.2%
Any minor physical aggression perpetration	*25*	*73.5%*	*18*	*50.0%*
SEVERE PHYSICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Used a knife or gun on date	2	6.1%	3	7.9%
Punched or hit date with something that could hurt	7	21.2%	3	7.9%
Choked date	3	9.1%	4	10.5%
Slammed date against a wall	4	12.1%	5	13.2%
Beat up date	2	6.1%	3	7.9%
Burned or scalded date on purpose	0	0%	3	7.9%
Kicked date	10	30.3%	4	10.5%
Any severe physical aggression perpetration	*13*	*39.4%**	*5*	*13.2%*
Any physical aggression perpetration	***25***	***73.5%***	***18***	***50.0%***

Note. * = significant gender differences ($p < .01$).

Table 9

High School Sample: Physical Aggression Victimization Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR PHYSICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Date threw something that could hurt	15	44.1%	10	27.0%
Date twisted arm or hair	14	41.2%	8	22.2%
Date pushed or shoved	17	51.5%	11	29.7%
Grabbed by date	19	57.6%	12	31.6%
Slapped by date	10	30.3%	11	28.9%
Any minor physical aggression victimization	*24*	*70.6%*	*19*	*51.4%*
SEVERE PHYSICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Date used a knife or gun	2	6.1%	2	5.3%
Date punched or hit with something that could hurt	8	24.2%	5	13.2%
Choked by date	7	21.2%	4	10.5%
Slammed by date against a wall	16	48.5%	7	18.4%
Beat up by date	7	21.2%	2	5.3%
Purposely burned or scalded by date	3	9.1%	3	7.9%
Kicked by date	6	18.2%	5	13.2%
Any severe physical aggression victimization	*17*	*51.5%*	*8*	*21.1%*
Any physical aggression victimization	***24***	***70.6%***	***19***	***51.4%***

Table 10

High School Sample: Injury Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
INJURY: PERPETRATOR				
Date had sprain, bruise, or small cut because of fight	7	20.6%	6	16.2%
Date felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of fight	3	9.1%	6	15.8%
Date passed out from being hit on head	1	3.0%	3	7.9%
Date went to doctor because of fight	0	0%	3	7.9%
Date needed to see doctor because of fight, but didn't	0	0%	3	7.9%
Date had a broken bone from a fight	1	3.0%	2	5.3%
Perpetrator of any injuries	***8***	***23.5%***	***9***	***24.3%***
INJURY: VICTIM				
Had sprain, bruise, or small cut because of fight	10	29.4%	8	21.6%
Felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of fight with date	14	42.4%	8	21.1%
Passed out from being hit on head by date	3	9.1%	3	7.9%
Went to doctor because of fight with date	2	6.1%	3	7.9%
Needed to see doctor because of fight with date, but didn't	4	12.1%	2	5.3%
Had broken bone from fight with date	1	3.0%	1	2.6%
Victim of any injuries	***15***	***44.1%***	***13***	***35.1%***

Table 11

High School Sample: Sexual Coercion Perpetration Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR SEXUAL COERCION PERPETRATION				
Made date have sex without a condom	8	24.2%	14	36.8%
Insisted on sex when date did not want to (but did not use physical force)	9	27.3%	13	34.2%
Insisted date have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force)	5	15.2%	9	23.7%
Any minor sexual coercion perpetration	*14*	*42.4%*	*19*	*50.0%*
SEVERE SEXUAL COERCION PERPETRATION				
Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to make date have oral or anal sex	0	0%	2	5.3%
Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to make date have sex	1	3.0%	4	10.5%
Used threats to make date have oral or anal sex	0	0%	4	10.5%
Used threats to make my date have sex	1	3.0%	3	7.9%
Any severe sexual coercion perpetration	*2*	*6.1%*	*5*	*13.2%*
Any sexual coercion perpetration	***14***	***42.4%***	***19***	***50.0%***

Table 12

High School Sample: Sexual Coercion Victimization Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR SEXUAL COERCION VICTIMIZATION				
Date made have sex without a condom	14	42.4%	14	36.8%
Date insisted on sex when did not want to (but did not use physical force)	19	57.6%	17	44.7%
Date made have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force)	15	45.5%	9	23.7%
Any minor sexual coercion victimization	*23*	*69.7%*	*21*	*55.3%*
SEVERE SEXUAL COERCION VICTIMIZATION				
Date used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to have oral or anal sex	7	21.2%	4	10.5%
Date used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to have sex	6	18.2%	4	10.5%
Date used threats to have oral or anal sex	4	12.1%	4	10.5%
Date used threats to have sex	5	15.2%	3	7.9%
Any severe sexual coercion victimization	*12*	*36.4%*	*5*	*13.2%*
Any sexual coercion victimization	***23***	***69.7%***	***21***	***55.3%***

the perpetration of major sexual coercion by gender given the limited number of young women from high school with such experiences.

University sample. Similar to the high school sample, the majority of participants from the university sample had some experiences with dating violence, although overall fewer of these students had experienced violence compared to the high school sample. In regard to the perpetration of psychological aggression, the same percentage (84.8%) of young men and women reported such experiences (see Table 13). High levels of psychological aggression victimization were also found in the university sample. Almost four-fifths of the young women and the vast majority (90.1%) of the young men reported having experienced some form of psychological victimization (see Table 14). There were no significant gender differences found for any form of psychological victimization or perpetration at the composite level where analyses were possible. Given the poor internal consistency of the severe psychological aggression perpetration and victimization scales, chi square analyses were not performed on these scales.

In regard to physical aggression perpetration, over one-third of the university sample reported such experiences. More specifically, 38.7% of the young women and 38.2% of the young men reported perpetrating some form of physical aggression (see Table 15). Rates of physical aggression victimization were similar to rates of perpetration in this sample. Almost one-third of the young women and under one-half (39.4%) of the young men reported being a victim of some form of physical aggression (see Table 16). No significant gender differences in physical aggression perpetration or victimization were found in the chi square analyses that were performed. Due to the low

Table 13

University Sample: Psychological Aggression Perpetration Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Insulted or swore at date	107	65.2%	20	60.6%
Shouted or yelled at date	109	66.5%	20	60.6%
Stomped out of the room or house or yard during disagreement	102	62.2%	18	54.5%
Did something to spite date	101	61.6%	18	54.5%
Any minor psychological aggression perpetration	*139*	*84.8%*	*28*	*84.8%*
SEVERE PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Called date fat or ugly	11	6.7%	6	18.2%
Destroyed something belonging to date	24	14.6%	6	18.2%
Accused date of being a lousy lover	21	12.8%	4	12.1%
Threatened to hit or throw something at date	7	4.3%	1	3.0%
Any severe psychological aggression perpetration	*45*	*27.4%*	*12*	*36.4%*
Any psychological aggression perpetration	***139***	***84.8%***	***28***	***84.8%***

Table 14

University Sample: Psychological Aggression Victimization Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Insulted or sworn at by date	83	50.6%	22	66.7%
Shouted or yelled at by date	99	60.4%	18	54.5%
Date stomped out of the room or house or yard during disagreement	75	45.7%	15	45.5%
Date did something to spite	68	41.7%	18	54.5%
Any minor psychological victimization	*128*	*78.0%*	*30*	*90.9%*
SEVERE PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Called fat or ugly by date	20	12.2%	4	12.1%
Had something destroyed by date	16	9.8%	6	18.2%
Accused of being a lousy lover by date	19	11.6%	4	12.1%
Date threatened to hit or throw something at	6	3.7%	0	0%
Any severe psychological victimization	*46*	*28.0%*	*12*	*36.4%*
Any psychological victimization	***130***	***79.3%***	***30***	***90.9%***

Table 15

University Sample: Physical Aggression Perpetration Experiences

CTS Item	Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P
MINOR PHYSICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Threw something at date that could hurt	14	8.5%	3	9.1%
Twisted date's arm or hair	12	7.3%	1	3.0%
Pushed or shoved date	44	27.0%	10	30.3%
Grabbed date	29	17.7%	11	33.3%
Slapped date	28	17.1%	0	0%
Any minor physical aggression perpetration	*62*	*38.0%*	*13*	*38.2%*
SEVERE PHYSICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION				
Used a knife or gun on date	0	0%	0	0%
Punched or hit date with something that could hurt	8	4.9%	1	3.0%
Choked date	1	0.6%	1	3.0%
Slammed date against a wall	3	1.8%	1	3.0%
Beat up date	1	0.6%	0	0%
Burned or scalded date on purpose	0	0%	0	0%
Kicked date	12	7.3%	1	3.0%
Any severe physical aggression perpetration	*14*	*8.5%*	*3*	*9.1%*
Any physical aggression perpetration	***63***	***38.7%***	***13***	***38.2%***

Table 16

University Sample: Physical Aggression Victimization Experiences

CTS Item	Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P
MINOR PHYSICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Date threw something that could hurt	8	4.9%	4	12.1%
Date twisted arm or hair	15	9.1%	1	3.0%
Date pushed or shoved	28	17.1%	8	24.2%
Grabbed by date	42	25.6%	10	30.3%
Slapped by date	4	2.4%	9	27.3%
Any minor physical aggression victimization	*52*	*31.5%*	*13*	*39.4%*
SEVERE PHYSICAL AGGRESSION VICTIMIZATION				
Date used a knife or gun	0	0%	0	0%
Date punched or hit with something that could hurt	5	3.0%	2	6.1%
Choked by date	1	0.6%	0	0%
Slammed by date against a wall	9	5.5%	1	3.0%
Beat up by date	1	0.6%	0	0%
Purposely burned or scalded by date	3	1.8%	0	0%
Kicked by date	5	3.0%	2	6.1%
Any severe physical aggression victimization	*20*	*12.2%*	*4*	*12.1%*
Any physical aggression victimization	***54***	***32.7%***	***13***	***39.4%***

Cronbach's alphas for the severe physical aggression perpetration and victimization scales, statistical comparisons by gender were not conducted.

The experience of injury due to dating violence was relatively uncommon in the university sample: 13.4% of young women and 9.1% of young men reported being a victim of injury (see Table 17). Similarly, 7.9% of young women and 9.1% of young men admitted causing injury to their dating partners. Given the poor internal consistency of the injury scales for the university sample, analyses by gender were not performed.

In regard to sexual dating violence, 15.9% of young women and 42.4% of young men reported perpetrating at least one form of sexual coercion (see Table 18). With respect to sexual coercion victimization, 38% of young women and 42.4% of young men reported having such experiences (see Table 19). Given concerns regarding internal consistency (i.e., of the sexual coercion scales only the severe sexual coercion victimization scale had a Cronbach's alpha above .70) and the limited number of participants reporting certain sexual coercion experiences (e.g., no young men in university reported being a victim of severe sexual coercion), it was not possible to test for gender differences in rates of sexual coercion perpetration or victimization.

Sample comparison. With respect to the hypotheses regarding the prevalence of dating violence, the findings were mixed. First, the level of physical dating violence greatly exceeded expectations within the high school sample. Within the university sample the rates were as anticipated (in the 30% range), although towards the higher end.

Although overall rates of perpetration and victimization were higher for the high school sample than the university sample for all forms of dating violence, similar patterns

Table 17

University Sample: Injury Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
INJURY: PERPETRATOR				
Date had sprain, bruise, or small cut because of fight	9	5.5%	3	9.1%
Date felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of fight	5	3.0%	2	6.1%
Date passed out from being hit on head	0	0%	0	0%
Date went to doctor because of fight	1	0.6%	0	0%
Date needed to see doctor because of fight, but didn't	1	0.6%	0	0%
Date had a broken bone from a fight	0	0%	0	0%
Perpetrator of any injuries	***13***	***7.9%***	***3***	***9.1%***
INJURY: VICTIM				
Had sprain, bruise, or small cut because of fight	16	9.8%	3	9.1%
Felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of fight with date	8	4.9%	1	3.0%
Passed out from being hit on head by date	1	0.6%	0	0%
Went to doctor because of fight with date	2	1.2%	0	0%
Needed to see doctor because of fight with date, but didn't	2	1.2%	0	0%
Had broken bone from fight with date	0	0 %	0	0%
Victim of any injuries	***22***	***13.4%***	***3***	***9.1%***

Table 18

University Sample: Sexual Coercion Perpetration Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR SEXUAL COERCION PERPETRATION				
Made date have sex without a condom	18	11.0%	5	15.2%
Insisted on sex when date did not want to (but did not use physical force)	10	6.1%	9	27.3%
Insisted date have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force)	6	3.7%	8	24.2%
Any minor sexual coercion perpetration	*25*	*15.2%*	*14*	*42.4%*
SEVERE SEXUAL COERCION PERPETRATION				
Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to make date have oral or anal sex	0	0%	0	0%
Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to make date have sex	1	0.6%	0	0%
Used threats to make date have oral or anal sex	1	0.6%	0	0%
Used threats to make my date have sex	1	0.6%	1	3.0%
Any severe sexual coercion perpetration	*1*	*0.6%*	*1*	*3.0%*
Any sexual coercion perpetration	***26***	***15.9%***	***14***	***42.4%***

Table 19

University Sample: Sexual Coercion Victimization Experiences

CTS Item	Females n	Females P	Males n	Males P
MINOR SEXUAL COERCION VICTIMIZATION				
Date made have sex without a condom	25	15.2%	9	27.3%
Date insisted on sex when did not want to (but did not use physical force)	43	26.4%	10	30.3%
Date made have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force)	28	17.1%	3	9.1%
Any minor sexual coercion victimization	*61*	*37.4%*	*14*	*42.4%*
SEVERE SEXUAL COERCION VICTIMIZATION				
Date used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to have oral or anal sex	4	2.4%	0	0%
Date used force (like hitting, holding down, or using weapon) to have sex	6	3.7%	0	0%
Date used threats to have oral or anal sex	3	1.8%	0	0%
Date used threats to have sex	4	2.4%	0	0%
Any severe sexual coercion victimization	*9*	*5.5%*	*0*	*0%*
Any sexual coercion victimization	***62***	***38.0%***	***14***	***42.4%***

of findings existed between the two samples. As expected, for both groups, psychological aggression exceeded all other forms of dating violence. Similarly, in both samples, the prevalence rates for all forms of minor aggression (i.e., psychological, physical, and sexual) exceeded the prevalence rates for all forms of severe aggression for both perpetration and victimization.

Against expected results, there were no significant gender difference in physical injury or sexual coercion for either victimization or perpetration for the high school sample. These relationships were not testable for the university sample given the problems with the psychometric properties of many of the scales.

Hypothesis 2: Relationships Between Victim and Perpetrator Status

The majority of adolescents involved in dating violence were expected to be both victims and perpetrators of violence rather than only victims or only perpetrators. It was not possible to statistically test this hypothesis for the high school students and the young men in university. In each of these groups, there was less than the required five cases per cell. Accordingly, only descriptive information will be presented.

High school females. In regard to psychological aggression, thirty-two young women (97% of those with any psychological aggression experiences) were both victims and perpetrators of psychological aggression compared to one (3%) participant who was a victim only. None of these adolescent females reported being a perpetrator of psychological aggression without also being a victim of it. A similar pattern was found for physical dating violence. In total, 22 young women (81.5% of those with any physical aggression experiences) were both victims and perpetrators of physical aggression,

compared to three (11.1%) who were perpetrators only and two (7.4%) who were victims only. A different pattern emerged in regard to sexual coercion victimization. Fourteen young women (60.9% of those with any sexual coercion experiences) reported being both victims and perpetrators of sexual coercion. Nine (39.1%) young women reported being only victims of this form of dating violence. None of these young women reported being a perpetrator of sexual violence without also being a victim of it.

High school males. Thirty-one of the young men (88.6% of those with any psychological aggression experiences) were victims and perpetrators of psychological violence in contrast to three (8.6%) who were perpetrators only and one (2.9%) who was a victim only. In regard to physical aggression, 16 young men (80% of those with any physical aggression experiences) were both victims and perpetrators compared to only two (10%) who were perpetrators only and two (10%) who were victims only. Finally, in regard to sexual coercion, 16 of the young men (66.7% of those with any sexual coercion experiences) reporting being both victims and perpetrators of this form of violence. In comparison, only three (12.5%) young men were perpetrators only and five (20.5%) were victims only.

University females. One hundred and twenty-four young women in university (86.1% of those with any psychological aggression experiences) reported being both perpetrators and victims of psychological aggression. This compares to 14 young women (9.7%) who reported being a perpetrator only and six (4.2%) who stated that they were victims only. A similar pattern of findings emerged for physical violence. For this form of violence, 49 young women (72.1% of those with any physical aggression experiences)

reported being both victims and perpetrators. Fourteen young women (20.6%) reported being perpetrators only and five (7.4%) were victims only. A dramatically different pattern was found for sexual coercion. Of the 67 female university students who had some experiences with sexual coercion, forty-one (61.2% of those with any sexual coercion experiences) were victims only. This compares to 21 (31.3%) who were both victims and perpetrators and five (7.5%) who were perpetrators only.

University males. Of the university males who had experience with psychological aggression, 12 (85.7%) reported being both perpetrators and victims of dating violence, compared to two (0.7%) who were victims only. No young men reporting being a perpetrator of psychological aggression without also being a victim of it. In regard to physical violence, 12 young men (85.7% of those with any physical aggression experiences) reported being both victims and perpetrators compared to only one (7.1%) who was a victim only and one who was a perpetrator only. A very similar pattern of emerged regarding sexual coercion. Twelve young men (75% of those with sexual coercion experiences) reported being both victims and perpetrators. In comparison, only two (12.5%) reported being victims only and two (12.5%) were perpetrators only.

Sample comparison. The pattern of findings regarding victim and perpetrator status were very similar for the two samples. For all groups (i.e., high school females, high school males, university females, and university males), a larger frequency of participants reported being both perpetrators and victims of psychological and physical dating violence than perpetrators only or victims only. Differences emerged in regard to sexual coercion. For the high school students and the young men in university, a larger

percentage of participants reported being both victims and perpetrators of sexual coercion than victims only or perpetrators only similar to the findings for the other forms of dating violence. In contrast, more young women reported being victims of sexual coercion than both victims and perpetrators or perpetrators only.

Hypothesis 3: Relationships between Injury and Physical Aggression

Adolescents who experienced high levels of physical violence were expected to sustain significantly more injuries than adolescents who experienced low levels of physical violence.

High school students. The relationship between reported levels of physical aggression perpetration and levels of injury perpetration was non-significant for high school females ($r = .43$, ns; $n = 33$). In contrast, a very strong relationship was found between physical aggression victimization and injury victimization for the young women in high school ($r = .93$, $p < .01$; $n = 33$). Thus, these high school females were more likely to be injured when a victim of aggression than to cause injury when acting aggressively to a dating partner.

