

2012

Judgments of arrest and attitudes toward women's self-defence in situations of intimate partner violence

Mia Sisic

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JUDGMENTS OF ARREST AND ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN'S SELF-
DEFENCE IN SITUATIONS OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE

by
Mia Susic

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through Psychology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Arts at the
University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada
2012
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Judgments of Arrest and Attitudes Toward Women's Self-defence in Situations of
Intimate Partner Violence

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Recent changes in police enforcement of the policy of mandatory arrest in heterosexual domestic violence situations have resulted in increased rates of women being arrested for assault even though their violence was in self-defence. Fifty-five university students participated in the online pilot study (phase 1) examining the perceptions of stereotypic and non-stereotypic female self-defence. The most (scratching) and least stereotypic (use of a kitchen knife) behaviours were then inserted into scenarios in the main study. Forty-five potential police officers from university and college settings participated online in the main study (phase 2) which examined attitudes and reactions to the victim, perpetrator, perceived appropriate interventions and acceptability of violence of both individuals, when a woman has used violence in self-defence. Though the majority of participants condemned the man's violence and would arrest him, a sizeable proportion of participants did not view the woman's self-defence as acceptable and would not rule out arresting her.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To Dr. Charlene Senn for her encouragement, patience, feedback, and many valuable learning experiences these past two years. To my committee members who were extremely patient, helpful and flexible during the entire process of putting this document together.

A big thank-you to my amazing friends Dusty, Joanna, Lauren, Melissa, and Michelle for making this thesis a sane(r) experience. You were all an amazing source of comfort and useful information.

To my sister Ema and my partner Mike who gave me understanding and comfort through the entire process of writing this thesis. Words cannot express the gratitude I feel for all the times you let me prioritize my academic life and never left me feeling guilty because of it.

Finally, to my parents, Dobrila and Ruzmir, who had the courage to risk and leave their own lives to ensure that I have the best chance at a successful and happy life. You always pushed me to read more, learn more, and understand more. This thesis would not have been possible without you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF APPENDICES	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION.....	1
<i>Gender Symmetry</i>	2
<i>Vulnerable Populations</i>	5
<i>Race</i>	5
<i>Socioeconomic Status</i>	6
<i>History of Mandatory Arrest Policies and Dual Arrest</i>	7
<i>Police Attitudes Toward Heterosexual Intimate Partner Violence</i>	9
<i>Chivalry Theory</i>	11
<i>Role of Sexism</i>	12
<i>Benevolent Sexism</i>	13
<i>Hostile Sexism</i>	14
<i>Intended Purposes and Hypotheses of Present Study</i>	16
<i>Methodological Error Leading to Revision</i>	19
<i>Revised Research Questions and Hypotheses</i>	19
CHAPTER II PILOT STUDY METHOD AND RESULTS	23
<i>Purpose</i>	23
<i>Participants</i>	23
<i>Measures</i>	24
<i>Demographics</i>	24
<i>Stimuli – Women’s Self-defence Behaviours</i>	24
<i>Evaluation of Women’s Self-defence Behaviours</i>	24
<i>Procedure</i>	25
<i>Results</i>	26

CHAPTER III METHOD (MAIN STUDY).....	27
<i>Participants</i>	27
<i>Measures</i>	28
<i>Demographics</i>	28
<i>Domestic Violence Scenarios</i>	28
<i>Sexism</i>	29
<i>Response to Domestic Violence</i>	29
<i>Social Desirability</i>	30
<i>Procedure</i>	31
CHAPTER IV RESULTS (MAIN STUDY).....	33
<i>Preliminary Analysis</i>	33
<i>Main Analyses</i>	35
<i>Descriptives</i>	35
<i>Bivariate Correlations</i>	39
<i>T-tests</i>	43
CHAPTER V DISCUSSION.....	49
<i>Summary of Findings</i>	49
<i>Strengths</i>	55
<i>Limitations</i>	56
<i>Conclusion</i>	60
REFERENCES.....	62
FOOTNOTES.....	70
APPENDICES.....	71
Appendix A: Demographic Questionnaire – Pilot Study.....	71
Appendix B: Stimuli – Women’s Self-defence Behaviours.....	72
Appendix C: Semantic Differential – Evaluation of Women’s Self-defence Behaviours.....	74
Appendix D: Women’s Self-defence Behaviours Stimuli and Evaluation.....	75
Appendix E: Sona System Advertisement – Pilot Study.....	83
Appendix F: Consent Form – Pilot Study.....	84
Appendix G: Post-study Information – Pilot Study.....	87
Appendix H: Demographic Questionnaire – Main Study.....	89

Appendix I: Domestic Violence Scenarios	90
Appendix J: Saunders' (1995) Original Vignettes	91
Appendix K: The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)	92
Appendix L: Response to Domestic Violence	96
Appendix M: The Social Desirability Scale – 17 (SDS-17)	99
Appendix N: E-mail Advertisement	101
Appendix O: Sona System Advertisement – Main Study	102
Appendix P: In-person Recruitment Script for Criminology Class	103
Appendix Q: Consent Form – Main Study	104
Appendix R: Post-study Information – Main Study	107
Appendix S: Perception of Race	110
VITA AUCTORIS	111

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1:	Summary of Principal Component Analysis Results for Responses to Domestic Violence	36
TABLE 2:	Summary of Components Derived from Responses to Domestic Violence	37
TABLE 3:	Psychometric Properties of Measures and Responses to Domestic Violence	38
TABLE 4:	Percent Indicating Degree of Confidence (%) That Participant Would Engage in Particular Action	40
TABLE 5:	Percent Indicating (on 11-point Likert Scale) Acceptability of Violence for Mark and Julie	41
TABLE 6:	Mean, Median, and Mode of Variables of Interest	42
TABLE 7:	Correlations between SDS-17, Benevolent Sexism, and Hostile Sexism with Responses to Domestic Violence	44
TABLE 8:	Correlations between SDS-17, Benevolent Sexism and Hostile Sexism with Reactions to Domestic Violence	45
TABLE 9:	Analysis of Key Variables by Institution Type	47
TABLE 10:	Analysis of Key Variables by Gender	48

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Intimate partner violence is a difficult term to define. Broad definitions of this problematic social phenomenon include abuse such as psychological, emotional, and physical while the narrow definitions tend to concentrate on sexual and physical violence (see DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998 for review). Estimates of women affected by intimate partner violence annually range from 0.4% to 18.3% and a prevalence of up to 36.4% in population-based studies (see Clark & Du Mont, 2003 for review), partially depending on the definition used. Regardless of the type of abuse and the number of those affected by it, it is obvious that this violence has serious psychological and physical impacts on the victims (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Neidig, & Thom, 1995; Golding, 1999; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001) and should be researched in great depth.

One of the most publicly and criminally recognized type of abuse in intimate partner violence is domestic violence in the form of physical abuse. This area of research is particularly important because of recent and interconnected developments in the criminal justice system: enforcement of mandatory arrest policies in the 1980's (Department of Justice Canada, 2011) and the increased rates of women arrested for physical abuse against their male partners (Dasgupta, 2002; Miller, 2001). In order to understand these issues, it is important to know who the victims and perpetrators are and how individuals in the criminal justice system respond to domestic violence. As a preliminary step, the current research will examine attitudes toward and judgments of victims who fight back against their abusers using a sample of students enrolled in a program that prepares them for a career in law enforcement.

Gender Symmetry

Statistics Canada (2009) reports that women and men report similar rates of spousal violence. This appears to support gender symmetry, the claim that violence perpetrated by men and women is symmetrical in rate of occurrence, severity, motivations, and consequences. However, researchers and activists approaching the topic from a radical feminist perspective find gender symmetry in heterosexual intimate partner violence doubtful and have for decades suggested that violence is gendered – that men and women are violent in different ways and with different consequences. In fact, according to Statistics Canada's Family Violence in Canada (2009) report, about six in ten women have experienced spousal violence at the hands of their male partners on more than one occasion in the past five years whereas about four in ten men have experienced the same from female partners. Further, of the people who have reported spousal violence, more than three times the number of women than men have experienced severe types of spousal violence (e.g., sexual assault, threat with a gun or knife). These statistics suggest that men's and women's use of violence differs in the severity and occurrence of perpetrated intimate partner violence, with men committing more serious acts more often.

Some of the discrepancies in understanding of the phenomena of intimate partner violence can be attributed to the measure used by researchers to study the topic. The Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS; Straus, 1979) is a widely used measure for identification of intimate partner violence that is rooted in a theory of gender symmetry. Some important problems with the CTS include the fact that it rank orders behaviours from least to most

serious without recognition of the consequences of the behaviour (e.g., a slap can leave little physical injury or it may be severe enough to require medical assistance) and motivations for the violence (offensive or defensive). The measure also presumes that violence is family-based rather than rooted in male to female violence, it does not have a comprehensive list of types of abuse, and it only asks for violence rooted in a conflict or dispute. DeKeseredy and Schwartz (1998) point out that although some problems related to the measure have been addressed in the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2, Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996; e.g., items on more types of abuse, outcome measures of the abuse), some important issues remain. For over a decade, researchers have known about these and other issues with the CTS (see DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Taft, Hegarty, & Flood, 2001 for more detail). These issues are important to recognize and address, because the measure is the most widely used in intimate partner violence research and is rooted in and supports the idea of gender symmetry. Other measures that do not support gender symmetry (e.g., DeKeseredy, Saunders, Schwartz, & Alvi, 1997) paint a different picture of intimate partner violence and how women use violence.