The pattern of findings between injury and physical aggression for high school males differed from that of their female counterparts. A very strong correlation was found between high school males' physical aggression perpetration and levels of injury perpetration ($r = .96$, $p < .01$; $n = 35$). Physical aggression victimization and injury victimization were also significantly correlated ($r = .78$, $p < .01$; $n = 35$). Therefore, for these young men, the more aggressive they were in relationships the greater the likelihood of causing injury to their date. Similarly, the more aggressive their date, the stronger their

potential of receiving an injury.

University students. Given the poor internal consistency of the injury perpetration and victimization scales for the university students, correlations examining the relationship between injury and physical aggression were not conducted.

Hypothesis 4: Relationships between Injury and Number of Physically Aggressive Relationships

For the high school females who reported the number of relationships in which they had been a victim of physical aggression (n = 15), the average number of relationships where such victimization had occurred was 2.07 (SD = 1.79, range = 7, median = 1). Of the eight high school males who indicated the number of relationships in which they suffered physical victimization, the average number of relationships where this occurred was 1.05 (SD = 0.76, range = 2, median = 1). The vast majority (93.5%) of the 31 university females who reported the number of relationships in which they were a victim of physical aggression reported being a victim in only one relationship. The other 6.5% (n = 2) of these adolescents were victimized physically in two relationships. Of the six university males who reported the number of relationships in which they were a victim of physical aggression, most (83.3%, n = 5) reported being a victim in only one relationship. The remaining 16.7% (n = 1) of the young men had been physically victimized in two relationships.

Given the low frequency of participants who had experienced dating violence in more than one relationship, it was not possible to test for a relationship between injury and number of physically aggressive relationships for university students or high school

males. Although the sample size was still very small, the relationship between injury and number of violent relationships was testable for high school females. Given the skewed distribution of the number of physically aggressive relationships within the sample of adolescent females, this variable was dichotomized into having one violent partner or more than one violent partner. The chi square analysis showed no significant difference between injury scores and number of aggressive partners for these young women ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.80, p < .07$). Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

Correlations between Forms of Dating Violence

High school females. For high school females, the majority of subscales from the dating violence measure shared significant positive correlations (see Table 20). Psychological aggression perpetration scores were correlated with all other dating violence scores except sexual coercion victimization and perpetration in this group of young women. Psychological aggression victimization and physical aggression victimization scores were correlated with all other dating violence scores except sexual perpetration. All dating violence scores were correlated with physical aggression perpetration except for sexual victimization scores. Finally, sexual coercion victimization and perpetration scores were not significantly correlated for high school females.

High school males. Within the sample of high school males, all dating violence scales were positively correlated (see Table 20). In other words, psychological, physical, and sexual dating violence scale scores, including both victimization and perpetration,

Table 20

High School Sample: Intercorrelations of CTS2 Subscales

	PerpPsyc	PerpPhy	PerpSex	VicPsyc	VicPhy	VicSex
			Females (n = 32 - 33)			
PerpPsyc	--	.68*	.37	.71*	.46*	.28
PerpPhy		--	.48*	.57*	.54*	.24
PerpSex			--	.39	.27	.36
VicPsyc				--	.85*	.61*
VicPhy					--	.68*
VicSex						--
			Males (n = 33 - 38)			
PerpPsyc	--	.61*	.74*	.80*	.76*	.67*
PerpPhy		--	.88*	.64*	.88*	.86*
PerpSex			--	.61*	.79*	.90*
VicPsyc				--	.83*	.63*
VicPhy					--	.82*
VicSex						--

Note. PerpPsyc = perpetration of psychological aggression; PerpPhy = perpetration of physical aggression; PerpSex = perpetration of sexual coercion; VicPsyc = victim of psychological aggression; VicPhy = victim of physical aggression; VicSex = victim of sexual aggression.

* $p < .01$.

were all significantly correlated.

University students. Given the low Cronbach's alphas for the sexual coercion scales, they were excluded from the analyses. Significant relationships were found between all forms of psychological and physical aggression for the young women university students (see Table 21). Similarly for the young men in university, all forms of psychological and physical aggression were significantly correlated.

Sample comparison. Across all samples, the majority of subscales from the CTS2 were significantly correlated. The sample of young women in high school had the fewest number of significant correlations between forms of dating violence whereas the young men in high school had the greatest number of significant correlations. Sexual coercion perpetration and victimization were the only variables that were not significantly correlated with every other form of dating violence across the different samples.

Characteristics Associated with Dating Violence Perpetration

For the high school sample, all forms of dating violence perpetration measured (i.e., psychological aggression, physical aggression, and sexual coercion perpetration) were used in the following statistical analyses. Given the low internal consistency of the sexual coercion perpetration scale for the university sample, it was excluded from all analyses. As a result, only the psychological and physical aggression perpetration scales were used in the statistical analyses conducted for the university sample.

Hypothesis 5: Relationship between dating violence perpetration and demographic variables.

The perpetration of all forms of dating violence were unrelated to all demographic

Table 21

University Sample: Intercorrelations of CTS2 Subscales

	PerpPsyc	PerpPhy	VicPsyc	VicPhy
		Females (n = 162 - 164)		
PerpPsyc	--	.62*	.86*	.58*
PerpPhy		--	.50*	.66*
VicPsyc			--	.59*
VicPhy				--
		Males (n = 33)		
PerpPsyc	--	.64*	.98*	.69*
PerpPhy		--	.60*	.96*
VicPsyc			--	.67*
VicPhy				--

Note. PerpPsyc = perpetration of psychological aggression; PerpPhy = perpetration of physical aggression; VicPsyc = victim of psychological aggression; VicPhy = victim of physical aggression.

* $p < .01$.

variables, across all four participant groups, for those variables that were testable. Thus age, parental socio-economic status, parental marital status[1], and living arrangements[2] were all unrelated to dating violence perpetration (see Tables 22 – 24). Ethnic background was unrelated to dating violence perpetration for young women in university. Given the lack of ethnic diversity among the participants in the high school and university male samples, it was not possible to test for a relationship between ethnic background and other variables. As most demographic factors were expected to be unrelated to dating violence perpetration, these findings support all but one hypothesis. Age was expected to be positively correlated with dating violence perpetration, however, this was not found.

Hypothesis 6: Relationship between dating violence perpetration and other forms of violence outside of dating relationships.

HIGH SCHOOL FEMALES

Two variables measuring other forms of violence outside of dating relationships were found to be significantly related to dating violence perpetration for high school females. In regard to psychological aggression perpetration, experiencing physical abuse by fathers was significantly correlated in the expected direction ($r = .54$, $p < .01$). In addition, physical aggression perpetration was significantly correlated with being a perpetrator of community violence for this sample of young women ($r = .59$, $p < .001$).

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[1] In the sample of university males, 30 had married parents, 5 had divorced parents, and 2 had parents who never married. Thus, given the small number who had parents that were not married it was not possible to test the relationship between dating violence and parental marital status in this group.

[2] For young men in university, 33 lived with both parents, 1 lived with one parent and one step-parent and 3 lived in single parent families for the majority of time before age 18. Thus, given the small number who experienced a living situation outside of living with both parents, it was not possible to test the relationship between living arrangements and dating violence in this sample of young men.

Table 22

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Demographic Variables

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	High School Females (n = 16 – 32)		
Age	.32	.04	.15
Maternal S.E.S.	-.20	-.38	.11
Paternal S.E.S.	.30	.32	.00
	High School Males (n = 24 –38)		
Age	-.13	-.03	.04
Maternal S.E.S.	-.41	-.20	-.30
Paternal S.E.S.	-.32	-.09	.05
	University Females (n = 134 – 163)		
Age	.01	-.02	
Maternal S.E.S.	-.02	-.13	
Paternal S.E.S.	.00	.01	
	University Males (n = 27 – 33)		
Age	.13	.28	
Maternal S.E.S.	.10	.09	
Paternal S.E.S.	.08	-.28	

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 23

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Demographic Variables for High School Students

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	Females (n = 21 –22)								
Parental Marital Status									
Married	12.1	11.2	.18	5.1	6.2	-.59	1.8	4.6	-.06
Divorced	11.5	6.0		6.9	6.8		1.9	2.4	
Living Arrangements									
2 parent family[a]	12.0	10.1	.36	4.7	5.6	-.85	1.5	4.1	-.17
Single parent family	10.8	6.0		6.8	5.7		1.8	2.7	
	Males (n = 24 – 26)								
Parental Marital Status									
Married	6.9	5.8	-.71	4.7	5.6	-.44	3.3	5.2	-.76
Divorced	9.2	8.0		6.8	5.7		6.2	9.6	
Living Arrangements									
2 parent family[a]	6.9	8.8	-1.40	3.2	6.6	-.61	2.9	5.4	-1.19
Single parent family	11.5	7.7		5.3	10.2		6.5	9.9	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Defined as two biological and/or adoptive parents.

Table 24

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Demographic Variables for University Females

	Psychological			Physical		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	Females (n = 152 – 154)					
Parental Marital Status						
Married	6.5	5.5	-1.57	1.7	3.2	-0.89
Divorced	8.3	7.0		2.3	4.9	
Race						
Caucasian	6.9	5.7	-0.97	1.6	2.9	-1.15[a]
Asian	8.4	7.4		3.6	7.2	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Equal variances not assumed.

Physical abuse by mothers, witnessing any form of spousal abuse and witnessing or being a victim of community violence were unrelated to all forms of dating violence perpetration (see Tables 25 and 26).

HIGH SCHOOL MALES

The majority of variables measuring other forms of violence outside of dating relationships were significantly related to dating violence perpetration for high school males. Experiencing physical abuse by mothers was significantly related to both physical aggression ($r = .48$, $p < .005$) and sexual coercion perpetration ($r = .43$, $p < .01$). Additionally, all of the community violence variables were related to most forms of perpetration. Specifically, witnessing violence in the community was positively correlated with the perpetration of psychological aggression ($r = .47$, $p < .005$), and sexual coercion ($r = .42$, $p < .01$). Being a victim of community violence was positively correlated with all measured forms of dating violence (i.e., psychological: $r = .65$, $p < .001$; physical: $r = .53$, $p < .005$; sexual: $r = .65$, $p < .001$). Finally, perpetrating community violence was also positively correlated with psychological aggression ($r = .48$, $p < .005$), physical aggression ($r = .45$, $p < .01$), and sexual coercion ($r = .58$, $p < .001$; see Table 25).

UNIVERSITY FEMALES

In this sample of university females, four of the variables measuring other forms of violence outside of dating relationships were found to be significantly related to dating violence perpetration. Specifically, witnessing mother-to-father spousal abuse was positively correlated with the perpetration of psychological and physical aggression

Table 25

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Other Forms of Violence for High School Students

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	Females (n = 27 – 33)		
Abused by Mother	-.12	.05	-.20
Abused by Father	.54*	.30	.29
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	.20	.45	.30
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	.21	.25	.26
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.39	.59**	.24
Com. Vio. Victimization	.03	.19	-.03
Com. Vio. Witness	.26	.18	.06
	Males (n = 30 – 38)		
Abused by Mother	.23	.48*	.43*
Abused by Father	.27	.39	.35
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	.25	-.10	.13
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	.03	-.09	-.08
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.48*	.45*	.58**
Com. Vio. Victimization	.65**	.53*	.65**
Com. Vio. Witness	.47*	.32	.42*

Note. M-F = mother to father; F-M = father to mother; Com. Vio. = community violence.

* $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$.

Table 26

Descriptive Information for the Other Forms of Violence Variables

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Abused by Mother[a]				
M	10.6	4.4	3.0	2.0
SD	13.3	6.2	5.1	1.6
Abused by Father[a]				
M	6.9	6.1	2.2	2.4
SD	8.2	8.5	3.2	2.5
Spousal Abuse (Mother-to-Father)[b]				
M	12.5	7.0	5.1	4.4
SD	14.2	8.0	7.5	7.8
Spousal Abuse (Father-to-Mother)[b]				
M	13.4	9.4	5.3	4.5
SD	14.4	12.3	7.7	5.0

(table continues)

Table 26 con't

Descriptive Information for the Other Forms of Violence Variables

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Community Violence Perpetration[c]				
M	5.2	7.3	2.0	3.4
SD	3.8	6.2	2.1	2.7
Community Violence Victimization[c]				
M	6.0	6.7	2.4	3.7
SD	4.1	5.4	2.9	2.7
Community Violence Witness[c]				
M	12.4	11.6	7.0	8.0
SD	6.1	8.1	3.9	4.0

[a]Possible range 0 – 68. [b]Possible range 0 – 84. [c]Possible range 0 – 32.

($r = .30$, $p < .001$; $r = .38$, $p < .001$, respectively). Similarly, experiencing maternal physical abuse was related to psychological and physical aggression perpetration ($r = .23$, $p < .005$; $r = .32$, $p < .001$, respectively). Finally, witnessing community violence was significantly positively related to both psychological ($r = .25$, $p < .001$) and physical perpetration ($r = .23$, $p < .005$; see Table 27).

UNIVERSITY MALES

Measures of other forms of violence outside of dating relationships did not provide any insight into understanding dating violence for this group of young men. None of these variables were significantly correlated with any form of dating violence perpetration for young men in university (see Table 27).

SAMPLE COMPARISON

It was hypothesized that other forms of violence outside of dating relationships would be related to dating violence perpetration. All of the samples, except for young men in university, had positive links between dating violence perpetration and other forms of violence outside of dating relationships. Thus, partial support for the hypothesis was found. More specifically, paternal physical abuse was only significant for young women in high school. Likewise, witnessing spousal violence was related to dating violence perpetration for young women in university exclusively. Maternal physical abuse was correlated with dating violence perpetration for both young men in high school and young women in university. In contrast, community violence involvement was significant in all three samples. These other forms of violence were related to psychological and physical dating violence perpetration exclusively with one

Table 27

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Other Forms of Violence for University Students

	Psychological	Physical
	Females (n = 159-164)	
Abused by Mother	.23*	.32**
Abused by Father	.03	.05
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	.30**	.38**
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	.20*	.15
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.11	.17
Com. Vio. Victimization	.06	.01
Com. Vio. Witness	.25*	.23*
	Males (n = 31-33)	
Abused by Mother	.19	.13
Abused by Father	.01	.04
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	-.14	-.05
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	-.22	-.04
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.22	.20
Com. Vio. Victimization	.36	.19
Com. Vio. Witness	-.02	-.06

Note. M-F = mother to father; F-M = father to mother; Com. Vio. = community violence.

* $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$.

exception. For young men in high school, they were also related to sexual coercion perpetration.

Hypothesis 7: Relationship between dating violence perpetration and dating history.

HIGH SCHOOL FEMALES

Three characteristics of these young women's dating history were significantly related to their reported levels of dating violence perpetration. In regard to psychological aggression perpetration, age at the time of the first steady dating partner was negatively correlated with this variable ($r = -.50$, $p < .005$). In other words, the younger the young women were when they had their first steady dating partner, the more likely they were to perpetrate psychological aggression against a dating partner over the course of their dating history. Additionally, the length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively correlated with psychological aggression perpetration ($r = .53$, $p < .005$). Moreover, the length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively related to sexual coercion perpetration ($r = .55$, $p < .005$) in this group of adolescent females. Finally, the length of the current steady dating relationship was also positively correlated with sexual coercion perpetration ($r = .60$, $p < .01$). No other examinable dating history variables were found to be related to high school females' dating violence perpetration[3] (see Tables 28 – 30).

[3] It was not possible to test for a relationship between ever having a steady dating partner and perpetration as all of the adolescent females in this sample had reported experiencing at least one steady dating relationship.

Table 28

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Dating History Variables for High School Females

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	(n = 17 – 32)		
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.50*	-.42	-.42
Age at 1st Date	-.29	-.16	-.20
Longest Steady Dating	.52*	.53*	.55*
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	.36	.37	.60*
Frequency of Dating	-.10	-.23	-.25
# of Dating Partners	.24	.03	.02
# of Steady Dating Partners	.21	.26	-.08
Negotiation	.16	.07	.16
Partners' Negotiation	.02	-.06	.17

* $p < .01$.

Table 29

Descriptive Information for the Dating History Variables

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Age at 1st Date				
M	13.0	12.7	14.4	14.6
SD	1.0	1.5	1.8	2.0
Age at 1st Steady Dating Relationship				
M	14.0	13.6	15.6	15.7
SD	1.3	1.9	1.5	1.7
Longest Steady Dating Relationship (in weeks)				
M	44.4	47.7	53.4	63.0
SD	34.7	46.0	44.0	47.5
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship (in weeks)				
M	45.4	45.2	48.4	70.3
SD	41.0	46.8	43.9	53.5
Frequency of Dating				
M[a]	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.5
SD	2.2	1.9	1.8	1.7
Number of Dating Partners				
M[b]	3.1	3.1	2.6	2.5
SD	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9

(table continues)

Table 29 con't

Descriptive Information for the Dating History Variables

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Number of Steady Dating Partners				
M	4.0	4.3	2.6	2.6
SD	2.9	4.4	2.1	2.2
Participants' Negotiation Score				
M^c	23.9	19.9	22.7	24.3
SD	8.3	9.4	7.7	8.9
Participants' Partners' Negotiation Score				
M^c	20.0	20.1	22.0	23.3
SD	8.2	9.4	8.4	9.6

(table continues)

Table 29 con't

Descriptive Information for the Dating History Variables

	High School				University			
	Females		Males		Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P	n	P	n	P
Ever Steady								
Dating Partner	34	100	33	86.8	147	89.6	30	90.9
Current Steady								
Dating Partner	18	52.9	13	46.4	87	53.0	12	36.4
Sexual Orientation								
Heterosexual	24	72.7	38	100	162	98.8	33	100
Bisexual	9	27.2	0	0	1	0.6	0	0
Homosexual	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0

[a]Possible range 1 – 6, where 1 = almost every night and 6 = a few times a year (see Appendix G for a full listing of descriptors). [b]Possible range 1 – 4, where 1 = 1 dating partner and 4 = more than 10 dating partners (see Appendix G for a full listing of descriptors). [c]Possible range 0 – 36.

Table 30

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Dating History Variables for High School Students

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	Females (n = 32 – 33)								
Current Steady Dating									
No	11.7	9.9	-.38	4.8	5.3	-1.64	0.6	1.3	-2.04
Yes	12.8	7.1		8.5	7.3		2.8	3.9	
Sexual Orientation									
Heterosexual	12.3	7.6	.02	7.0	7.1	.25	2.2	3.4	1.03
Bisexual	12.2	10.7		6.3	5.7		0.9	2.7	
	Males (n = 35 – 38)								
Current Steady Dating									
No	6.0	7.7	-2.49	3.9	8.2	-.07	3.4	6.2	-1.22
Yes	12.5	7.2		4.1	9.5		6.5	9.9	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

HIGH SCHOOL MALES

Only one of the characteristics of these high school males' dating history was significantly related to their reported levels of dating violence perpetration[4]. Specifically, psychological aggression perpetration was negatively correlated with frequency of dating ($r = -.59$, $p < .001$; see Tables 30 and 31).