Radical feminist theory suggests that in heterosexual relationships men tend to be violent for reasons such as power and control (Pence & Paymar, 1993) whereas women tend to use violence as a means of self-defence (DeKeseredy et al., 1997). A Canadian national survey examined women's motivations for using violence in heterosexual dating relationships (DeKeseredy et al., 1997). The study used an expanded version of the CTS, but also included items about motives for dating violence (i.e., self-defence, fighting back, or using the actions before the male dating partner actually attacked or threatened to

attack). Based solely on results of the CTS, one would find support for gender symmetry: women are as violent as men. However, when used with the data from the motives portion of the study, it was found that a majority of women did not initiate the violence. The more frequently women reported they were victims of physical violence, the more likely they were to have used violence in self-defence (DeKeseredy et al., 1997). Research also suggests that women who are arrested and charged as perpetrators of intimate partner violence are more likely than men to be resorting to violence as a means of self-defence or in an attempt to escape a violent incident (e.g., Melton & Belknap, 2003). In addition, police reports show that women arrested for intimate partner violence often report having committed the violence out of frustration, fear, or self-defence rather than to intimidate or control their partner (Muftic, Bouffard, & Bouffard, 2007).

Similar acts may also have different consequences depending on the gender of the person committing the violence (Johnson & Sacco, 1995). One noteworthy American study compared the prevalence and consequences of intimate partner violence between men and women using data from a telephone survey, the National Violence Against Women Survey (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001). The authors looked at a spectrum of violence including stalking, rape, and physical assault. Not only did they find that women were significantly more likely than men to be victimized in the 12 months preceding the survey and across a lifetime, but men and women also differed in the consequences that they experienced from violence (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001). Women were significantly more likely than men to have sustained an injury from the violence, received medical care, been hospitalized, received counseling, and lost time from work. In another study, Rand found that 84% of people treated by hospital emergency

department personnel for suspected or confirmed intimate partner violence inflicted injuries were women (as cited in Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001). These studies suggest that the consequences of intimate partner violence are gender dependent and that man against woman violence has greater costs (e.g., lost work time, received medical care) for the victim than woman against man violence.

Radical feminist theory is therefore supported by research showing that violence is gendered: when men use violence against women, they do so with different motivations, more frequently, with more severity, and worse consequences than when women are perpetrators of violence against men. Further, women who belong to vulnerable populations (e.g., race, class) may be at a higher risk of intimate partner violence and experience the victimization differently (Brownridge, 2009; Richie, 2000).

Vulnerable Populations

Race. When writing about race in relation to domestic violence, American literature often focuses on Black and Latina women. In Canada, however, Aboriginal women compared to non-Aboriginal women are at least twice as likely to be victims of spousal violence (Brennan, 2011). Further, nearly half of the Aboriginal women who are victims of violence by a current or former partner experience the most severe forms of violence (Brennan, 2011). Brownridge (2009) analyzed a Canadian national survey (General Social Survey) from 1999 and 2004. He found that when relevant social background variables (age, education, and previous marriage or common law union) were not statistically controlled, Aboriginal women have approximately 300% greater odds of violence when compared to non-Aboriginal women. These odds, however, were not statistically significant possibly due to the small sample size of Aboriginal participants

(Brownridge, 2009). When the social background variables mentioned above, situational characteristics of the woman's relationship (e.g., duration, woman's and partner's employment, marital status) and patriarchal dominance (single item regarding control of family finances) were statistically controlled, Aboriginal women's elevated odds of violence were reduced by 194% in the 1999 survey and 85% in 2004. There were some limitations to the data used for analysis by Brownridge that may have affected the results. For example, Aboriginal women who were not fluent in French or English could not participate in the study and the northern territories were not included in the analysis.

Razack (1994) posits that colonization has been a contributing factor to the higher rates of sexual violence in Aboriginal populations. Some important changes in the criminal justice system have resulted in colonization being used as a mitigating factor to understand Aboriginal male offenders' actions, but unfortunately not as a way to understand Aboriginal female victimization (Razack, 1994). This has resulted in lighter sentences for Aboriginal men. Razack (1994) argues that colonization should be recognized as having an impact on both the offenders and the victims. Therefore, like their experiences with sexual violence, Aboriginal women's higher rates of spousal violence may be at least partially due to the effects of colonization.

Socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status (SES) has been frequently defined as three factors: income, education, and/or occupation (APA, 2012). Some research findings suggest a weak or nonsignificant link between SES factors and domestic violence perpetration and victimization (see Stith, Smith, Penn, Ward, & Tritt, 2004 for meta-analysis). Other research supports the idea that SES and rates of IPV are inversely related (Anderson, 1997; Frye, Haviland, & Rajah, 2007; Tolman & Rosen, 2001).

Theories explaining higher reported levels of intimate partner violence in lower SES couples range from micro-level to macro-level characteristics. For example, some researchers suggest that economic difficulties and proneness to violence are rooted in the same underlying problem such as low self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Others speculate that these rates only appear to be higher because of differential reporting (i.e., people living in poorer areas are more likely to report IPV than those who live in more affluent areas; Miles-Doan, 1998). Research does suggest differential police response to low-income women, such that these women are less likely to desire punishment or arrest of their partner, but they are also more likely to report that police took their partner away (Barrett, St. Pierre, & Vaillancourt, 2011). Still other researchers suggest that it is the symbolic loss of power associated with employment (Benson, Fox, DeMaris, & Van Wyk, 2003) in a culture that assesses men's worth by their ability to provide economically that puts women at risk of male violence. This is supported by research showing that women's unemployment is unrelated to violence yet their male partner's unemployment predicted violence against women (Brownridge, 2009). In conclusion, the relationship between SES and domestic violence is not yet clear.

History of Mandatory Arrest Policies and Dual Arrest

As examined above, male perpetrated violence against women is a serious social and criminal issue that should continue to be examined in depth. Further, policies that affect how men and women are treated in domestic violence cases need to be acknowledged and examined. Fedders (1997) reviewed the documented history of legal policies and police action in response to domestic violence. Prior to the 1970's, spousal violence was viewed as a personal problem between the individuals in a couple rather

than a criminal act (Fedders 1997; Department of Justice Canada, 2011). The majority of police officers and others involved in the criminal processes during this time were fairly indifferent to the plight of battered women. In response to the failure to adequately respond to battered women's calls to police, feminist attorneys in the 1970's filed class-action lawsuits against police departments. This was followed by a commitment from police departments to intervene when they could. Conflict resolution continued to be the optimal way of handling a domestic call (e.g., counseling the couple or walking around the block with the man to calm him down). The battered women's movement continued their fight to implement change and in the 1980's, many U.S. states (Fedders, 1997) began adopting mandatory arrests statutes while Canadian provinces and territories began enforcing them more strictly (Department of Justice Canada, 2011). This meant that police officers were required to make arrests in domestic violence cases. Mandated arrest should not to be confused with mandatory charge or mandatory prosecution. Arrest does not necessarily lead to charges or prosecution.

Through the efforts of the battered women's movement, domestic abuse came to be seen as a visible social and criminal issue (Fedders, 1997). Since the enforcement of mandatory arrest policies, dual arrest has been on the rise (National Institute of Justice, 2008). Dual arrest is a term used when police officers are called to a domestic disturbance and both the man and the woman are arrested. The disparity across police departments in dual arrest rates may suggest that departmental policy to enforce mandatory arrest laws may be an important factor in who is arrested (Martin, 1997). Research suggests that some police officers would exercise dual arrest if both parties used physical violence regardless of intent (DeJong, Burgess-Proctor, & Elis, 2008). In other

words, women are arrested even when they claim that they acted in self-defence, a legal right that they hold according to Sections 34 to 37 of the Canadian Criminal Code (Department of Justice Canada, 2012). It has been suggested that dual arrest rates are higher after enforcement (or, in the case of U.S., implementation) of mandatory arrest laws due to police backlash to these laws. Martin (1997) suggests that because they have been mandated to make an arrest, police officers will arrest both individuals. This is thought to be a reaction on the part of the police officers for being told to do something they do not want to do.