UNIVERSITY FEMALES

Many of the dating history variables were found to be significantly linked to the perpetration of dating violence for university females. Age was found to be an important variable in regard to the perpetration of psychological aggression. Age at first date and age at first steady dating relationship were both negatively correlated with psychological aggression perpetration ($r = -.24$, $p < .005$; $r = -.35$, $p < .001$, respectively). Variables measuring the length of relationships also proved to be significant. The length of the current steady dating relationship was positively correlated with the perpetration of psychological aggression ($r = .31$, $p < .005$). Furthermore, the length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively correlated with both the perpetration of psychological and physical aggression ($r = .39$, $p < .001$; $r = .29$, $p < .001$, respectively). Variables measuring the number of dating partners also revealed significant patterns. The number of steady dating partners was positively correlated with the perpetration of psychological aggression in this population ($r = .38$, $p < .001$). Similarly, number of

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[4] It was not possible to test the relationship between sexual orientation and dating violence perpetration in the sample of high school males as all reported being heterosexual. In addition, it was not possible to test for ever having a steady dating partner as only five of the young men in this group had not had a steady dating partner.

Table 31

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Dating History Variables for High School Males

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	(n = 11 – 37)		
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.09	-.21	-.08
Age at 1st Date	-.15	-.15	-.08
Longest Steady Dating	-.10	-.19	-.30
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	-.08	-.19	-.22
Frequency of Dating	-.59**	-.39	-.36
# of Dating Partners	.30	.32	.34
# of Steady Dating Partners	.21	.12	.30
Negotiation	.19	-.19	-.12
Partners' Negotiation	.36	.05	.20

** $p < .001$.

dating partners was positively correlated with the perpetration of psychological (r=.32, $p < .001$) and physical aggression ($r = .19$, $p < .01$). Finally, the pattern of negotiation use proved significant in relation to dating violence perpetration for these young women. The university females' negotiation scores were positively related to both psychological and physical aggression ($r = .50$, $p < .001$; $r = .26$, $p < .001$, respectively). Similarly, partners' use of negotiation were also positively correlated with these same two variables (psychological: $r = .42$, $p < .001$; physical: $r = .21$, $p < .01$). All other dating history variables were unrelated to the perpetration of dating violence for university females[5] (see Tables 32 and 33).

UNIVERSITY MALES

Dating history characteristics proved to be the only variables capable of explaining the use of aggression in dating relationships for young men in university. Three significant correlations were found between psychological aggression perpetration and dating history variables. The length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively correlated with psychological aggression perpetration ($r = .51$, $p < .005$). The use of negotiation by young men in university and their dating partners were also positively correlated with psychological aggression perpetration ($r = .51$, $p < .005$; $r = .54$, $p < .001$, respectively). No other dating history variables were related to the perpetration

[5] Given that university females reported being almost exclusively heterosexual (i.e., only one homosexual and one bisexual participant) it was not possible to test for a relationship between dating violence and sexual orientation.

Table 32

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Dating History Variables for University Females

	Psychological	Physical
	(n = 85 - 164)	
Age at 1st Date	-.24*	-.07
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.35**	-.13
Longest Steady Dating	.39**	.29**
Length Current Steady Dating	.31*	.15
Relationship		
Frequency of Dating	-.16	-.15
# of Dating Partners	.32**	.19*
# of Steady Dating Partners	.38**	.10
Negotiation	.50**	.26*
Partners' Negotiation	.42**	.21*

* $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$.

Table 33

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Dating History Variables for University Students

	Psychological			Physical		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
Females (n = 163 – 164)						
Ever Steady Dating						
No	3.9	5.7	-2.26	0.8	1.7	-1.19
Yes	7.4	5.9		1.9	3.7	
Current Steady Dating						
No	6.1	5.7	-1.62	1.3	2.5	-1.36
Yes	7.6	6.1		2.1	4.3	
Males (n = 35 – 38)						
Current Steady Dating						
No	6.0	6.5	-1.16	1.1	1.8	-1.34
Yes	9.2	9.2		3.3	5.8	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

of dating violence for university males (see Tables 33 and 34).[6]

SAMPLE COMPARISON

Many of the dating experiences examined were related to dating violence perpetration. Partial support was found for the hypothesis that having a greater number of dating partners and steady dating partners would be positively correlated with involvement in dating violence. These expected relationships were found only for young women in university. Similarly, partial support was found for the hypothesis that length of the longest steady dating relationship would be positively correlated with dating violence perpetration. This positive relationship was found for all groups except young men in high school. A younger age at first steady dating partner and first date were expected to be correlated with dating violence perpetration. Once again only partial support for this hypothesis was found. Younger age at first steady dating partner was correlated with dating violence perpetration for both young women in high school and university. Support for the second hypothesis was found only in the sample of young women in university. The relationship between ever having a steady dating partner and dating violence perpetration was testable for young women in university only. No significant relationship was found refuting the hypothesis.

In addition to only partial support being found for some hypotheses, evidence refuting some hypotheses and supporting an alternative position was found for two

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[6] It was not possible to test for a relationship between sexual orientation and dating violence in the sample of university males as all reported being heterosexual. Similarly, it was not possible to test for a relationship between ever having a steady dating partner and dating violence as only three of the young men in this group had not had a steady dating partner.

Table 34

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Dating History Variables for University Males

	Psychological	Physical
	(n = 12 - 33)	
Age at 1st Date	-.09	.05
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.18	-.03
Longest Steady Dating	.51*	.40
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	.03	.47
Frequency of Dating	.02	-.14
# of Dating Partners	.32	.02
# of Steady Dating Partners	.27	.02
Negotiation	.51*	.31
Partners' Negotiation	.54*	.32

* $p < .01$.

variables. Specifically, it was predicted that adolescents who perpetrated physical acts of dating violence would be less likely to use acts of negotiation than those who did not perpetrate physical acts of dating violence. For young women and men in university, greater use of negotiation by the adolescent and the dating partner was *positively* correlated with dating violence perpetration. There was no significant relationship between negotiation and dating violence perpetration for high school students. In addition, frequency of dating was predicted to be positively correlated with dating violence perpetration. For university students and young women in high school, the relationship was not supported. In contrast, for young men in high school dating frequency was *negatively* correlated with dating violence perpetration.

Hypothesis 8: Relationship between dating violence perpetration and academic history.

For university students and high school females, none of the academic history variables were significantly linked to dating violence perpetration (see Tables 35 – 40).[7] Only one of the academic history variables was significantly related to the perpetration of dating violence in the sample of high school males. An independent samples t-test indicated that young men who experienced a grade repetition had higher sexual coercion perpetration scores (M=8.17, SD=9.62) than those that had not experienced a repetition

[7] Due to the low frequency of certain experiences, some of the academic history variables were not testable. Specifically, expulsions and grade repetitions were not testable for the university students. In addition, pre-university course failures were not testable for university males and high school females. Finally, suspensions were not testable for high school males.

Table 35

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Academic History Variables for High School Students

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	Females (n = 26 – 33)		
Current Grade	.13	-.06	.16
Average Grades	.30	.01	.25
Educational Aspirations	.07	-.15	-.11
Educational Expectations	.05	-.13	-.14
	Males (n = 29 – 38)		
Current Grade	-.14	-.04	-.04
Average Grades	-.29	-.26	-.30
Educational Aspirations	-.01	.16	.05
Educational Expectations	.00	-.04	-.15

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 36

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Academic History Variables for University Students

	Psychological	Physical
	Females (n = 153 – 164)	
Current Year in University	-.08	.05
Average Grades	-.10	-.06
Educational Aspirations	.07	-.02
Educational Expectations	-.02	-.05
	Males (n = 33)	
Current Year in University	.00	-.01
Average Grades	.15	.21
Educational Aspirations	.17	-.09
Educational Expectations	.09	-.14

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 37

Academic History Variables Descriptive Data

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
High School Grade or Year in University				
M	10.5	10.5	1.2	1.2
SD	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.6
Average Grades				
M[a]	6.2	6.0	6.9	6.3
SD	2.0	2.2	1.5	2.1
Educational Aspirations				
M[b]	4.1	3.7	5.0	5.0
SD	1.4	1.3	0.9	0.9
Educational Expectations				
M[b]	3.6	3.1	4.8	4.8
SD	1.5	1.2	0.9	1.0

(table continues)

Table 37 con't

Academic History Variables Descriptive Data

	High School				University			
	Females		Males		Females		Males	
	n	P	n	P	n	P	n	P
Pre-University								
Course Failure	23	74.2	31	77.5	9	5.2	5	13.9
University								
Course Failure	--	--	--	--	47	27.2	9	24.3
Grade Repetitions	22	59.5	20	50.0	1	0.6	2	5.4
Suspensions	19	51.4	35	85.4	7	4.1	9	24.3
Expulsions	10	27.0	20	47.6	0	0	0	0

[a]Possible range 1 – 11, where 1 = receiving grades of F in last 5 courses taken and 11 = receiving grades of A+ in last 5 courses taken. [b]Possible range 1 – 6, where 1 = some high school and 6 = post-graduate degree (see Appendix F for a full listing of possible responses).

Table 38

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Academic History Variables for High School Females

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	(n = 31 – 32)								
Suspensions									
No	13.3	9.1	0.49	6.8	7.3	-.07	2.2	3.9	.52
Yes	11.8	8.2		7.0	6.5		1.6	2.8	
Expulsions									
No	12.1	9.4	-0.31	6.8	6.9	-.13	1.9	3.4	.10
Yes	13.1	6.5		7.1	6.7		1.8	3.0	
Grade Repetitions									
No	13.9	9.1	0.79	7.6	7.6	.46	3.4	4.3	2.10[a]
Yes	11.4	8.1		6.4	6.3		0.8	1.6	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Equal variances not assumed.

Table 39

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Academic History Variables for University Females

	Psychological			Physical		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	(n = 163 – 164)					
Pre- University Course Failures						
No	6.9	6.0	.18	1.7	3.4	-1.29
Yes	6.6	5.2		3.2	3.2	
University Course Failures						
No	6.7	8.1	-1.21	1.7	3.6	-1.29
Yes	9.8	7.8		1.8	3.5	
Suspensions						
No	6.9	5.9	-.74	1.7	3.6	.13
Yes	8.3	6.5		1.6	2.2	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 40

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Academic History Variables for University Males

	Psychological			Physical		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
			(n = 33)			
University Course Failures						
No	7.5	7.9	.49	2.3	4.3	1.06
Yes	6.0	7.2		0.6	1.2	
Suspensions						
No	7.4	8.0	.27	2.3	4.4	0.91
Yes	6.6	6.7		0.9	1.4	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

(M=1.22; SD=2.84; t[19] = -2.94, p<.005; see Table 41). Thus, one of the hypotheses relating to academic history was partially supported. One measure of academic difficulty (e.g., experiencing a grade repetition) was related to dating violence perpetration for young men in high school. In contrast, no support was found for the hypothesis that high academic aspirations were protective factors against the perpetration of dating violence.

Hypothesis 9: Relationship between dating violence perpetration and self-efficacy.

Two significant relationships were found between the measured forms of self-efficacy and the perpetration of dating violence (see Tables 42 – 44). For young women in high school and young men in university, there were no significant relationships between these variables. In contrast, one form of self-efficacy was related to perpetration in high school males. Academic self-efficacy was negatively correlated with the perpetration of psychological aggression by high school males ($r = -.44$, $p < .01$; see Table 42). For young women in university a link was found between dating self-efficacy and dating violence perpetration. For these young women, psychological aggression perpetration was correlated with dating skills ($r = .24$, $p < .01$; see Table 43). Thus, some support for a link between self-efficacy and dating violence perpetration was found.

Characteristics Associated with Dating Violence Victimization

For the high school sample, all forms of dating violence victimization measured (i.e., psychological aggression, physical aggression, and sexual coercion victimization) were used in the following statistical analyses. Given the low internal consistency of the total sexual coercion victimization scale for the university sample, it was excluded from

Table 41

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Perpetration and Academic History Variables for High School Males

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	(n = 31 – 32)								
Course Failures									
No	4.3	4.4	-1.57	0.4	1.1	-1.13	1.0	2.1	-1.44
Yes	9.3	8.7		4.5	9.3		5.5	8.6	
Expulsions									
No	6.7	8.1	-1.21	2.9	6.0	-0.71	2.7	4.9	-1.43
Yes	9.8	7.8		4.9	10.5		6.2	9.5	
Grade Repetitions									
No	5.7	5.5	-1.96	0.8	1.3	-2.29[a]	1.2	2.8	-2.29[a]*
Yes	10.8	9.4		7.2	11.5		8.2	9.6	

[a]Equal variances not assumed.

*$p < .01$.

Table 42

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Self-Efficacy Variables for High School Students

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	Females (n = 30 – 33)		
Academic Self-Efficacy	-.14	-.28	-.06
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection From Dating Violence	-.29	-.28	-.09
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skills	-.03	-.05	-.15
General Self-Efficacy	-.11	-.34	-.14
Physical Self-Efficacy	-.23	-.22	-.19
Social Self-Efficacy	-.06	-.35	-.06
	Males (n = 29 – 36)		
Academic Self-Efficacy	-.44*	-.11	-.09
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	-.34	-.20	-.15
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skills	.16	.05	.16
General Self-Efficacy	-.36	-.12	-.06
Physical Self-Efficacy	-.15	.04	.08
Social Self-Efficacy	-.17	.01	.03

*p < .01.

Table 43

Correlations between Dating Violence Perpetration and Self-Efficacy Variables for University Students

	Psychological	Physical
	Females (n = 151 – 162)	
Academic Self-Efficacy	-.09	-.09
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	-.10	-.10
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skills	.24*	.04
General Self-Efficacy	-.07	-.10
Physical Self-Efficacy	-.07	-.02
Social Self-Efficacy	.03	.02
	Males (n = 32 – 33)	
Academic Self-Efficacy	.03	-.09
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	.20	.30
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skills	.05	.04
General Self-Efficacy	.09	.13
Physical Self-Efficacy	.05	.13
Social Self-Efficacy	-.16	.00

*p < .01.

Table 44

Means and Standard Deviations for the Self-Efficacy Variables

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Academic Self-Efficacy				
M[a]	87.3	88.5	90.8	96.9
SD	18.5	17.8	12.9	11.6
Protection from Dating Violence				
M[b]	35.5	35.1	36.8	38.3
SD	8.9	7.24	6.4	5.0
Dating Skills				
M[c]	34.5	32.3	35.3	32.2
SD	8.5	9.6	7.5	7.7
General Self-Efficacy				
M[d]	69.6	72.0	74.4	78.2
SD	17.8	13.5	11.5	12.8
Physical Self-Efficacy				
M[e]	86.0	96.5	88.2	100.0
SD	17.4	14.0	13.5	13.3

(table continues)

Table 44 (con't)

Means and Standard Deviations for the Self-Efficacy Variables

	High School		University	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
Social Self-Efficacy				
M[f]	24.8	24.1	25.4	26.0
SD	5.4	6.1	5.0	4.5

[a]Possible range 20 – 120. [b]Possible range 8 – 48. [c]Possible range 9 – 54. [d]Possible range 17 – 102. [e]Possible range 22 – 132. [f]Possible range 6 – 36.

all analyses. For the young women in university, however, the severe sexual coercion victimization scale had good internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach's alpha = .89). Thus, for the young women in university, the severe sexual coercion victimization scale was used for all applicable analyses. Since no young men in university had such experiences, only the psychological aggression and the physical aggression victimization scales were used in the statistical analyses conducted for this group.

Hypothesis 5: Relationship between dating violence victimization and demographic variables.

Similar to the findings for perpetration, dating violence victimization was unrelated to all demographic variables for all participant groups (see Tables 45 – 47). Given that age was expected to be positively correlated with dating violence victimization, support for this hypothesis was not found. All other demographic variables were expected to be unrelated to dating violence victimization and therefore the hypotheses regarding these variables were supported.

Hypothesis 6: Relationship between dating violence victimization and other forms of violence outside of dating relationships.

HIGH SCHOOL FEMALES

Two of the variables measuring experiences with violence outside of dating relationships were linked to victimization within dating relationships in this sample of adolescent females. Both mother-to-father spousal abuse ($r = .54$, $p < .005$) and father-to-mother spousal abuse ($r = .47$, $p < .01$) were found to be positively correlated with

Table 45

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Demographic Variables

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	High School Females (n = 16 – 32)		
Age	.05	-.09	-.18
Maternal S.E.S.	-.10	-.10	.19
Paternal S.E.S.	-.20	-.23	-.38
	High School Males (n = 24 – 28)		
Age	-.10	-.19	-.01
Maternal S.E.S.	-.42	-.40	-.36
Paternal S.E.S.	-.28	-.16	.03
	University Females[a] (n = 134 – 163)		
Age	.06	-.03	.03
Maternal S.E.S.	.03	-.10	-.06
Paternal S.E.S.	-.03	.00	.00
	University Males (n = 27 – 33)		
Age	.15	.26	
Maternal S.E.S.	.10	.07	
Paternal S.E.S.	.11	-.29	

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]For the university females, severe sexual victimization scores were used in the correlations.

Table 46

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Demographic Variables for High School Students

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
Females (n = 21 –22)									
Parental Marital Status									
Married	7.9	8.0	-1.21	1.9	3.5	-1.42	2.6	5.5	-1.17
Divorced	12.2	7.8		7.9	11.7		5.6	5.8	
Living Arrangements									
2 parent family[a]	12.0	12.0	.02	9.0	19.8	-.04	6.1	11.9	-.14
Single parent family	11.9	6.6		9.3	12.0		6.7	6.6	
Males (n = 23 – 26)									
Parental Marital Status									
Married	7.0	9.5	.94	4.7	6.7	-.14	1.7	3.7	-1.18
Divorced	6.3	7.4		5.3	10.1		5.4	7.9	
Living Arrangements									
2 parent family[a]	7.0	9.1	-.74	4.7	9.6	-.59	2.2	4.6	-1.56
Single parent family	9.6	8.2		7.2	11.0		5.6	6.4	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Defined as two biological and/or adoptive parents.

Table 47

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Demographic Variables for University Females

	Psychological			Physical			Severe Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	Females (n = 141 – 154)								
Parental Marital Status									
Married	5.4	5.8	-.37	1.4	2.6	-.02	0.2	1.1	.83
Divorced	6.7	5.9		1.6	2.8		0.0	0.2	
Race									
Caucasian	5.7	5.6	-1.19	1.3	2.4	-.36	0.1	0.6	.60
Asian	6.2	6.2		1.4	2.7		0.0	0.0	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

physical victimization (see Table 48).

HIGH SCHOOL MALES

The majority of variables measuring other forms of violence outside of dating relationships were linked to at least one form of dating violence victimization for young men in high school. Experiencing physical abuse by mothers was positively correlated with sexual coercion victimization ($r = .42$, $p < .01$). In addition, all forms of community violence experiences were positively linked with sexual coercion victimization (perpetration: $r = .55$, $p < .001$; victimization: $r = .65$, $p < .001$; witness: $r = .47$, $p < .005$). Moreover, community violence victimization was also related to psychological and physical dating violence victimization for these young men ($r = .47$, $p < .005$; $r = .54$, $p < .005$, respectively; see Table 48).

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Experiences with violence outside of dating relationships proved to be of limited value in understanding dating violence victimization for university students. None of these variables were related to victimization for the young men in university. Only one variable was related to victimization for female university students. Perpetration of community violence was positively correlated with physical victimization for these young women ($r = .21$, $p < .005$; see Table 49).

SAMPLE COMPARISON

It was hypothesized that other forms of violence outside of dating relationships would be related to dating violence victimization. In partial support of the hypothesis, all groups (except young men in university) had positive links between violence outside of

Table 48

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Other Forms of Violence for High School Students

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	Females (n = 27 – 33)		
Abused by Mother	.02	.14	.08
Abused by Father	.23	.17	.11
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	.34	.54*	.29
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	.35	.47*	.43
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.13	.18	.15
Com. Vio. Victimization	.31	.40	.30
Com. Vio. Witness	.06	.09	.19
	Males (n = 30 – 38)		
Abused by Mother	.16	.31	.42*
Abused by Father	.00	.19	.36
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	.01	-.17	.05
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	-.11	-.13	-.17
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.13	.30	.55**
Com. Vio. Victimization	.47*	.54*	.65**
Com. Vio. Witness	.37	.38	.47*

Note. M-F = mother to father; F-M = father to mother; Com. Vio. = community violence.

* $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$.

Table 49

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Other Forms of Violence for University Students

	Psychological	Physical	Severe Sexual
	Females (n = 159 – 164)		
Abused by Mother	.17	.14	.03
Abused by Father	.04	.12	.05
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	.16	.11	.09
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	.14	.07	.05
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.14	.21*	.14
Com. Vio. Victimization	.10	.10	.08
Com. Vio. Witness	.17	.12	.08
	Males (n = 31 – 33)		
Abused by Mother	.20	.23	
Abused by Father	.01	.09	
Spousal Abuse (M-F)	-.09	-.07	
Spousal Abuse (F-M)	-.20	-.08	
Com. Vio. Perpetration	.21	.26	
Com. Vio. Victimization	.31	.23	
Com. Vio. Witness	-.09	.00	

Note. M-F = mother to father; F-M = father to mother; Com. Vio. = community violence.

* $p < .01$.

dating relationships and dating violence victimization. The forms of violence found to be significantly linked to victimization showed little overlap between groups. For example, witnessing spousal abuse was correlated with victimization only for young women in high school. Similarly, experiencing maternal abuse, and being a witness or victim of community violence were related to dating violence victimization exclusively for young men in high school. Only community violence perpetration was a significant correlate for both young men in high school and young women in university.

Hypothesis 7: Relationship between dating violence victimization and dating history.

HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

The dating history variables were of little value in explaining dating violence victimization for high school students. None of these variables were related to the victimization experienced by young women in high school (see Tables 50 and 51). For young men in high school, two of these variables were found to be significant. First, an independent samples t-test revealed that having a current steady dating partner was related to levels of psychological aggression victimization ($t[33] = -3.60$, $p < .001$). Those adolescent males with a current steady dating partner had higher average psychological aggression victimization scores ($M = 12.92$, $SD = 8.80$) than those without a current steady dating partner ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 5.38$). In addition, frequency of dating was also related to psychological aggression victimization ($r = -.61$, $p < .01$). Similarly, frequency of dating was negatively correlated with physical victimization ($r = -.54$, $p < .005$; see Tables 51 and 52).

Table 50

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Dating History Variables for High School Females

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	(n = 17 – 32)		
Age at 1st Date	-.30	-.25	-.16
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.28	-.18	-.33
Longest Steady Dating	.29	.11	.09
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	.45	.19	.56
Frequency of Dating	-.12	-.22	.18
# of Dating Partners	.04	.01	.01
# of Steady Dating Partners	.11	.15	.17
Negotiation	.35	.27	.11
Partners' Negotiation	-.02	-.11	-.26

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 51

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Dating History Variables for High School Students

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	Females (n = 33)								
Current Steady Dating									
No	13.4	10.2	.13	9.6	13.0	-.28	6.3	6.0	.89
Yes	12.9	11.2		10.8	20.3		6.6	12.3	
Sexual Orientation									
Heterosexual	13.5	11.0	.13	9.1	16.4	-.19	7.7	9.8	-.08
Bisexual	13.1	10.0		10.6	14.2		5.2	6.2	
	Males (n = 35 – 38)								
Current Steady Dating									
No	4.3	5.4	-3.60*	4.3	8.9	-.89	3.4	6.1	-.84
Yes	12.9	5.8		7.3	10.4		5.2	6.8	

*p < .01.

Table 52

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Dating History Variables for High School Males

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	(n = 11 – 37)		
Age at 1st Date	-.02	-.14	-.10
Age at 1st Steady Dating	.02	-.13	-.08
Longest Steady Dating	.32	-.08	-.29
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	.06	-.07	-.31
Frequency of Dating	-.61**	-.54*	-.39
# of Dating Partners	.09	.28	.29
# of Steady Dating Partners	.16	.12	.13
Negotiation	.24	-.09	-.12
Partners' Negotiation	.39	.13	.11

*p < .01. **p < .001.

UNIVERSITY FEMALES

The majority of variables measuring dating history were significantly related to dating violence victimization for young women in university. Age at first date and age at first steady dating relationship were both negatively correlated with psychological aggression victimization ($r = -.23$, $p < .001$; $r = -.33$, $p < .001$, respectively). Variables measuring the number of dating partners were also significant. Number of dating partners and number of steady dating partners were both positively correlated with psychological victimization ($r = .31$, $p < .001$; $r = .35$, $p < .001$, respectively). Length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively correlated with psychological and physical victimization in this group of young women ($r = .40$, $p < .001$; $r = .26$, $p < .001$, respectively). Finally, the pattern of negotiation use proved significant in relation to psychological and physical victimization for these young women. The university females' negotiation scores were positively related to both psychological and physical victimization ($r = .53$, $p < .001$; physical: $r = .31$, $p < .001$, respectively). Similarly, these two variables were also positively correlated with partners' use of negotiation (psychological: $r = .44$, $p < .001$; physical: $r = .24$, $p < .001$; see Tables 53 and 54).

UNIVERSITY MALES

Dating history variables were the only variables that were linked to university males' dating violence victimization. Specifically, the length of the longest steady dating relationship was positively correlated with psychological victimization ($r = .52$, $p < .005$). Use of negotiation within dating relationships was significantly linked to psychological victimization for these young men. Both young men's use of negotiation and their

Table 53

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Dating History Variables for University Females

	Psychological	Physical	Severe Sexual
	(n = 85 – 164)		
Age at 1st Date	-.23*	-.09	.06
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.33**	-.13	.11
Longest Steady Dating	.40**	.26**	-.07
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	.23	.16	.05
Frequency of Dating	-.08	-.09	.03
# of Dating Partners	.31**	.14	.04
# of Steady Dating Partners	.35**	.15	-.09
Negotiation	.53**	.31**	.01
Partners' Negotiation	.44**	.24*	-.07

*p < .01. **p < .001.

Table 54

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Dating History Variables for University Students

	Psychological			Physical			Severe Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	Females (n = 163 – 164)								
Ever Steady Dating									
No	3.2	5.9	-1.80	1.4	3.2	-.01	0.9	2.8	-1.18[a]
Yes	5.9	5.7		1.4	2.5		0.1	0.5	
Current Steady Dating									
No	4.8	5.6	-1.85	1.3	2.5	-.29	0.3	1.4	-1.30[a]
Yes	6.4	5.9		1.4	2.6		0.1	0.5	
	Males (n = 33)								
Current Steady Dating									
No	6.0	5.9	-1.06	1.1	2.1	-1.75[a]			
Yes	8.6	8.3		5.4	8.3				

Note. All t-test non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Equal variances not assumed.

partners' use of negotiation were positively correlated with psychological victimization ($r = .54$, $p < .001$; $r = .57$, $p < .001$, respectively; see Tables 54 and 55).

SAMPLE COMPARISON

The majority of the hypotheses examining dating experiences and dating violence victimization were at least partially supported. More specifically, having a greater number of dating partners and steady dating partners were positively correlated with dating violence victimization for young women in university partially supporting these hypotheses. Similarly, younger age at first date and first steady dating partner were positively correlated with victimization for young women in university only. Length of longest steady dating relationship was positively correlated with dating violence victimization for university students.

In contrast, some hypothesized relationships were not supported. The relationship between ever having a steady dating partner and dating violence perpetration was not significant for young women in university. Still other relationships were found that were in complete contrast to what was hypothesized. For example, frequency of dating was *negatively* correlated with dating violence victimization for young men in high school rather than being positively correlated as expected. For all other groups, there was no significant correlation between this variable and dating violence victimization. Similarly, negotiation use and partners' negotiation use were *positively* correlated with dating violence victimization for university students. Again, these findings were opposite to the hypothesized relationships. For the high school students, no significant relationship was found between these variables.

Table 55

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Dating History Variables for University Males

	Psychological	Physical
	(n = 12 – 33)	
Age at 1st Date	-.11	-.07
Age at 1st Steady Dating	-.21	-.14
Longest Steady Dating	.52*	.32
Length Current Steady Dating Relationship	.02	.33
Frequency of Dating	.05	-.08
# of Dating Partners	.27	.10
# of Steady Dating Partners	.24	.14
Negotiation	.54*	.35
Partners' Negotiation	.57*	.36

*p < .01.

Hypothesis 8: Relationship between dating violence victimization and academic history.

None of the academic variables assessed were related to any form of dating violence victimization for any participant group (see Tables 56 – 61). Thus, no support was found for the hypotheses associating experiences of victimization with both limited academic success (e.g., failed courses and lower average grades) and limited educational aspirations (e.g., less likely to express a plan to attend a professional school).

Hypothesis 9: Relationship between dating violence victimization and self-efficacy.

For the young men in high school and university, there were no significant relationships between dating violence victimization and self-efficacy (see Tables 62 and 63). For the young women in high school, however, two of the self-efficacy variables were significantly related to dating violence victimization. Physical self-efficacy was negatively correlated with sexual coercion victimization in this group of young women ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$). Additionally, one form of dating self-efficacy showed a significant relationship with dating violence victimization for young women in high school. Protection from dating violence was negatively correlated with psychological and physical dating violence victimization ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$; physical: $r = -.55$, $p < .001$, respectively; see Table 62). Links were also found between dating self-efficacy and dating violence victimization for young women in university. For this group of young women, dating skills was *positively* correlated with psychological dating violence victimization ($r = .26$, $p < .001$; see Table 63). Thus, partial support was found for a link

Table 56

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Academic History Variables for High School Students

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	Females (n = 27 – 32)		
Current Grade	.04	.07	-.05
Average Grades	.20	.01	.12
Educational Aspirations	-.03	-.21	-.03
Educational Expectations	-.05	-.16	-.02
	Males (n = 28 – 38)		
Current Grade	-.30	-.22	.02
Average Grades	-.18	-.29	-.40
Educational Aspirations	.09	.08	.05
Educational Expectations	.12	.02	-.13

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 57

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Academic History Variables for University Students

	Psychological	Physical	Severe Sexual
	Females (n = 153 –164)		
Current Year in University	-.07	-.09	-.08
Average Grades	-.09	-.05	.01
Educational Aspirations	.05	-.01	-.04
Educational Expectations	.03	-.03	-.04
	Males (n = 32 – 33)		
Current Year in University	.06	-.09	
Average Grades	.23	.14	
Educational Aspirations	.18	-.02	
Educational Expectations	.12	-.07	

Note. All correlations non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 58

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Academic History Variables for High School Females

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
				(n = 32)					
Suspensions									
No	17.5	12.8	1.91	14.4	19.5	1.32	7.6	10.2	.61
Yes	10.7	7.6		7.3	11.0		5.8	6.4	
Expulsions									
No	14.1	11.3	.50	12.2	17.4	1.15	6.3	8.7	-.32
Yes	12.1	8.5		5.6	7.3		7.2	6.7	
Grade Repetitions									
No	16.4	10.3	1.33	11.8	13.5	0.49	7.7	6.2	.65
Yes	11.5	10.3		9.1	16.5		5.8	9.2	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 59

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Academic History Variables for High School Males

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	(n = 33 – 36)								
Course Failures									
No	6.4	5.2	-.08	0.3	0.8	-1.45	1.1	1.7	-1.44
Yes	6.6	7.9		6.0	10.3		4.8	7.0	
Expulsions									
No	5.9	6.9	-.97	4.2	8.7	-.64	2.1	4.1	-1.99
Yes	8.5	8.6		6.3	10.2		6.0	7.6	
Grade Repetitions									
No	5.4	6.0	-1.12	2.1	4.9	-1.95[a]	1.7	3.6	-2.52
Yes	8.3	8.4		8.2	11.9		6.8	7.7	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Equal variances not assumed.

Table 60

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Academic History Variables for University Females

	Psychological			Physical			Severe Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
	(n = 163 – 164)								
Pre- University Course Failures									
No	5.8	5.8	1.42	1.7	3.4	-1.74	0.2	1.0	.16
Yes	3.0	4.0		3.2	5.3		0.2	0.4	
University Course Failures									
No	5.5	5.7	-.46	1.4	2.6	.29	0.2	1.2	.98
Yes	6.0	6.0		1.3	2.3		0.0	0.2	
Suspensions									
No	5.5	5.7	-1.45	1.3	2.4	-.83	0.1	0.6	.93[a]
Yes	8.7	7.6		2.1	4.5		1.6	4.2	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

[a]Equal variances not assumed.

Table 61

T-tests for the Relationship between Dating Violence Victimization and Academic History Variables for University Males

	Psychological			Physical		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
			(n = 33)			
University Course Failures						
No	7.6	6.8	.96	3.4	6.2	1.22
Yes	4.9	7.1		0.6	1.4	
Suspensions						
No	7.3	7.1	.46	3.3	6.3	1.00
Yes	6.0	6.4		1.1	2.3	

Note. All t-tests non-significant at $p < .01$.

Table 62

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Self-Efficacy Variables for High School Students

	Psychological	Physical	Sexual
	Females (n = 31 – 32)		
Academic Self-Efficacy	-.15	-.26	-.19
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	-.48*	-.55**	-.38
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skill	-.29	-.37	-.43
General Self-Efficacy	-.11	-.16	-.07
Physical Self-Efficacy	-.30	-.42	-.47*
Social Self-Efficacy	-.16	-.28	-.18
	Males (n = 29 – 36)		
Academic Self-Efficacy	-.34	-.24	-.11
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	-.39	-.41	-.23
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skill	.17	.15	.10
General Self-Efficacy	-.23	-.21	-.09
Physical Self-Efficacy	-.27	-.06	.02
Social Self-Efficacy	-.08	-.03	-.08

*p < .01. **p < .001.

Table 63

Correlations between Dating Violence Victimization and Self-Efficacy Variables for University Students

	Psychological	Physical	Severe Sexual
	Females (n = 151 – 164)		
Academic Self-Efficacy	.00	-.02	.05
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	-.05	-.11	-.16
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skill	.26**	.11	-.06
General Self-Efficacy	.02	.03	.01
Physical Self-Efficacy	-.04	.09	-.03
Social Self-Efficacy	.05	.11	.07
	Males (n = 32 – 33)		
Academic Self-Efficacy	.07	-.09	
Dating Self-Efficacy Protection from Dating Violence	.21	.29	
Dating Self-Efficacy Dating Skill	.10	.10	
General Self-Efficacy	.10	.10	
Physical Self-Efficacy	.06	.12	
Social Self-Efficacy	-.14	.06	

**p < .001.

between forms of self-efficacy and dating violence victimization.

Multiple regressions.

In order to compare the study's findings with the proposed conceptual model (see Figure 1), standard multiple regressions were performed. Two multiple regressions were performed with total victimization scores (i.e., the sum of psychological, physical, and sexual victimization scores) and total perpetration scores as dependent variables. Each multiple regression was performed on the sample as a whole rather than being divided into four separate samples (i.e., high school females, high school males, university females, and university males) due to the limited number of participants within some of these samples.

Within each of the multiple regressions, only selected variables were used as predictor variables. These variables were chosen based on the strength of their correlations with other variables and the overall representation of categories of variables. In other words, there was an attempt made to include variables from each of the larger categories from the conceptual framework (i.e., community violence, corporal punishment/abuse, witness parental spousal abuse, dating history, self-efficacy, and school performance). To this end, some highly correlated variables within these larger categories were combined for the multiple regressions. Thus, the multiples regressions included the following variables: Witnessing Spousal Violence (score on witnessing mother-to-father spousal abuse + witnessing father-to-mother spousal abuse); Experiencing Corporal Punishment/Abuse (score on Physical Abuse by Fathers + Physical Abuse by Mothers); Community Violence Perpetration; Community Violence

Witnessing and Victimization; Number of Dating Partners; Age at 1st Steady Dating Partner; Protection from Dating Violence; and Dating Skill.

In both standard multiple regression, R was significantly different from zero, (dating violence perpetration: $F(8, 180) = 8.14$, $p < .001$; dating violence victimization: $F(8, 181) = 7.60$, $p < .001$). For the dating violence perpetration equation, community violence perpetration and age at first steady dating partner were significant predictors. In contrast, for the dating violence victimization equation, community violence witnessing and victimization, age at first steady dating partner, and protection from dating violence were significant contributors. Tables 64 and 65 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2, and the adjusted R^2 for each regression equation.

Table 64

Summary of the Standard Multiple Regression for Dating Violence Victimization

Variable	B	β
Witnessing Spousal Violence	.10	.09
Experiencing Corporal Punishment/Abuse	.11	.06
Community Violence Perpetration	-.38	-.09
Community Violence Witnessing & Victimization	.66	.32***
Number of Dating Partners	.39	.02
Age at 1st Steady Dating Partner	-1.72	-.19***
Protection from Dating Violence	-.48	-.21**
Dating Skill	.10	.05
		$R^2 = .25$
		Adjusted $R^2 = .22$
		R = .50***

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 65

Summary of the Standard Multiple Regression for Dating Violence Perpetration

Variable	B	β	
Witnessing Spousal Violence		.05	.06
Experiencing Corporal Punishment/Abuse		.17	.11
Community Violence Perpetration		.77	.22*
Community Violence Witnessing & Victimization		.21	.13
Number of Dating Partners		.31	.02
Age at 1st Steady Dating Partner		-1.40	-.19**
Protection from Dating Violence		-.10	-.06
Dating Skill		.23	.15
			$R^2 = .27$
			Adjusted $R^2 = .23$
			R = .52***

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Discussion

Prevalence of Dating Violence

The results of the study revealed significant findings in a number of areas. The following section provides an overview and examination of these findings. First, the prevalence rates for physical, psychological, and sexual dating violence are addressed. Within each of these sections patterns by gender and by victim and perpetrator status are explored. This is followed by a review of the findings regarding the rates of injuries sustained by study participants and risk factors for such experiences. Next, a discussion of factors associated with dating violence perpetration and victimization is presented. The role of self-efficacy, academic variables, demographic variables, other forms of violence, and dating history variables are then addressed. The implications for these findings in terms of intervention and prevention programs are highlighted. Finally, limitations of the current study and directions for future research are addressed.