Police Attitudes Toward Heterosexual Intimate Partner Violence

Along with mandatory arrest policies, patriarchal police attitudes toward women have also been implicated in dual arrest practices and in arresting a female victim. In an observational study of ride-alongs, 209 officers interacted in 461 intimate partner violence calls (DeJong et al., 2008). The analysis showed that the officers had problematic and progressive (e.g., recognition of women's barriers to leave a violent relationship) perceptions of intimate partner violence. For example, some officers engaged in victim-blaming dialogue and had patriarchal attitudes toward women (e.g., name calling). On the other hand, some officers recognized the complexity of intimate partner violence (e.g., it is not always clear who the aggressor is and who the victim is). DeJong et al. (2008) illustrate some of the problematic perceptions of intimate partner violence with the following example: police officers arrived at a scene where a woman had facial bruising; in self-defence, the woman inflicted some injuries to her partner, after which he fled the scene; the officer at the scene decided not to issue an arrest warrant for the woman's partner, because the situation involved "mutual combat". This example

illustrates a problem associated with women using self-defence: some officers may conclude that she is as much of a perpetrator as the man. Further, in some of the cases, the officers commented that they would have to arrest the perpetrator and the victim in the domestic violence call, because they both used physical violence. The officers asserted this even though many of the women used physical violence as a means to self-defence. Indeed, as reviewed previously, women using violence predominantly as a means to self-defence is supported by research (e.g., DeKeseredy et al., 1997). DeJong et al. (2008) suggest that further research is needed on police perceptions of victims' use of self-defence.

Dual arrest situations are distinct from sole female and sole male arrests in some important ways. Nearly three quarters of dual arrested women have physical markings of injury (Muftic, Bouffard, & Bouffard, 2007). Dual arrested women also tend to be employed and young (Martin, 1997). In Martin's research (1997) White women were more likely to be arrested. However, the author recognizes that this is not in line with other literature that shows Black women victims are more likely to be arrested than White women victims (e.g., Bourq & Stock, 1994). Martin suggests that her research examined less serious situations which is why she found that White women were more likely to be arrested. Bourq and Stock's (1994) research showed that Black women are more likely than White women to be arrested on more serious aggravation charges. In fact, when Black women victims were arrested, they were likely arrested for serious aggravated battery. In contrast, White women were more likely to be arrested for less serious aggravated battery. Black women, particularly those in the lower socioeconomic status, tend to be more financially independent than White middle-class women and have at least

equal status in families as males (Black, 1980), so some researchers suggest that Black women break stereotypic female norms and are punished for doing so (e.g., they are arrested; Bourg & Stock, 1994; Robinson & Chandek, 2000; Visher, 1983). Therefore, research overall suggests that women who exhibit non-traditional female characteristics are more likely to be arrested than women who adhere to gender norms and expectations.

Chivalry theory. Chivalry theory is the notion that women receive special treatment from police officers for displaying gender appropriate (that is, stereotypic female) behaviours or attributes (Robinson & Chandek, 2000; Visher, 1983). The theory implies that an exchange between a male police officer and a female victim/offender is turned into one between a man and a woman. This has implications for women who do not conform to stereotypic female roles (Visher, 1983).

Chivalry theory has empirical support in the latter stages of the criminal justice system (e.g., sentencing decisions), but limited work has been done in earlier contact with the criminal justice system (i.e., the arrest decision). One of the few studies done was an observational study of police-citizen encounters which examined variables that influenced arrest decisions by a nearly all male police officer sample (Visher, 1983). The study found that police officers were more influenced by demographic factors such as age when it came to arrest decisions for women rather than men. The author suggests that police officers display more leniency toward older female suspects, because these women are more likely to adhere to gender roles. In a study of biasing influences on drug arrest, it was noted that women received differential treatment based on their behaviours (DeFleur, 1975). DeFleur noticed that women who conformed to stereotypic female behaviour (e.g., cried) were less likely to get arrested than women who did not conform to these

stereotypic behaviours (e.g., expressed hostility, aggression). In conclusion, victim characteristics (stereotypic or non-stereotypic female) do appear to influence interactions between female victims and police officers, but police officers' sexist attitudes may also play a role.

Role of Sexism

Glick and Fiske (1996) developed a sexism measure, the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, to differentiate between hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. As outlined by Glick and Fiske (1996), this differentiation is important, because people who are sexist view women "stereotypically and in restricted roles", but benevolent sexists view women in a seemingly positive way whereas hostile sexists view women in a seemingly negative way. Both types of sexism may be considered harmful to women, because each one restricts a woman's role. The Benevolent Sexism subscale measures positive attitudes and stereotypes about women (e.g., pure). The Hostile Sexism subscale measures negative attitudes and stereotypes about women (e.g., incompetent). The subscales may have separate but important roles in police perceptions of stereotypic and non-stereotypic women victims and as such will both be used in the current study.

A study which examined the differential impact of hostile and benevolent sexism on men's evaluations of women they interact with helped clarify the role that these subscales play in sexist attitudes toward women including women victims of intimate partner violence. One hundred undergraduate students participated in a study examining benevolent and hostile sexism (Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997). The research showed that men who endorsed hostile sexism and beliefs viewed a non-traditional woman (i.e., career woman) less favourably than men who did not endorse

hostile sexism. Men who endorsed benevolent sexism and attitudes, as opposed to men who did not endorse benevolent sexism, viewed a traditional woman (i.e., homemaker) more favourably. This indicates that sexism subscales may play different roles in perceptions of traditional and non-traditional women. Applied to the law enforcement context, these findings suggest that police officers who endorse hostile sexism may have negative evaluations of non-traditional women and therefore may be more likely to arrest them. As well, police officers who endorse benevolent sexism may have positive evaluations of traditional women and thus may be less likely to arrest her. While both may lead to greater arrest rates for non-traditional women, interventions would require different content. Therefore, it is important to differentiate between the two forms of sexism as they may play separate roles in individuals' perception of women victims.

Benevolent sexism. As far as I know, there has been no research on sexist attitudes and how stereotypic and non-stereotypic female victims of domestic violence are perceived. In the absence of pertinent domestic violence research, rape literature may be a good substitute. Both rape and domestic violence are recognized as primarily occurring between people who have had some prior relationship with each other and they are both crimes which are rooted in power and control. Thus, results from rape research may shed light on domestic violence issues that are yet to be examined (such as the current research). Forty-three European students participated in a study about benevolent sexism and attitudes toward acquaintance rape victims (Abrams, Viki, Masser, & Bohner, 2003). Participants who scored higher on the Benevolent Sexism subscale were significantly more likely than participants who scored lower on the Benevolent Sexism subscale to blame the victim and to perceive the behaviour of the rape victim as

unladylike. This study suggests that individuals high in benevolent sexism are more likely to blame women victims if the women are perceived as breaking gender norms (e.g., unladylike).

Fifty-seven students participated in a between-subjects study about benevolent sexism and reactions to rape victims who violate traditional gender role expectations (Viki & Abrams, 2002). The students read a vignette describing a woman who met a man at a party, invited him to her apartment, and kissed him after which he raped her. The only difference between the two vignettes used was that in one vignette, the woman was married with three children and was sexually assaulted while she was potentially committing infidelity. In the second vignette (control condition), the victim's characteristics were not provided. The higher the participants scored on the Benevolent Sexism portion of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, the more they blamed the rape victim who was a potentially adventurous wife and mother. In the control condition, the relationship between victim blame and Benevolent Sexism was non-significant. The authors suggest that individuals who are high in benevolent sexism blame rape victims if they violate traditional gender role expectations (i.e., woman who is presented as cheating on her husband).

Hostile sexism. Studies support the hypothesis that those high in hostile sexism identify more with male perpetrators of violence. In one study, 111 male students assessed the likelihood that they would behave like the assailant in a rape vignette (Abrams et al., 2003). Participants who scored higher on the Hostile Sexism subscale were more likely to report that they would behave like the assailant in the acquaintance rape vignette even after victim blaming was partialled out. Similarly, Yamawaki's (2007)

study found that individuals who scored high on the Hostile Sexism subscale minimized stranger and date rape more than individuals who scored low on the subscale or individuals who scored high or low on the Benevolent Sexism subscale. Abrams et al. (2003) suggest that those high in hostile sexism may rationalize sexual violence and view it as less deviant when it comes to acquaintance rape. These findings may indicate that hostile sexism plays a role in perception of the seriousness of sexual violence crimes.

When public perceptions of crime seriousness were studied, it was found that sexism also played a role in punishments assigned to men and women (Herzog & Oreg, 2008). Vignettes were used to assess the Israeli sample's reactions to crime seriousness. The study found that there was a complicated relationship between the category of sexism (benevolent or hostile) and judgments of crime seriousness. Participants who scored high on benevolent sexism judged women less harshly than men if the female offender acted in a traditionally female manner. Participants who scored high on hostile sexism judged women harsher than men if the female offender acted in an unfeminine manner. In another study, college students and community members from Turkey and Brazil were given the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and an attitudes toward wife abuse measure to complete (Glick, Sakalli-Ugurlu, Ferreira, & de Souza, 2002). In both countries, hostile sexism and benevolent sexism predicted tolerance for wife abuse but hostile sexism was a stronger predictor. Benevolent sexism did not uniquely predict tolerance for wife abuse once hostile sexism was controlled for. The correlations for these results were stronger for men than women. This particular study did not take into account stereotypic and non-stereotypic female behaviours, but it lends support to the notion that sexism plays a role in tolerance of wife abuse. Additionally, rape research suggests that hostile and

benevolent sexism play a role in how stereotypic and non-stereotypic women are viewed. If an individual who scores high on hostile sexism judges women more harshly than men when they act in an unfeminine manner and the hostile sexism predicts their tolerance for wife abuse, this has serious implications for women who are abused and do not behave in a stereotypically feminine way.