Higher than expected levels of dating violence were reported by participants in this study. Nearly three-quarters of the young women and one-half of the young men in high school along with slightly less than every 4 of out 10 university students were involved in physical dating violence at some point in their dating histories. Thus, occurrences such as a young woman slapping her boyfriend or a young man grabbing his date are happening at an alarming and unacceptable rate.

Based on the findings from previous research (e.g., Foshee et al., 1998; O'Keefe, 1997), between 20% to 30% of adolescents were expected to have been involved in physical dating violence; however, rates for the high school students far exceeded this

estimation. The closest to this estimate was 50% in the case of perpetration for young men in high school. The most in excess of the predicted levels was a rate of nearly 3 out of every 4 young women in high school perpetrating physical aggression. In contrast, the rates of physical dating violence were as expected for university students with all falling in the 30% range, albeit towards the higher end.

There are a variety of explanations for the higher than expected rates of physical violence found within the sample of high school students. First, many of these students had experiences with other forms of violence. For example, a large portion had experienced at least some form of physical abuse by a parent and many had witnessed parental spousal abuse. Finally, a large majority had experiences with community violence. For these youth, violence may be an all too frequent and regular part of their lives. Thus, with their high exposure to violence outside of dating relationships, it is not surprising that their involvement in dating violence is also high.

Another possible explanation for the high rates of reported physical dating violence is the difference between the youth that participated in this study and those previously involved in dating violence research. The majority of past studies have surveyed youth attending traditional high schools (e.g., Jezl et al., 1996; Molidor, 1995). In contrast, the current study had involved young men and women from a high school serving the needs of students with behavioural and academic difficulties. These students had a clear history of such problems including suspensions, expulsions, academic failures, and drug use at school. These difficulties and their limited ability to function within a regular school setting sets them apart from more traditional high school students.

Indeed the rates of physical dating violence victimization among these young women were more similar to the reported rates for females from a shelter for displaced teens (Richards, 1991) than those from traditional high schools. Thus, the findings from this study regarding rates of physical dating violence for the high school students may not generalize as well to youth from traditional school populations.

When a young person becomes involved in dating violence, their role is typically not limited simply to being either a victim or a perpetrator. Most adolescents have experience being both a perpetrator and a victim of dating violence. A majority of young women and men in the current study who were involved in violent relationships were both victims and perpetrators of the violence. This pattern of involvement in dating violence as both a victim and perpetrator was strongest for psychological aggression. Almost every young woman in high school (97%) who experienced psychological aggression was both a victim and perpetrator. For the young men in high school and the young men and women in university over 8 out of 10 who experienced psychological aggression did so as both a victim and a perpetrator.

When a young person insults or swears or shouts at a dating partner, he or she may also be the victim of such psychological aggression. The use of such tactics by an adolescent may create a climate within the relationship whereby psychological aggression becomes an accepted method of dealing with conflict. The use of psychological aggression may also continue because of perceived benefits from its usage. For example, after destroying something belonging to a dating partner or stomping out a room, a young person may find that this coercive act has resulted in compliance with one's own desires

by the dating partner. Thus, a young person using psychological aggression may view such tactics as having positive consequences for the aggressor and so may their dating partner.

The pattern of victimization and perpetration for physical violence was very similar to psychological aggression. Over 8 out of 10 high school students and young men in university who experienced physical dating violence, did so as both a victim and a perpetrator. Rates for young women in university were slightly lower at just over 7 in 10. These rates exceeded those found in previous studies. For example, Gray and Foshee (1997) found about 66% of middle school and high school students reported that the dating violence was mutual. This previous study, however, explored violence within the most recent relationship only. In the current study, violence was examined across all dating relationships. Thus, the higher rates of experiencing violence as both a victim and a perpetrator may be due to the inclusion of a larger portion of the adolescents' dating history. Adolescents who initially experience victimization only in one dating relationship may later go on to be both a victim and a perpetrator in later relationships. Similarly, a young person who perpetrates violence in a dating relationship without being a victim of it may later enter a relationship that is mutually violent.

The same mechanisms that contribute to the majority of adolescents having experiences being both a perpetrator and a victim of psychological aggression may also influence the typically mutual physical violence that occurs within adolescent dating relationships. Physical violence may be seen as having many positive consequences by the youth who use it against their dating partners. An adolescent may find that his or her

dating partner is more "controllable" after being slapped or kicked. The victim of such physical abuse may be aware of the perceived positive consequences of such behaviour for their dating partner and learn to also perpetrate such acts. Additionally, an adolescent may perpetrate acts such as punching or choking a dating partner as a means of defending oneself against an attack. It is important to bear in mind that the measure used to assess dating violence, i.e., the CTS2, does not provide any information about the context of violence. In other words, the current study was unable to address whether or not the participant started the violence or responded in self-defense.

In addition to examining overall patterns of physical perpetration and victimization, gender also plays an important role in describing the violence in adolescents' dating experiences. Although only the rates of severe physical aggression perpetration for high school students significantly differed by gender, there are still some important patterns that need to be explored. In regard to high school students' rates of physical victimization, for each and every type of victimization, be it at the individual item level or category level a greater percentage of young women than young men reported being a victim. In some cases, such differences were very large. For example, four times as many young women as men reported being beat up by a date. Moreover, twice as many of the young women in high school compared to the young men reported being a victim of severe physical aggression. This relationship, however, was not found to be statistically significant. Large differences were not found to be statistically significant likely due to the small sample size in some of the subgroups and the high degree of power needed to find significance. Even though statistical significance was not

found, that does not mean there were not differences in the personal experiences of these young men and women.

The pattern of victimization and perpetration for sexual coercion was more varied than was found for other forms of dating violence. For high school adolescents and young men in university, the same pattern of findings was found for sexual coercion as was found for psychological and physical dating violence. Within all of these groups, more young people reported being both perpetrators and victims of sexual coercion than only victims or only perpetrators. The rates were slightly lower than those found for other forms of violence with between 6 and 7 of 10 participants experiencing this pattern.

Contrasting the pattern found for most adolescents, more young women in university reported being only victims of sexual coercion than being both victims and perpetrators of it. This pattern of sexual coercion for young women in university is not surprising given that all studies examining these variables have found that young women are significantly more likely to be victims of sexual coercion than perpetrators of it (e.g., Molidar & Tolman, 1998; O'Keefe & Treister, 1998; Price et al., 2000). What is more unexpected is that a greater number of young women in high school reported being both victims and perpetrators of sexual coercion rather than only victims. Part of the reason behind this apparent symmetry in the young women's use and experience of sexual violence may lie in the questions used to assess sexual coercion. Unlike many other measures of sexual dating violence, the Conflict Tactics Scale - 2 includes acts involving sexual coercion along with acts using physical force. For example, it contains items such as insisting on sex when a date did not want to but not using physical force. Slightly

more than 40% of the young women in high school perpetrated these more minor acts of sexual coercion. This contrasts greatly with these young women's perpetration of severe sexual coercion. Only one young woman in high school reported perpetrating a sexual act that included force. Thus, young women in high school may be like their dating partners in their willingness to use minor sexual coercion such as insisting on sex. They are not, however, using physical force to coerce their partners into unwanted sexual acts unlike the greater number of young men who were using force and threats against their dating partners.

The reasons behind these young women's high minor sexual perpetration rates may share some similarities with the explanations offered for their high rates of physical violence. The young women experienced high levels of violence in many aspects of their lives. Within their homes, many witnessed parental spousal abuse and experienced physical abuse. In their communities, many had witnessed or participated in violence. Their multiple exposure and experiences with violence, may have created an environment whereby these young women were willing to use sexual coercion because of their overall tolerance towards violence and coercion.

The portrait of the adolescent involved in dating violence as both a victim and a perpetrator contrasts with a common belief that violence is one-sided in most relationships that are abusive. As Gray and Foshee (1997) highlight, this assumption of one-sided violence also underlies most dating violence prevention and treatment programs. In order to maximize the benefits of such programs, curricula must begin to address the findings that young men can be victims of dating violence and young women

perpetrators of it. Acknowledgment that the typical victim of dating violence may also perpetrate violence, and vice versa, will help to create intervention and prevention strategies that work to eliminate, or at least reduce, violence in adolescent relationships. An intervention or prevention approach that acknowledges that most violent relationships are likely mutually violent, does not mean that gender differences in violence cannot be addressed. For example, such a program can still address the associated negative outcomes that disproportionately affect victimized young women such as low self-esteem (Jezl et al., 1996) and post-traumatic stress (Callahan, 1998).

As experiences with dating violence were common for the young men and women in high school, so too were injuries. Overall, slightly more than 4 in 10 young women in high school and slightly fewer young men were injured due to violence from their dating partners. These injuries were sometimes quite serious involving broken bones and losses of consciousness along with requiring medical attention. Among only those adolescents who experienced physical dating violence, 6 out of 10 experienced injury. These rates are very similar to those reported by Foshee (1996) who excluded adolescents without physical victimization experiences from her analyses.

In contrast, for young men and women in university, experiencing an injury from dating violence was a relatively uncommon event. Approximately 1 in 10 of the university students received an injury from their dating partner such as a sprain, bruise, or small cut. This rate of injury among university adolescents is very similar to rates found in past studies of Canadian university and college students (e.g., DeKeseredy, 1996).

Once again, in order to more fully understand the experiences of these young men

and women, in addition to examining overall rates of injury, it is helpful to also explore patterns of injury by gender. Similar to the findings regarding physical violence, no significant differences by gender were found for injury rates; however, important patterns were revealed. In all but two types of injury victimization, young women's rate of victimization exceeded young men's for both university and high school students. For example, twice as many young women in high school as young men felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with a date. That same ratio applied to the difference in young women and young men needing to see a doctor because of a fight with a date but did not. Thus, although there were no statistically significant differences in rates of injury by gender, the patterns of findings suggest that the personal experiences for young men and women may differ.

Risk factors for injury due to dating violence were also examined. As expected, experiencing high levels of physical violence was related to sustaining significantly more injuries than experiencing low levels of physical violence for the high school students. Every time a young man or woman is hit, punched, or choked, the chance for injury exists. For those high school students who suffer repeated incidents of violence such as pushing, shoving, and punching, the risk of injury increases.

Experiencing physical violence in more than one relationship was also examined as a potential risk factor for experiencing injury. Fortunately, such an experience was uncommon for the young men in high school and the university students. Thus, this relationship was not testable for these groups of young people. Young women in high school were not so fortunate. Enough had experienced physical violence from multiple

partners to test the hypothesized relationship. For these young women, the number of violent partners was unrelated to injury. Thus, the available evidence implies that, although the number of episodes of physical violence experienced is an important risk factor for injury, the number of dating partners who inflict such violence is not. This suggests that violence escalates within a relationship rather than across relationships. However, given that the relationship was not testable for most of the young people surveyed, future research examining such variables may still be warranted.

Characteristics Associated with Dating Violence

One of the major goals of this research was to identify factors associated with dating violence perpetration and victimization for young men and women. Towards this end, a number of forms of self-efficacy were examined. Four forms of self-efficacy were related to experiences with dating violence.

In regard to dating violence perpetration, two measures of self-efficacy proved to be significant. Young men in high school with low levels of academic self-efficacy had higher levels of dating violence perpetration than young men with high academic self-efficacy. This link is not surprising given the number of different negative outcomes related to low academic self-efficacy that have already been identified in past research including physical and verbal aggression (Bandura, 1995). Adolescents often experience significant pressures related to academic achievement (Elkind, 1984), thus, when they feel they are unable to master demands in this area, they may feel a need to exert control in other areas such as their intimate relationships. This desire to feel in control may manifest as coercive power assertion techniques such as psychological aggression.

The other significant finding regarding the link between self-efficacy and dating violence perpetration was in contrast to expected results. For young women in university, dating skills were positively related to being a perpetrator of psychological aggression. In others words, for young women in university having views about the ease of securing dates and having dates and dating relationships last as long as wanted was related to an increased likelihood of being a perpetrator of psychological aggression. These young women may have been willing to scream at a dating partner or swear at a date because of an underlying belief that it would be relatively easy to find another dating partner. For example, if the young man that she was currently dating expressed displeasure at her use of psychological aggression, the young woman may feel that she still has both control of when the dating situation might end and confidence in her ability to find another date or dating partner. Thus, these beliefs may therefore increase her willingness to use psychological aggression in her dating relationships.

In regard to dating violence victimization, the relationship between forms of self-efficacy and victimization was significant only for young women. For the young women in high school, having low levels of protection from dating violence (a form of dating self-efficacy) and physical self-efficacy were associated with being a victim of dating violence. For these young women, past experiences of dating violence may lead them to question their ability to fend off unwanted sexual advances and physical attacks. These feelings may disproportionately affect young women in high school given their male dating partners' likelihood of being physically larger and stronger on average. These young women may also view themselves as having few or no dating opportunities outside

of their current abusive partner. Thus, they may decide that a psychologically and physically aggressive boyfriend is better than no boyfriend at all. Alternatively, these attitudes may exist prior to experiences with dating violence and leave them vulnerable to such situations. That this relationship exists only for young women in high school, may be due to the high level of significance placed on dating relationships during this period of development. Some researchers suggest that young women use relationships to help form an identity (Chodorow, 1990). In other words, how a young woman sees and defines herself may include her relationships to significant others in her life. For example, a young woman may view being somebody's girlfriend as an important part of her identity. Thus, ending an abusive relationship may be giving up part of one's own self definition for these young women. Additionally, her relationship might afford her prestige and social status among her friends. For young women in university and young men, there may be many other additional important sources of self-identity to draw upon.

For young women in university, one form of dating self-efficacy was related to dating violence victimization. Similar to the finding for dating violence perpetration, for young women in university, dating skills were positively related to being a victim of psychological aggression. Given that most forms of dating violence were found to be reciprocal, it was not surprising that psychological aggression victimization was related to dating skills given that perpetration was also related to this variable. What was unexpected was the direction of these relationships. It was hypothesized that dating skills would be negatively related to psychological aggression. The explanation provided for the findings regarding the relationship between psychological aggression perpetration and

dating skills also plays a role in the explanation offered for the relationship between victimization and dating skills. If these young women are more willing to use psychological aggression because of their belief in their ability to control the dating relationship and confidence in their ability to find a new relationship, their dating partner may be willing to reciprocate and also perpetrate psychological aggression. In other words, once one partner uses psychological aggression both partners may be willing to use it.

The relationship between academic variables and dating violence were also explored. Limited academic success was expected to be related to experiences with dating violence. This hypothesis was guided by previous research that found poor school performance to be related to dating violence victimization and perpetration for adolescent females (e.g., O'Keefe, 1998). These findings were not replicated in the current study. For university students and for young women in high school, no academic history variables were related to experiences with violence. In contrast, for young men in high school experiencing a grade repetition was related to sexual coercion perpetration. Part of the reason behind the lack of relationship between academic difficulties and dating violence may due in part to sampling issues. The young men and women in university may have had many long-standing successful academic experiences making them more resilient to negative life events, such as experiencing dating violence, impacting upon their school performance.

Additionally, the lack of relationship between academic difficulties and dating violence may be due to the method used to measure these experiences. In the current

study, all past experiences with dating violence were measured rather than measuring dating violence in a restricted time period such as the previous year. In contrast, grades received were measured over the last five courses taken. Thus, it is possible that a relationship exists between experiences with dating violence and academic difficulties but for only a limited period of time. For example, after experiences with dating violence, a young woman may have temporary difficulties with her academic achievement in a number of classes. Once some time has past, however, school difficulties may resolve. If this is the pattern, the current method of measuring all dating violence experiences may not be sensitive enough to find such a relationship.

Another possible explanation for the lack of findings may be due to the common experience of academic difficulties among the young people in high school and the relative lack of such difficulties in the university sample. The young men and women in the high school sample had exceedingly high levels of course failures, grade repetitions, and suspensions. Perhaps the homogeneity of such experiences created a situation whereby it was difficult to reach statistical significance in testing the relationship.

Demographic variables were also explored in relation to dating violence experiences. When such variables could be examined, ethnic background, parental socio-economic status, parental marital status, and living arrangements were all unrelated to dating violence participation. These findings were as expected and mirrored the majority of findings from previous studies.

Specifically, the finding that ethnic background was not a significant factor for dating violence involvement was not surprising given the homogeneity of the current

sample. Over 8 in 10 participants were Caucasian. Other ethnic groups were only marginally represented (e.g., 8% were Asian and 3.5% were Aboriginal). Thus, any differences in rates of dating violence by ethnic group would have to have been very large in order to be statistically significant.

The current study found no significant link between adolescent dating violence and socio-economic status within the sub-groups of adolescents. However, significant differences in socio-economic status were found between the high school and university samples. The lack of a relationship between adolescent dating violence and socio-economic status found in the current study mirrors the findings of the majority of studies that have examined these variables (e.g., O'Keefe, 1997; O'Keeffe et al., 1986; Reuterman & Burcky, 1989). Similarly, the lack of a link between parental marital status found for the current sample of young people has also been found by other researchers (e.g., Billingham & Gilbert, 1990; O'Keeffe et al., 1986). Moreover, the current study found no significant relationship between living arrangements and dating violence; this is similar to the findings of Reuterman and Burcky (1989).

One demographic feature was hypothesized to be linked to adolescent dating violence. Being older was expected to be associated with higher levels of dating violence. This hypothesis mirrored previous findings by Malik and colleagues (1997) who attributed the greater risk for older adolescents as likely being due to more dating experiences and therefore greater risk of exposure to violence. This hypothesis was not supported by the current study. Across all participant groups, age was unrelated to dating violence. This lack of significance between age and most forms of dating violence

among the university students may be due to their restricted age range. Of the young men and women in university, 99% were 18 or 19 years old. Thus, the sample may have not been varied enough in age to find significant differences.

Unlike the young men and women in university, the adolescents in high school were more varied in age as they ranged from 16 to 19 years old. The lack of significance between age and dating violence, for this group, may be best understood by the life experiences they had prior to reaching their adolescent years. Specifically, this group of young men and women experienced high levels of earlier experiences with violence such as physical abuse by a parent and witnessing parental spousal abuse. Additionally, the young men and women in high school began dating at an average age of 12, significantly younger than the university students. Perhaps these early experiences with violence coupled with dating at a young age primed these young people for dating violence from an early point in their dating histories.