The above research implies that attitudes play an important role in how traditionally feminine and non-traditionally feminine women are perceived by the public and police officers. Research in other domains (e.g., drug arrests, rape) suggests that women's stereotypic or non-stereotypic behaviours have an effect on how they are perceived (e.g., DeFleur, 1975; Viki & Abrams, 2002).

Intended Purposes and Hypotheses of Present Study

The role that attitudes toward women play in arrest decisions in cases of domestic violence has been largely unexplored. Current police attitudes and behaviour in a context of mandatory arrest laws present a problem when a female victim knows she risks arrest if she calls the police for help. Unfortunately, reluctance to call the police and to report domestic violence is already an issue for the majority of female victims of spousal assault (Statistics Canada, 2009) and mandatory arrest policies deter the victim from reporting the crime (Iyengar, 2009). If women are discouraged from calling the police due to fear of being arrested, this may result in further injury or even death for these women and in fact, there is an increase in intimate partner homicide in states with mandatory arrest policies (Iyengar, 2009).

In the current study, I researched potential police officers' attitudes toward and judgments of women who fight back against their abusive male partners. Due to recent

developments in the Windsor Police Service (i.e., \$72 million in lawsuits; Sacheli, 2012), it was possible that socially desirable responding on the part of the Windsor Police Service police officers would be increased. I therefore decided to use a sample of Police Foundations students at St. Clair College in Windsor, Ontario. Police Foundations is a two-year program that prepares its students for a career in law enforcement (St. Clair College, 2011). Thus, the sample will be as close as possible to a stand-in for Windsor Police Service police officers. I did not obtain a large enough sample from this population, so I also recruited Criminology students from the Psychology Participant Pool (all students taking psychology courses take part) and students from a summer Criminology class, Administration of Criminal Justice. These students, next to the Police Foundations students, are most likely to seek a career in the criminal justice system. From this point on, I will refer to Police Foundations and Criminology students as ‘potential police officers’.

Studies have suggested that many women who are arrested in domestic violence cases have often used violence in self-defence. Further, it has been shown that when women are arrested, police reports indicate that it was the male partner who initiated the incident (Muftic et al., 2007). Both quantitative and qualitative investigations have found that police officers react differently to women, depending on the degree to which the women adhere to stereotypical female gender norms. However, the findings are limited and these issues have yet to be examined with experimental or quasi-experimental methods in domestic violence scenarios.

Before proceeding with the main study, it was necessary to identify self-defence tactics that are perceived to be most and least stereotypic of women. Therefore, a list of

self-defence methods were generated, and in a pilot study, a sample of undergraduate students rated the methods according to how feminine (stereotypic or non-stereotypic) they perceived them to be. The tactics of self-defence were developed based on commonly held beliefs in popular media, because they have not been tested empirically in the past. On this basis, violent acts thought to be considered stereotypic (e.g., biting, using a lamp) and non-stereotypic (e.g., using a knife, punching with a closed fist) for women were included in the pilot study. The first time the set of self-defence methods were presented to the participants, they were not told that the woman used the method as a form of self-defence nor were they told the gender of the person she used it against. Then, they repeated the ratings in the context of the woman using this self-defence strategy against a man. By having the participants rate the same behaviours twice and in this order, I determined whether or not these ratings were context-dependent (e.g., self-defence context). In the main study, I then used the findings from the Pilot Study to vary the self-defence methods in the scenarios in terms of gender conformity.

An online study was more suitable for post-secondary students, because the participants could complete the study on their own time and in their own homes. Further, it has been shown that findings from online studies are consistent with those of traditional methods (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, & John, 2004).

The main study was designed to add to the previous findings on female victims by examining two factors, sexism and type of self-defence, which may increase the likelihood of a woman being arrested for engaging in self-defence in response to domestic violence. The outcome variables were meant to be the likelihood of arrest of the woman and judgments of her self-defence tactics. Due to the nature of the study and the

potential for the participants to want to offer socially desirable responses, a social desirability scale was used to control statistically for the responses.

Methodological Error Leading to Revision

Due to a data collection error, the condition (i.e., self-defence tactic) to which the participant was assigned became an unknown (the software was programmed to assign participants to conditions randomly but not to record the result of this randomization). Thus, I was left with the following scores: social desirability, benevolent sexism, hostile sexism, and the responses to domestic violence collapsed across all conditions. The responses to domestic violence are 12 outcome questions primarily drawn from a previous study (Saunders, 1995) and include questions regarding the scenarios such as acceptability of violence and likelihood of arrest.