Overall, it is evident that adolescent dating violence is not a problem that is limited to youth from a specific socio-economic or ethnic background. Adolescents can experience dating violence whether their parents are divorced or married. Whether a youth is living with step-parents, biological parents, or in foster care, the risk for experiencing dating violence is real. Prevention and intervention programs clearly need to be sensitive to individual differences of each youth. For example, such programs need to exercise cultural sensitivity. It would be ill advised, however, to target participation in such programs based solely on demographic factors.

Experiences with violence outside of dating relationships were another set of

variables that were examined in relation to dating violence that proved to be informative. Experiences with violence outside of dating relationships were significantly related to experiences with dating violence for these young men and women. As expected, witnessing parental spousal abuse was significantly related to dating violence for young women. Specifically, both mother-to-father and father-to-mother spousal abuse was associated with dating violence victimization for young women in high school. For young women in university, both forms of spousal abuse were related to dating violence perpetration. In contrast, parental spousal abuse was unrelated to dating violence involvement for young men.

Overall, these mixed findings are not unusual in that some researchers have found a link between dating violence and parental spousal abuse (e.g., Foshee et al., 1999) while others have not (Simons et al., 1998). What is surprising, however, is that when gender differences have been found, significant relationships have been found for males but not for females (e.g., O'Keefe, 1997), contrasting with the results of this investigation. Part of the reason behind this current finding may be due to differences in exposure to parental violence by gender. The young women in this study reported experiencing more mother-to-father and father-to-mother spousal abuse than their male counterparts. It is possible that within these groups a minimum level of exposure to parental violence is a necessary prerequisite for a significant relationship to be found. Alternatively, the young men may have been less willing to report their experiences witnessing parental spousal abuse.

Experiencing parental violence, such as corporal punishment or child abuse, was positively related to experiences with dating violence as hypothesized. In terms of

perpetration, maternal abuse was significantly related to dating violence for young women in university and young men in high school. For young women in high school, experiencing paternal abuse was linked to dating violence perpetration. In regard to dating violence victimization, maternal abuse was only significant for young men in high school.

As was the case for witnessing parental spousal abuse, the current findings regarding experiencing parental violence mirrored previous findings in some ways and contrasted them in others. The findings regarding the link between experiencing child abuse and perpetrating dating violence have been mixed. Thus, finding a significant relationship for some groups of adolescents but not others is relatively common (e.g., Foshee et al., 1999). Contrasting results were found, however, for the link between experiencing maternal child abuse and being a victim of dating violence. This relationship was only significant for young men in high school. This finding differs from other studies (e.g., Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998) which found that the relationship was significant for females only. These past studies, however, looked at parental violence as a whole rather than separately for mothers and fathers. Thus, it is possible that gender has an effect on this relationship. Young men in high school may be more sensitive to maternal abuse in regard to their dating violence victimization because their childhood victimization experiences also involved women and therefore they had a model of receiving violence in an intimate relationship with a female.

As expected, experiences with dating violence shared a link with community violence experiences for the young people in this study. For the young men and women

in high school, being a perpetrator of dating violence was linked to community violence perpetration. Thus, those young men and women who used physical force against a date such as kicking or punching were also likely to have done so against a friend or acquaintance in their community. Those young women in university and young men in high school who perpetrated dating violence were also likely to have witnessed violence in their communities. Additionally, the young men in high school who perpetrated violence against their dating partners were also likely to have experiences with being a victim of violence within their communities. Links between community violence and dating violence victimization were also found. For example, those young men in high school who experienced community violence were also likely to be victimized in their dating relationships. Additionally, the young women in university who were victims of dating violence were more likely to have been perpetrators of community violence than those young women in university who were not victims of violence within their dating relationships.

The current findings have parallels to past research. For example, across gender, exposure to community violence has been found to be a significant predictor of dating violence victimization and perpetration (Malik et al., 1997; O'Keefe, 1998) mirroring the current findings. Similarly, Connolly and her colleagues (2000) have also found bullying to be associated with dating violence, paralleling the findings of the link between community violence perpetration and dating violence involvement.

Within the current study, there was evidence that experiences with other forms of violence shared a stronger relationship with dating violence for some groups of young

people compared to others. Specifically, these variables were strongly related to experiences with dating violence for young men in high school. As a group, these young men clearly had multiple exposures to various forms of violence. They were witnesses of and participants in extreme forms of violence, such as physical assaults on others within their communities. They lived in homes where they witnessed a parent kicking their other parent. They also had parents who used physical violence against them, such as punching. The observational learning experienced by these young men may have impacted upon the ways in which they view force and violence within relationships. Consistent with social learning theory, these young men having witnessed and experienced multiple forms of violence may have viewed the consequences of the use of violence as positive or at least lacking significant negative consequences. Moreover, they may have perceived a violent parent or friend as having high levels of control and power. Thus, these young men may have come to view physical violence as a legitimate way to exert their will and influence on others.

For young men in university, there was no relationship between past experiences with violence outside of dating relationships and dating violence. Although not without such experiences, the occurrence of such events was considerably less frequent for this group than for the young men and women in high school. Accordingly, factors beyond experiences with other forms of violence must be examined to understand these young men's use of aggression within their dating relationships as well as their choice not to use violence in their relationships.

Experiences with other forms of violence were related to dating violence whether

it was psychological, physical, or sexual dating violence experiences. The results of the current study and previous research (e.g., Foshee et al., 1999; Schwartz et al., 1997) have found multiple links between exposure to violence and the use of violence within dating relationships. These findings fit well with a social learning theory framework which posits that aggression is learned by observing the behaviour of others and its positive consequences. For example, within the home, children who witness spousal violence may come to believe that aggression is a normal component of intimate relationships (Simon et al., 1998). Children who view an abused parent becoming submissive following an assault may see violent behaviour as having positive consequences (Foshee et al., 1999). Within the community, witnessing violence is thought to influence young people's perceptions of violence as a legitimate method of resolving conflict (Malik et al., 1997). The media is an additional source where adolescents may view portrayals of violence. Barongan and Hall (1995) suggest that through the entertainment media, youth are introduced to powerful examples of coercive and sexist models of relationships. Such media messages may alter adolescents' perception of intimate relationships, sexual involvement, and romance (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). Overall, there is solid evidence that exposure to violence, be it as a witness, victim, or perpetrator, is associated with dating violence involvement (e.g., O'Keefe, 1997; Smith & Williams, 1992).

Many of the characteristics of these young men and women's dating histories were expected to be associated with their experiences of dating violence. As expected, almost every dating history variable measured was found to be related to dating violence for at least one group of adolescents. Early dating appears to hold risks for young

women. Being younger when steady dating began was related to dating violence victimization for young women in university and perpetration for both young women in high school and university. Additionally, for young women in university, beginning dating at a younger age was related to experiencing dating violence. This finding contrasts other research that found the age at which dating began was unrelated to female victimization (Bergman, 1992; Reuterman & Burcky, 1989). The reason behind this inconsistent finding may be due to the way in which dating first began was measured and analyzed. In the Reuterman and Burcky (1989) study, this variable was categorized into three groups: ages 13 or younger, age 14, or ages 15 or older. Bergman (1992) provided no information as to how this variable was measured or the average age at which dating began. In the current study, the average age for the first date was 14 years old for young women in university and ranged from 10 to 18 years. Perhaps, by analyzing the age at which dating began as a continuous rather than categorical variable the significance of this variable becomes more important.

Number of dating partners and the number of steady dating partners shared a relationship with dating violence involvement for young women in university. Taken together, the relationship between starting dating at a younger age and having a larger number of dating partners may reflect a greater risk for violence with increased exposure to dating experiences. For young women in particular, each date she goes on may be an opportunity for violence to occur. Thus, beginning dating at a younger age and having more dating partners may create a greater likelihood of violence occurring.

Early dating does not seem to pose the same risk for young men as it does for

young women. Additionally, the risk associated with the frequency of dating also shows differences by gender. For young men in high school, a lower frequency of dating was related to a higher incidence of dating violence contrasting expected results. Most of the young men in high school, however, had high numbers of dating partners and steady dating partners along with frequent dating. Perhaps those young men who did not date with high frequency lacked appropriate social and coping skills leading to both low frequency of dating and a willingness to use violence. It is possible that these young men with a low frequency of dating used violence early on in their dating contact which reduced the possibility that their dating partners would be willing to continue dating them.

Length of the dating relationships also shared a relationship with dating violence involvement for these young men and women. As expected, the longer the dating relationship, the greater the likelihood of being a victim of dating violence for young people in university. Additionally, the longer the relationship, the greater the likelihood of being a perpetrator of dating violence for young people in university and young women in high school. Length of the current steady dating relationship was similarly related to perpetration for young women.

In order to help understand these findings, it is important to explore what the characteristics of these longer relationships might be. These long-standing relationships may have started relatively early for the adolescents. Additionally, the length of the dating relationship for these young people may be related to the level of seriousness of the relationship. Those adolescents who have been in a relationship for a long period of time,

may feel more committed and serious about it. Evidence in support of this proposition, is the similarity between findings regarding relationship seriousness and dating violence and length of dating relationships. For both seriousness of the relationship and length of the steady dating relationship, more significant relationships were found for young women than young men (e.g., O'Keefe & Treister, 1998). For young women, the importance they place on their dating relationship may make them reluctant to leave even in the face of violence. Additionally, it may be more difficult for adolescents involved in dating relationships with violence to end the relationship. For example, a victim of dating violence may fear reprisals from a dating partner if she or he attempts to end the relationship.

An additional dating history characteristic that proved to be important to understanding the use of violence within these young people's dating relationships was negotiation. Negotiation and partners' negotiation was related to dating violence for university students both in terms of victimization and perpetration. This finding was unexpected as frequent use of negotiation was hypothesized to be related to lower level of violence. For these adolescents, however, the use of negotiation may be a measure of the actual level of conflict in their relationships rather than their absolute ability to skillfully resolve conflict. Thus, the adolescents with high levels of negotiation are not successfully resolving their conflicts through nonviolent means. Rather, they are using verbal negotiation along with psychological and physical aggression as a strategy, albeit unsuccessful, to deal with their high levels of relationship conflict.

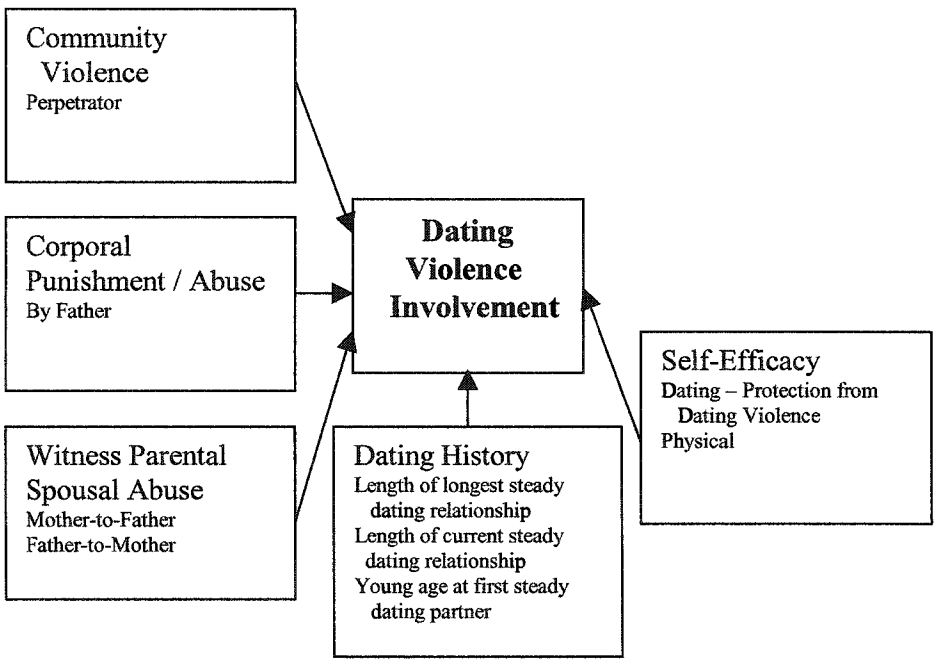
The findings of the current study helped to identify some important relationships

between past experiences in the lives of young people and their encounters with dating violence. Many of the variables hypothesized to be associated with dating violence in the conceptual framework created for this study (see Figure 1) had significant links to experiences with dating violence. For the entire sample of young men and women as a whole, both community violence perpetration and age at first steady dating relationship were significant predictors for the perpetration of dating violence. Additionally, age at first steady dating relationship, protection from dating violence, and community violence witnessing and victimization were significant predictors of dating violence victimization for the entire sample of young people.

Many of the variables hypothesized to be associated with dating violence showed different relationships between the subsamples of young people. More specifically, for the young women in high school, the majority of the other forms of violence that were measured were significantly related to experiences with dating violence consistent with social learning theory (see Figure 2). Thus, for the young women in high school, being a witness to physical violence between their parents, experiencing physical punishment/ abuse from their fathers, and perpetrating violence in their communities were all linked to their experiences with dating violence. Additionally, both dating (i.e., protection from dating violence) and physical self-efficacy variables were linked to their experiences with dating violence victimization. Thus, for these young women, dating violence victimization experiences may significantly alter how effectively and efficiently they feel they can handle situations that may arise while dating and situations which demand physical responses. Three dating history variables were also linked to experiences with

Figure 2

Variables Associated with Dating Violence for Young Women in High School

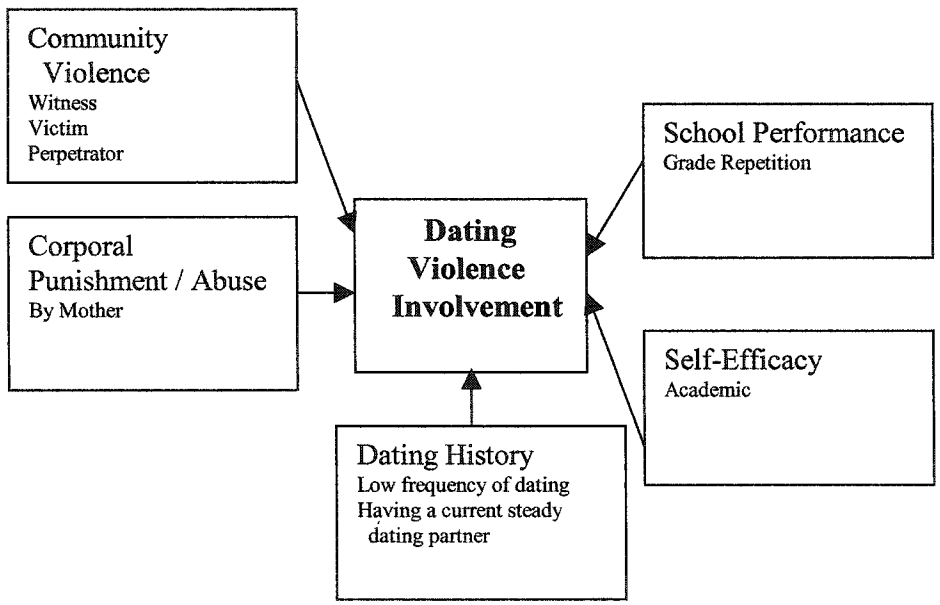


dating violence in this group of young people. For young women in high school, their experiences while dating that do not involve violence may play a role in their likelihood of experiencing dating violence. In total, nine of the variables measured had a relationship with psychological, physical, and/or sexual dating violence for the young women in high school. Thus, one-third of the variables fit with the proposed conceptual model.

Similar to the findings for the young women in high school, eight variables were found to be related to experiences with dating violence for young men in high school (see Figure 3). Again, many of these young men's experiences with violence were significantly related to dating violence. Experiences with community violence were particularly relevant to their perpetration and victimization of dating violence. Two dating history variables were also linked to dating violence experiences. Unlike any other participant group, for the young men in high school, one academic experience was related to dating violence perpetration. For these young men, experiencing a grade repetition was related to the perpetration of sexual coercion. Additionally, young men in high school were the only participant group to demonstrate a link between self-efficacy and dating violence perpetration. For these young men, feelings of inability regarding their educational performances were linked to the perpetration of psychological aggression. In total, nearly one-third of the variables fit with the proposed conceptual model for the young men in high school. Overall, for the high school students as a whole, the proposed conceptual model bore many similarities to the actual pattern of findings regarding the variables associated with dating violence.

Figure 3

Variables Associated with Dating Violence for Young Men in High School



For the young women in university, fourteen variables were linked to experiences with dating violence (see Figure 4). All but one of the variables involved either other experiences with violence or dating history characteristics. Thus, for young women in university, the social learning theory variables proved to be particularly important to understanding their victimization and perpetration of dating violence. Clearly, their experiences while dating also played an important role in their risk for dating violence involvement. Academic history variables had no relation to dating violence experiences for these young women. As university students, these women likely had many experiences with academic success. As such, they may have felt confident in their abilities in this area and able to succeed regardless of negative life events such as dating violence experiences. Their high levels of self-efficacy may have also played a protective role in their ability to cope with challenging situations such as involvement in dating violence. Moreover, their comparatively limited experiences with dating violence may have been a factor in their ability to maintain high levels of self-efficacy. Overall, the proposed conceptual model shared the most overlap with the findings for the young women in university.

In contrast, for the young men in university, only characteristics of their dating history were related to their experiences with dating violence (see Figure 5). Future research needs to continue to explore other factors that may be related to dating violence experiences for these young men. For example, situational characteristics such as alcohol use (Comins, 1984) have been linked to the use of violence for young men in university.

Figure 4

Variables Associated with Dating Violence for Young Women in University

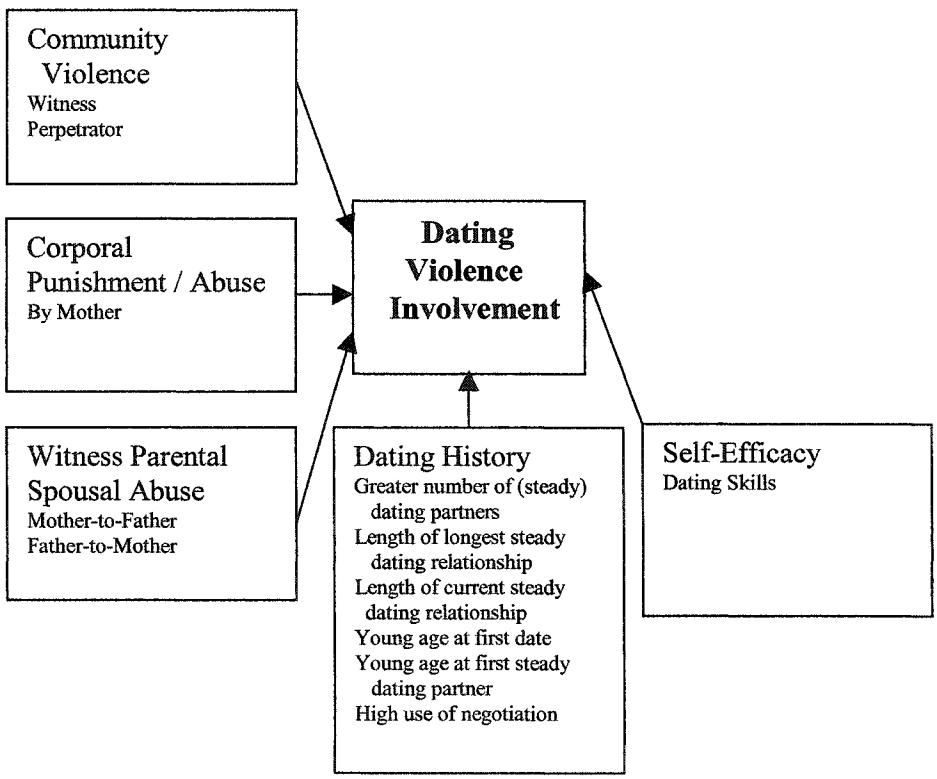
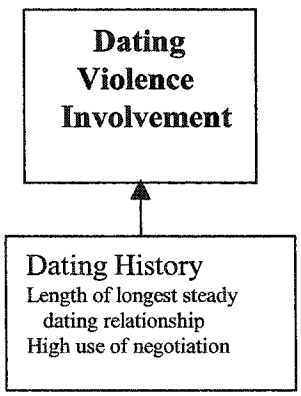


Figure 5

Variables Associated with Dating Violence for Young Men in University



Perhaps other characteristics more proximal to the episodes of dating violence would be helpful in understanding these young men's experiences.

Implications for Intervention and Prevention Programs

The current study has provided a considerable amount of important information that may help to guide adolescent dating violence prevention and intervention programs. Clearly, this is a problem that affects a significant number of youth within our communities. Sadly, there were considerably more young people with dating violence experiences than those without. There is a strong need for prevention programs for young people as a whole. There is an even greater need to target specific high risk groups of adolescents. The young people enrolled in an alternative high school for students with academic and behavioural difficulties had experienced tremendously high levels of violence within their intimate relationships. There is strong evidence from this and other studies (e.g., Richards, 1991) that marginalized youth may be especially at risk for violence in their relationships. Clearly, programs that attempt to protect these youth from such experiences are much needed. Thus, dating violence intervention and prevention programs may be a helpful adjunct to programs that are already targeted to high risk youth. Dating violence programs may be helpful as an independent course or as part of a larger program such as a life skills course. Schools serving high risk adolescents either exclusively or with high numbers of such teens, community centres in high risk neighbourhoods, and street outreach programs for adolescents are possible venues for such programs. Not only may dating violence programs help prevent or reduce the incidence of violence among high risk youth, but there is evidence that adolescents are

interested in such programs. For example, Jonson-Reid and Bivens (1999) found almost 7 in 10 youth in foster or group care expressed a desire to participate in a class or program to learn how to prevent dating violence.

The current findings regarding self-efficacy may guide dating violence intervention and prevention programs. Specifically, discussions that promote ways to stay safe while dating could be of great importance. Especially for young women, there needs to be an awareness of resources to turn to if a relationship becomes violent. Additionally, given that most teens turn to friends rather than professional organizations when there is intimate violence (Bergman, 1992), adolescents need to discuss how they would react to such a disclosure by a friend. Another important area to address would be the choices adolescents have for dating. Additionally, for young women in particular, there needs to be an emphasis on her strengths, skills, and sense of self independent of her intimate relationships. To this end, programs may choose to include skill development in a variety of areas outside of dating relationships for young women as a program component. Targets for skill development could include components related to readiness for the workplace or higher education. Additionally, interpersonal skill building with a focus on enhancing young women's abilities to establish positive relationships with peers and adults may be of value.

Experiences with violence outside of dating relationships, such as child abuse and witnessing parental spousal abuse, were related to young people's use of violence within their relationships. Prevention programs need to highlight this link in order to help to break such a cycle of violence. Additionally, in order to help future generations of teens,

there needs to be continued efforts to ensure young people do not grow up in circumstances in which they are victims of violence or witnesses of it. Continued focus on ending domestic abuse will undoubtedly help youth to live lives free of violence and create opportunities to view models of violence free conflict resolution.

The home is not the only model of violence for youth. For the young people who participated in this study, much violence was experienced within their communities. Having witnessed or participated in such aggression was linked to experiences with dating violence. There are many ways in which interventions can be directed to promote healthy relationships for youth based on these findings. First, for mental health professionals who have come into contact with youth due to their experiences with community violence, the possibility of violence in other areas needs to be addressed. For example, if a youth has been convicted of assault, assessing the possibility of violence in his or her intimate relationships would be warranted. Additionally, treatment programs within the forensic system for youth who have perpetrated violence or who are at-risk for doing so, need to address violence within intimate relationships in addition to violence occurring more generally. Second, given the high levels of violence experienced by youth, there is a strong need for community based violence reduction programs. Recently, there have been multiple programs that have targeted school violence (e.g., Rock Solid). Such programs may also help to reduce violence within intimate relationships for teens. Finally, it may be useful to highlight the relationship between community based violence and dating violence within intervention programs. The message that violence is unacceptable in resolving any conflict is clearly worth repeating.

Characteristics of young people's dating histories were related to dating violence. Once again, this information may be used to attempt to reduce violence within adolescent dating relationships. For those professionals working with youth, such as school counselors, complaints of high levels of conflict in a youth's relationship may be a precursor to violence. Additionally, prevention programs may address some of the characteristics of dating histories that are linked to dating violence. For example, youth may discuss how being in a long term relationship might put a young person at greater risk for dating violence. Discussions might highlight feelings around losing the relationship and feeling as if there is no way out of the relationship. This could be followed with brainstorming ways of keeping safe within such relationships; a topic which also has relevance to dating self-efficacy.

For adolescents, creating and maintaining intimate dating relationships will be an important part of their development. Unfortunately for a large number of them, these relationships may include verbal abuse, physical aggression, and sexual coercion. Because the majority of adolescents do not have long-standing patterns of interactions within intimate relationships, this period has been seen as a critical window of opportunity to break a potential cycle of violence (Follette & Alexander, 1992). Those working with youth need to make continued efforts to help young people create healthy relationships free from violence.

Limitations

The current study provided some important insights into adolescent dating violence including the identification of previously unexplored correlates. There were, of

course, limitations of this study. First, the samples used were quite homogeneous on a number of features. Within both the high school and university student samples, there was little variability in terms of ethnic background. Within the sample of university students, the age range of participants was also quite restricted. All of the male participants and the females adolescents in university reported being heterosexual. Thus, the study was not able to provide information regarding the dating experiences of homosexual or bisexual youth. Finally, some of the experiences surveyed were very uncommon. For example, none of the university students ever experienced an expulsion from school.

The high school students who participated in this study had atypical educational backgrounds. Many also had other experiences infrequent in a general population of youth such as being in foster care. Accordingly, the findings regarding the experiences of these youth may not be generalizable to a more typical population of adolescents.

An additional limitation of the study involved sample size. Each participant was categorized into one of four groups based on gender and school attendance (i.e., high school or university). As a result, the number of adolescents in each group was somewhat small. These limited numbers may have reduced the likelihood of finding statistically significant results. For example, twelve of the tested relationships fell just outside the level set for statistical significance (i.e., $<.02$ rather than $<.01$). Thus, a larger sample size may have enabled the detection of a larger number of statistically significant relationships.

Recommendations for Future Research

Given the findings and the limitations of the current study, there are a number of future research recommendations. Three forms of self-efficacy were found to be related to experiences with dating violence among the youth surveyed. It would be beneficial for future research to address the relationships between self-efficacy and dating violence within a sample of youth from more traditional academic settings.

The current research uncovered some potentially valuable findings for the area of prevention and intervention. It would be useful for future research to examine the potential effectiveness of adding components to dating violence prevention and intervention programs based on the current project. For example, if pre-exiting forensic or school violence intervention programs include a dating violence component, are there subsequent changes in the rates of dating violence? Additionally, if existing dating violence intervention programs include components that address self-efficacy, is there an impact on the programs' overall effectiveness in reducing rates of adolescent dating violence? Clearly, there is a need for additional research in the area of adolescent dating violence to address such questions.

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Appendix A

Parental Information Letter

Adolescent Dating Study
Department of Psychology
UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA
PO BOX 3050 STN CSC VICTORIA BC V8W 3P5
TELEPHONE (250) 472-4294
EMAIL: schwartz@uvic.ca

Parental Information Letter

Dear Parent or Guardian,

Your son or daughter is being invited to participate in a study called Adolescent Dating that is being conducted by Christine Schwartz, M.A., and Dr. Marsha Runtz, faculty member at the University of Victoria. Christine Schwartz is a graduate student in the department of Psychology at the University of Victoria. As a graduate student, this research is part of the requirements for a doctoral degree in psychology and it is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Runtz. If you have any questions or concerns, you may contact Christine Schwartz at 472-4177 and Dr. Runtz at 721-7546.

This research is being funded by the Sara Spencer Research Foundation. The purpose of this research project is to identify factors associated with dating violence involvement. Research of this type is important because it may help guide dating violence intervention and prevention programs.

Your daughter or son is being asked to participate in this study because (s)he is an adolescent between the ages of 16 and 19. Participation in no way suggests that an adolescent has experienced dating violence. If your son or daughter voluntarily agrees to participate in this research, his/her participation will include completing written questionnaires for approximately 20 to 45 minutes.

Although unlikely, there is some potential risk by participating in this research. Given the sensitive nature of some items of the questionnaire, for example personal experiences of violence, it is possible that a participant may experience emotional distress. To prevent or to deal with this risk all participants will receive a referral list of community counseling resources. In addition, participants will have the opportunity to speak with either Christine Schwartz or Dr. Runtz. The potential benefits of participation in this research include helping researchers to understand an important problem facing adolescents.

Appendix A – con't

Parental Information Letter

As a way to compensate your adolescent for any inconvenience related to participation, (s)he will be given a $10.00 honorarium. Your adolescent's participation in this research must be completely voluntary. If (s)he does decide to participate, (s)he may withdraw at any time without any consequences or any explanation. If (s)he does withdraw from the study his/her questionnaire will be destroyed. The anonymity and confidentiality of all participating teens will be protected.

In addition to being able to contact the researcher and the supervisor at the above phone numbers, you may verify the ethical approval of this study, or raise any concerns you might have, by contacting the Associate Vice President Research at the University of Victoria (250-721-7968).

Appendix B

Informed Consent Form - University Student Sample

Informed Consent for the Dating History Study

You are being invited to participate in a study entitled Dating History that is being conducted by Christine Schwartz, M.A., and Dr. Marsha Runtz, faculty member. Christine Schwartz is a graduate student in the department of Psychology at the University of Victoria.

As a graduate student, this research is part of the requirements for a doctoral degree in psychology and it is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Runtz. If you any questions or concerns, you may contact Christine Schwartz at 472-4177 and Dr. Runtz at 721-7546.

This research is being funded by the Sara Spencer Research Foundation.

The purpose of this research project is to identify factors associated with dating violence involvement.

Research of this type is important because identification of factors that are associated with dating violence involvement may help guide intervention programs targeted towards individuals who have experienced dating violence. In addition, it may assist in the development of prevention programs created to reduce the likelihood of dating violence occurring.

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are enrolled in a Psychology 100 class.

If you agree to voluntarily participate in this research, your participation will include completing written questionnaires for approximately 60 minutes.

Although unlikely, there is some potential risk to you by participating in this research. Given the sensitive nature of some items of the questionnaire, for example personal experiences of violence, it is possible that a participant may experience emotional distress. To prevent or to deal with this risk the following steps have been taken. All participants will receive a referral list detailing community resources available for individuals who have experienced violence along with general counseling resources. In addition, participants will have the opportunity to debrief with either Christine Schwartz or Dr. Runtz.

Appendix B – con't

Informed Consent Form - University Student Sample

The potential benefits of your participation in this research include helping researchers to understand an important societal problem.

As a way to compensate you for any inconvenience related to your participation, you will be given research participation bonus points in your psychology 100 class. It is important for you to know that it is unethical to provide undue compensation or inducements to research participants and, if you agree to be a participant in this study, this form of compensation to you must not be coercive. If you would not otherwise choose to participate if the compensation was not offered, then you should decline.

Your participation in this research must be completely voluntary. If you do decide to participate, you may withdraw at any time without any consequences or any explanation. If you do withdraw from the study your data will be destroyed.

In terms of protecting your anonymity, you are asked to not write any identifying information, such as your name, date of birth, or student number on your questionnaire. In addition, this informed consent sheet will be stored separately from your questionnaire so your name cannot be linked to your responses in any way.

Your confidentiality and the confidentiality of the data will be protected by ensuring the data is kept in a filing cabinet in a locked office. Only members of the research team will have access to the data.

Data from this study will be disposed of in seven years by shredding the consent forms and the questionnaires.

It is anticipated that the results of this study will be shared with others in the following ways: a dissertation, a presentation at a scholarly meeting, and a published article.

In addition to being able to contact the researcher and the supervisor at the above phone numbers, you may verify the ethical approval of this study, or raise any concerns you might have, by contacting the Associate Vice President Research at the University of Victoria (250-721-7968).

Appendix B – con't

Informed Consent Form - University Student Sample

Your signature below indicates that you understand the above conditions of participation in this study and that you have had the opportunity to have your questions answered by the researchers.

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

A COPY OF THIS CONSENT WILL BE LEFT WITH YOU, AND A COPY WILL BE TAKEN BY THE RESEARCHER

Appendix C

Informed Consent Form - High School Student Sample

Informed Consent for the Adolescent Dating Study

You are being invited to participate in a study called Adolescent Dating that is being conducted by Christine Schwartz, M.A., and Dr. Marsha Runtz, faculty member at the University of Victoria. Christine Schwartz is a graduate student in the department of Psychology at the University of Victoria. As a graduate student, this research is part of the requirements for a doctoral degree in psychology and it is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Runtz. If you any questions or concerns, you may contact Christine Schwartz at 472-4177 and Dr. Runtz at 721-7546.

This research is being funded by the Sara Spencer Research Foundation. The purpose of this research project is to identify factors associated with dating violence involvement. Research of this type is important because it may help guide dating violence intervention and prevention programs.

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are an adolescent between the ages of 16 and 19.

If you agree to voluntarily participate in this research, your participation will include completing written questionnaires for approximately 20 to 45 minutes.

Although unlikely, there is some potential risk to you by participating in this research. Given the sensitive nature of some items of the questionnaire, for example personal experiences of violence, it is possible that a participant may experience emotional distress. To prevent or to deal with this risk all participants will receive a referral list of community counseling resources. In addition, participants will have the opportunity to speak with either Christine Schwartz or Dr. Runtz. The potential benefits of your participation in this research include helping researchers to understand an important problem facing adolescents.

As a way to compensate you for any inconvenience related to your participation, you will be given a $10.00 honorarium. It is important for you to know that it is unethical to provide undue compensation or inducements to research participants and, if you agree to be a participant in this study, this form of compensation to you must not be coercive. If you would not otherwise choose to participate if the compensation was not offered, then you should decline.

Appendix C – con't

Informed Consent Form - High School Student Sample

Your participation in this research must be completely voluntary. If you do decide to participate, you may withdraw at any time without any consequences or any explanation. If you do withdraw from the study your questionnaire will be destroyed.

In terms of protecting your anonymity, you are asked to not write any identifying information, such as your name or date of birth on your questionnaire. In addition, this informed consent sheet will be stored separately from your questionnaire so your name cannot be linked to your responses in any way. Your confidentiality and the confidentiality of your questionnaire and informed consent sheet will be protected by ensuring all materials are kept in a filing cabinet in a locked office. Only members of the research team will have access to these materials. Data from this study will be disposed of in seven years by shredding the consent forms and the questionnaires.

It is anticipated that the results of this study will be shared with others in the following ways: a dissertation, a presentation at a scholarly meeting, and a published article.

In addition to being able to contact the researcher and the supervisor at the above phone numbers, you may verify the ethical approval of this study, or raise any concerns you might have, by contacting the Associate Vice President Research at the University of Victoria (250-721-7968).

Your signature below indicates that you understand the above conditions of participation in this study and that you have had the opportunity to have your questions answered by the researchers.

_____ _____

Participant Signature Date

Appendix D

Community Mental Health Resource List

Adolescent Relationships Study Resource List

Below is a list of mental health and counseling services that may be of use to you. This list does not include all available resources but is intended as a guide to some of the services. These agencies should be able to provide further referrals as needed.

TELEPHONE CRISIS LINES

NEED CRISIS AND INFORMATION LINE 386-6323
- Serves people experiencing urgent mental health crises

CHILDREN'S HELPLINE 310-1234
- Serves children and youth experiencing abuse

CHILD AND YOUTH MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

VICTORIA CHILD & YOUTH MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES 356-1123
712 Yates Street
Victoria, BC
- Services child and teen residents of Victoria

SAANICH CHILD & YOUTH MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES 952-5073
201-4478 West Saanich Road
Saanich, BC
- Serves child and teen residents of Saanich

WESTERN COMMUNITIES CHILD & YOUTH MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES 391-2260
(Please note: Receptionist answers the telephone stating "Ministry for Children and Families")
104-3179 Jacklin Road
Langford, BC
- Serves child and teen residents of Langford, Colwood, View Royal, Metchosin, and Sooke

SERVICES FOR WOMEN ONLY

VICTORIA WOMEN'S SEXUAL ASSAULT CENTRE 383-5545
24-hour crisis line 383-3232
- Serves women who have experienced sexual abuse or assault

Appendix E

Demographic Information

1. What is your age? _____

2. Are you: Female _____ Male _____

3. What year of university are you currently in?
   1st _____ 2nd _____ 3rd _____ 4th _____

4. What group best describes your ethnic/racial background? (e.g., First Nations, White, etc...) _____

5. What is the highest level of education obtained by your mother?

some high school	_____	some graduate or professional school (e.g., law or medical school)	_____
completed high school	_____		
some university	_____		
completed university	_____	completed graduate or professional school	_____

6. What is your mother's current occupation? _____

7. What is the highest level of education obtained by your father?

some high school	_____	some graduate or professional school (e.g., law or medical school)	_____
completed high school	_____		
some university	_____		
completed university	_____	completed graduate or professional school	_____

8. What is your father's current occupation? _____

9. What is the current marital status of your parents?

married	_____	divorced	_____
never married	_____	remarried	_____
separated	_____		

10. Most of the time prior to age 18, I lived primarily with:

both biological or adoptive parents	_____	single parent family	_____
		legal guardian	_____
one biological/adoptive parent and one step parent	_____	other (please describe)	_____
			_____

Appendix F

Academic Information

1. What grade(s) did you receive in the *last five university courses you took*?

Course #1

A+_____	A_____	A-_____
B+_____	B_____	B-_____
C+_____	C_____	C-_____
F_____	Incomplete_____	Cannot remember_____

I never took a university course prior to this term _____

Course #2

A+_____	A_____	A-_____
B+_____	B_____	B-_____
C+_____	C_____	C-_____
F_____	Incomplete_____	Cannot remember_____

I did not take more than 1university course prior to this term _____

Course #3

A+_____	A_____	A-_____
B+_____	B_____	B-_____
C+_____	C_____	C-_____
F_____	Incomplete_____	Cannot remember_____

I did not take more than 2 university courses prior to this term _____

Course #4

A+_____	A_____	A-_____
B+_____	B_____	B-_____
C+_____	C_____	C-_____
F_____	Incomplete_____	Cannot remember_____

I did not take more than 3 university courses prior to this term _____

Course #5

A+_____	A_____	A-_____
B+_____	B_____	B-_____
C+_____	C_____	C-_____
F_____	Incomplete_____	Cannot remember_____

I did not take more than 4 university courses prior to this term _____

Appendix F – con't

Academic Information

2. What grade did you receive in grade 12 high school English? If you took more than one grade 12 English course, mark the highest grade you received.

A+_____ A_____ A-_____
B+_____ B_____ B-_____
C+_____ C_____ C-_____
F_____ I did not take this course_____
I cannot remember_____

3. What grade did you receive in grade 12 high school Science? If you took more than one grade 12 Science course, mark the highest grade you received.

A+_____ A_____ A-_____
B+_____ B_____ B-_____
C+_____ C_____ C-_____
F_____ I did not take this course_____
I cannot remember_____

4. What grade did you receive in grade 12 high school Mathematics? If you took more than one grade 12 Mathematics course, mark the highest grade you received.

A+_____ A_____ A-_____
B+_____ B_____ B-_____
C+_____ C_____ C-_____
F_____ I did not take this course_____
I cannot remember_____

5. Have you ever failed a course? No _____ Yes _____
   If yes, how many courses? _____
   If yes, in what grade(s) in school or what year in college or university?_____

6. Have you ever been suspended from any school? No _____ Yes _____

7. Have you ever been expelled from any school? No _____ Yes _____

Appendix F – con't

Academic Information

8. In terms of your aspirations for your education, how far do you **hope** to go in school?[8]
   some high school _____
   complete high school _____
   some university _____
   complete university (e.g., B.A. or B.Sc.)_____
   some graduate or professional school (e.g., law or medical school) _____
   complete graduate or professional school (e.g., M.A., PhD., LLB) _____

9. Considering your abilities, support, available monies, etc..., how far do you actually **expect** to go in school?
   some high school _____
   complete high school _____
   some university _____
   complete university (e.g., B.A. or B.Sc.)_____
   some graduate or professional school (e.g., law or medical school) _____
   complete graduate or professional school (e.g., M.A., PhD., LLB) _____

[8] For university students, responses involving high school were not included as these students had already exceeded this level of education.

Appendix G

Dating history

1. Have you ever gone on a date? no _____ yes _____

If no, please go to page #.

If yes, please answer the following questions.

2. How old were you when you went on your first date? _____

3 Have you ever had a steady dating partner, in other words a boyfriend or girlfriend? no _____ yes _____

If yes, how old were you when you had your first steady dating partner or girlfriend/boyfriend? _____

4. Do you currently have a boyfriend or girlfriend? no _____ yes _____

If yes, for how many weeks or months have you been dating?
_____ weeks **OR** _____ months

5. How frequently do you date?

Almost every night	_____	3 to 4 times a week	_____
Once or twice a week	_____	Once every 2 weeks	_____
A few times a month	_____	A few times a year	_____

6. How many different people have you been out on a date with since you began dating?
one _____ 2 to 4 _____ 5 to 10 _____ more than 10 _____

7. How many steady dating partners, in other words boyfriends or girlfriends, have you had since you began dating? _____

Appendix H

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

No matter how well a people who are dating get 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. People who are dating 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, and how many times a date or boyfriend/ girlfriend of yours did them to you. In addition, please write down the number of dating relationships in which you or your dates or girlfriends/boyfriends did these things.

How often did this happen?
0 = never
1 = once
2 = twice
3 = 3 - 5 times
4 = 6 - 10 times
5 = 11 - 20 times
6 = more than 20 times

1. I showed my date or boyfriend/girlfriend I cared even though we disagreed.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

2. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend showed that (s)he cared for me even though we disagreed.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

3. I explained my side of a disagreement to my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

4. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend explained his or her side of a disagreement to me.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

5. I insulted or swore at my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

6. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

7. I threw something at my date or girlfriend/boyfriend that could hurt.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

8. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H – con't

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

9. I twisted my date's or boyfriend/girlfriend's arm or hair.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

10. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

11. I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

12. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. I showed respect for my date's or boyfriend/girlfriend's feelings about an issue.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

14. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend showed respect for my feelings about an issue.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

15. I made my date or girlfriend/boyfriend have sex without a condom.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

16. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

17. I pushed or shoved my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

18. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

19. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my date or girlfriend/boyfriend have oral or anal sex.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

20. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

21. I used a knife or gun on my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

22. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H – con't

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

23. I passed out from being hit on the head by my date or girlfriend/boyfriend in a fight.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

24. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend passed out from being hit on the head in a fight me with.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

25. I called my date or boyfriend/girlfriend fat or ugly.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

26. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend called me fat or ugly.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

27. I punched or hit my date or girlfriend/boyfriend with something that could hurt.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

28. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

29. I destroyed something belonging to my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

30. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

31. I went to a doctor because of a fight with my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

32. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend went to a doctor because of a fight with me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

33. I choked my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

34. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

35. I shouted or yelled at my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

36. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H – con't

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

37. I slammed my date or boyfriend/girlfriend against a wall.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

38. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

39. I said I was sure we could work out a problem.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

40. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend was sure we could work it out.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

41. I needed to see a doctor because of fight with my date or boyfriend/girlfriend, but I didn't.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

42. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend needed to see a doctor because of a fight with me, but didn't.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

43. I beat up my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

44. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

45. I grabbed my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

46. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

47. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my date or girlfriend/boyfriend have sex.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

48. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

49. I stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

50. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H – con't

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

51. I insisted on sex when my date or girlfriend/boyfriend did not want to (but did not use physical force).
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

52. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

53. I slapped my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

54. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

55. I had a broken bone from a fight with my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

56. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend had a broken bone from a fight with me.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

57. I used threats to make my date or boyfriend/girlfriend have oral or anal sex.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

58. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

59. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

60. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

61. I burned or scalded my date or boyfriend/girlfriend on purpose.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

62. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

63. I insisted my date or girlfriend/boyfriend have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force).
    0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H – con't

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

64. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

65. I accused my date or boyfriend/girlfriend of being a lousy lover.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

66. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend accused me of this.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

67. I did something to spite my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

68. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

69. I threatened to hit or throw something at my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

70. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

71. I felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with my date or girlfriend/boyfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

72. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend still felt physical pain the next day because of a fight we had.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

73. I kicked my date or boyfriend/girlfriend.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

74. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

75. I used threats to make my date or girlfriend/boyfriend have sex.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

76. My date or girlfriend/boyfriend did this to me.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

77. I agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my date or boyfriend/girlfriend suggested.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H – con't

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2)

78. My date or boyfriend/girlfriend agreed to try a solution I suggested.
0 1 2 3 4 5 6

In how many of your dating relationships have you been the recipient of any physical aggression as indicated in the some of the above questions (e.g., been hit, pushed, slapped, beaten, etc., by your partner)? _____ (# of relationships)

In how many of your dating relationships have you been the one to be physically aggressive (e.g., you hit, pushed, slapped, beat etc., your partner)? _____ (# of relationships)

The dating relationship(s) in which I have been involved have:
always been with only member(s) of the opposite sex (heterosexual) _____
included both member(s) of the opposite sex and members of my own sex _____
always been with only members of my own sex (homosexual) _____

Appendix I

Conflict Tactics Scale - Witnessing Spousal Abuse

Here are some questions about the types of conflict, if any, in your parents' or parental figures' (e.g., step-mother, step-father, foster mother, or foster father) relationship when you were age 18 or younger. Taking into account all disagreements (not just the most serious ones), please circle how often your mother and father (or parental figures) did the things listed at any time during a typical year when you were age 18 or younger based on the scale provided below.

0 = never
1= once a year
2 = twice a year
3 = 3 to 5 times a year
4 = 6 to 10 times a year
5 = 11 to 20 times a year
6 = more than 20 times a year
E = not in a typical year, but at least once ever

	mother-to-father	**father-to-mother**
1. Yelled, screamed, or called the other names.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
2. Threatened to hit or throw something.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
3. Threw or smashed or hit or kicked something.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
4. Pushed, shoved, or grabbed the other.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
5. Hit, threw something at, or kicked the other.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
6. Slapped the other.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
7. Kicked, bit, or hit the other with a fist.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
8. Hit or tried to hit the other with something.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
9. Beat up the other.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
10. Choked the other.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
11. Threatened the other with a knife or gun.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E
12. Used a knife or fired a gun.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 E

Appendix J

Conflict Tactics Scale – Community Violence Witness

Please indicate how often you **witnessed** the following acts in your community (e.g., in your neighbourhood, at school etc.. *but not including any of these events occurring among members of your own family*) when you were age 18 or younger, using the following scale:

0 = never **1** = rarely **2** = sometimes **3** = often **4** = very often.

1. Someone being pushed, grabbed, or shoved	0	1	2	3	4
2. Someone being kicked.	0	1	2	3	4
3. Someone being hit with a fist.	0	1	2	3	4
4. Someone being hit with an object.	0	1	2	3	4
5. Someone being beaten up.	0	1	2	3	4
6. Someone being threatened with a knife or gun.	0	1	2	3	4
7. Someone being stabbed.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Someone being shot.	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix J - con't

Conflict Tactics Scale – Community Violence Perpetrator

Please indicate how often you **committed** the following acts *not including those involving dating experiences (i.e., not toward a date or boyfriend or girlfriend)*, when you were age 18 or younger, using the following scale:
0 = never **1** = rarely **2** = sometimes **3** = often **4** = very often

1. Pushed, grabbed, or shoved someone.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Kicked someone.	0	1	2	3	4
3. Hit someone with a fist.	0	1	2	3	4
4. Hit someone with an object.	0	1	2	3	4
5. Beat up someone.	0	1	2	3	4
6. Threatened someone with a knife or gun.	0	1	2	3	4
7. Stabbed someone.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Shot someone.	0	1	2	3	4

Did any of the above events occur toward a family member (e.g., sibling, parent)?
Yes _____ No _____
If yes, was it toward: brother _____
sister _____
mother _____
father _____
other (please specify) _____

If any of these events involved people outside of your family, was the other person: (check all that apply)
a friend or acquaintance _____
a stranger _____
male _____ female _____
someone close to my age (within 5 years) _____
someone older than me (by 5 years or more) _____

Were you involved in any such events as part of a group? Yes _____ No _____

Appendix J - con't

Conflict Tactics Scale – Community Violence Victim

Please indicate how often you **personally experienced** the following acts being done to you by *someone other than a date, boyfriend, girlfriend, or a parent (or parental figure)* when you were age 18 or younger, using the following scale:
0 = never **1** = rarely **2** = sometimes **3** = often **4** = very often

1. Being pushed, grabbed, or shoved.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Being kicked.	0	1	2	3	4
3. Being hit with a fist.	0	1	2	3	4
4. Being hit with an object.	0	1	2	3	4
5. Being beaten up.	0	1	2	3	4
6. Being threatened with a knife or gun.	0	1	2	3	4
7. Being stabbed.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Being shot.	0	1	2	3	4

Did any of the above events involve a family member (e.g., a sibling)?

Yes _____ No _____

If yes, was it committed by: brother _____
sister _____
other (please specify) _____

If someone outside your family was involved, was the other person (check all that apply):
a friend or acquaintance _____
a stranger _____

male ____ female _____

someone close to my age (within 5 years) _____
someone older than me (by 5 years or more) _____

Did this ever involve a group (i.e., more than one person) at the same time?
Yes _____ No _____

Appendix K

The Physical Abuse Questionnaire

Please answer how often your mother (or maternal figure like a step-mother or foster mother) and your father (or paternal figure like a step-father or foster father) did the following things to you when you were age 18 or younger, using the following scale:

0 = never **1** = rarely **2** = sometimes **3** = often **4** = very often

	Mother	**Father**
1. Spank you for misbehaving.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
2. Spank you hard enough to cause bruising, swelling, or bleeding.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
3. Twist, yank, or bend your leg, arm, or finger in a painful manner.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
4. Push, throw, or knock you down or into an object such as a wall or piece of furniture.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
5. Hit or punch you with a closed fist.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
6. Burn or scald you on purpose.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
7. Harm you physically with a weapon or other dangerous object.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
8. Break your bone(s) or teeth when they were being rough or violent with you.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
9. Beat you up.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
10. Hit or slap you with an open hand (not including spanking).	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
11. Kick you with their foot or strike you hard with a knee or elbow.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
12. Throw some household object at you (e.g., vase, ashtray) that caused you to be hurt physically.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
13. Pull your hair or ear in a painful manner.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4

Appendix K - con't

The Physical Abuse Questionnaire

14. Choke you.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
15. Hit you with an object such as a belt, cord, kitchen utensil, board, or stick.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
16. Torture you physically.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
17. Try to kill you.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4

Appendix L

The Self-Efficacy Scale

This questionnaire is a series of attitude statements about you. I am interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree with them.

Please read each statement carefully. Then indicate how much you agree or disagree by circling the appropriate number after each statement. The numbers and their meanings are explained below.

If you agree strongly with the statement,	Circle number 1
If you agree somewhat with the statement,	Circle number 2
If you agree slightly with the statement,	Circle number 3
If you disagree slightly with the statement,	Circle number 4
If you disagree somewhat with the statement,	Circle number 5
If you disagree strongly with the statement,	Circle number 6

1. When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I give up on things before completing them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I avoid facing difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix L - con't

The Self-Efficacy Scale

10. When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Failure just makes me try harder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I feel insecure about my ability to do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I am a self-reliant person	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I give up easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. It is difficult for me to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. If I see someone I would like to met, I go to that person instead of waiting for him or her to come to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix L - con't

The Self-Efficacy Scale

22. I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I have acquired my friends through my personal ability at making friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix M

The Physical Self-Efficacy Scale

1. I have excellent reflexes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I am not agile and graceful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am rarely embarrassed by my voice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My physique is rather strong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Sometimes I don't hold up well under stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I can't run fast.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I have physical defects that sometimes bother me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I don't feel in control when I take tests involving physical dexterity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I am never intimidated by the thought of a sexual encounter.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. People think negative things about me because of my posture.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I am not hesitant about disagreeing with people bigger than me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I have poor muscle tone.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I take little pride in my ability in sports.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Athletic people usually do not receive more attention than me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix M - con't

The Physical Self-Efficacy Scale

15. I am sometimes envious of those better looking than myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Sometimes my laugh embarrasses me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I am not concerned with the impression my physique makes on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Sometimes I feel uncomfortable shaking hands because my hands are clammy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. My speed has helped me out of some tight spots.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I find that I am not accident prone.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I have a strong grip.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Because of my agility, I have been able to do things which many others could not do.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix N

The Measure of Academic Self-Efficacy

1. If I did not do well when I first tried an extra-curricular activity, I would keep trying.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. When I fail at a task, I think that I am just not bright enough to ever succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I usually feel that if I try to succeed at something, I will be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I like the challenge of new activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am confident in my academic abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I tend to worry a lot about trying new activities or subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I spend more time being afraid of not doing something well, than actually doing it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I find problems are an exciting challenge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Even though I am not good at some things I do, I keep trying because I know I can improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. If I were to do badly in one year at school, I would feel that I would never do well at school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I like to volunteer for new activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. If I were not doing well at school, I would assume that I was going to fail and stop trying.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix N – con't

The Measure of Academic Self-Efficacy

13. If I were having trouble with a homework problem, I would keep trying until I got the correct answer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. If I were not to do well in a extra-curricular activity, my will to continue would drop.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. If I were not to do well in a particular extra-curricular activity, I will not bother to keep trying.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I feel that no matter how hard I work on a subject, I can never do really well, so why bother trying.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. If an instructor were to introduce a new thing in class, I would be very interested in trying it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I wonder "why bother even trying to solve a difficult homework problem"?	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. If I were to fail a test I would think that I had no ability at all and would stop trying to succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. If I were to fail a subject once, I would just give up on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix O

Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

1. I have a difficult time accepting when a person no longer wants to date me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. If my date called me names or became disrespectful, I would not know how to handle the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. It is easy for me to get a date when I want one.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I do not find it easy making conversation on a date.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. If I experienced dating violence, I would be able to turn to my friends for support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When my dating relationships come to an end, my dating partner is typically the one who chooses to end the relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I feel confident in my ability to protect myself if my date became physically aggressive with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I have an easy time meeting people that I might be interesting in dating.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. If I experienced dating violence, I would not utilize community resources.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I cannot easily let my date know when I want the date to end.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I feel confident in my ability to protect myself if my date became verbally threatening.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix O - con't

Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

12. When my dating relationships come to an end, I am typically the one who chooses to end the relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I often feel uncomfortable during a date.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I do not find it embarrassing when I am asked for a date.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Dates frequently end before I want them to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. If I experienced dating violence, I would utilize on-campus resources.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I often worry that my date will not like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I do not have difficulty ending a dating relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. If my date made unwanted sexual advances, I would have difficulty letting my date know that I was not interested.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. People do not approach me for dates very often.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I am good at planning activities for a date.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. If someone I was not interested in asked me for a date, I would not find it difficult to say no.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I can tell when my date is enjoying himself/himself.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix O - con't

Dating Self-Efficacy Scale

24. If my date became sexually aggressive, I would have a difficult time protecting myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. In general, I have a hard time asking someone I am interested in for a date.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. My dating relationships typically last as long as I want them too.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. If I experienced dating violence, I would not be able to turn to my family for support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I know how to make sure I stay safe on dates.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix P

T-Tests for Questionnaire Ordering

	Psychological			Physical			Sexual		
	M	SD	t	M	SD	t	M	SD	t
High School Students (n = 68 – 71)									
Perpetration									
Version 1	10.9	9.4	.75	4.3	5.8	-1.04	2.2	4.2	-1.38
Version 2	9.4	7.4		6.3	9.3		4.2	7.5	
Victimization									
Version 1	10.5	10.5	.26	7.8	14.4	.14	4.5	7.9	-.65
Version 2	9.9	8.7		7.3	10.7		5.7	6.6	
University Students (n = 196 – 197)									
Perpetration									
Version 1	7.2	6.5	.48	1.8	3.6	.11			
Version 2	6.7	5.9		1.7	3.7				
Victimization									
Version 1	6.1	6.1	.49	1.6	2.7	-.02			
Version 2	5.6	5.9		1.6	3.8				