Revised Research Questions and Hypotheses

As a first step in the analysis, the 12 questions which measured participants' responses to the scenarios were examined to begin to understand whether there are clusters of attitudes and/or hypothetical behaviours (e.g., suggest mediation, arrest one or both of them) that represent cohesive groupings of reactions. When these meaningful clusters of views emerged, they were interesting in their own right, but also became the new, reduced set of measures of responses. A research question to guide these analyses was created:

- a) How do the participants' responses to the domestic violence situation cluster to reveal reactions to the victim, perpetrator, and appropriate intervention in the domestic disturbance?

In practical terms, I am examining which behaviours and attitudes are happening jointly as reactions to domestic violence rather than as unique responses to a particular item.

Due to a methodological error which disallowed examination of the experimental manipulation of the type of self-defence employed by the woman in the scenario, the analysis became guided by a different set of research questions and hypotheses. The next set of research questions and hypotheses pertain to acceptability of violence and arrest decisions.

b) Was a woman using defensive violence at risk of arrest? In two of the scenarios, the woman's use of self-defence was explicit whereas in one condition the self-defence was implicit through only the description of the man's injuries (the same injuries as in the other two scenarios). I hypothesized that even though the woman in the scenarios was using violence in self-defence, some participants will endorse both arresting her and warning her of arrest.

c) Was a woman's violence, used in self-defence, perceived as acceptable? I hypothesized that the participants would endorse the woman's violence used in self-defence as at least somewhat unacceptable. This is based partially on widely held cultural beliefs that women should not be violent.

d) Was either form of sexism correlated with arrest or acceptability of violence as well as reactions to the domestic violence? I hypothesized that hostile sexism would correlate with items that were related to minimizing the violence in the scenarios such that hostile sexism ratings would be negatively correlated with arresting the man and woman, and positively correlated with acceptability of violence. This is because hostile sexism is a predictor of tolerance for wife abuse and minimization of sexual violence

(Glick, 2002; Yamawaki, 2007). Individuals high in hostile sexism minimize the domestic violence and thus will be less likely to make any arrest. As for benevolent sexism, previous research suggests that individuals high in benevolent sexism are more likely to blame women victims if the women are perceived as breaking gender norms (e.g., Viki & Abrams, 2002). However, because I could not differentiate between the conditions the participants read (e.g., stereotypical or non-stereotypical self-defence), I could not predict whether there would be a relationship between benevolent sexism with arrest and acceptability of violence. Finally, the correlation with the reactions to the domestic violence were exploratory.

The following three research questions pertain to differences between college (Police Foundations) and university students (Criminology majors) on the key variables. It is important to test these differences, because I plan on recollecting data in a way that would answer my original research questions and hypotheses. Therefore, it would be useful to know whether there are differences on these variables between the students and whether I am justified in using both samples if recruiting problems arise again.

- e) Did college and university students differ in their reactions to victims, perpetrators, and views of appropriate intervention?
- f) Did college and university students differ on acceptability of violence?
- g) Did college and university students differ on arrest decisions?

I hypothesized that there would be no statistically significant differences between these two groups as they are exposed to similar criminal justice material. Further, some teachers in the Police Foundations program at St. Clair College teach as sessional

instructors in the University of Windsor's Criminology department. Logically, these students would be exposed to similar content.

The following three research questions pertain to differences between female and male students on important variables.

- h) Did female and male students differ in their reactions to victims, perpetrators, and views of appropriate intervention?
- i) Did female and male students differ on acceptability of violence?
- j) Did female and male students differ on arrest decisions?

Research findings show somewhat contradictory evidence for whether men and women differ on variables similar to those mentioned above. In heterosexual stalking research for example, women are more likely to report fear and concern than men in a first-person stalking scenario (Hills & Taplin, 1998). However, in a study using an undergraduate sample, there were no gender differences in labeling a behaviour in a scenario as stalking (Phillips, Quirk, Rosenfeld, & O'Connor, 2004). Further, research shows that women may be more affected by institutional practices than their prescribed gender roles (Stewart & Maddren, 1997; Zupan, 1986). Thus, because the men and women in this university/college sample have arguably spent the same amount of time in the same program, there should not be significant differences between them and I hypothesized that there would be no statistically significant differences between these two groups.

CHAPTER II

PILOT STUDY METHOD AND RESULTS

Purpose

The main study required that the vignettes used differentiate between stereotypic and non-stereotypic female self-defence. This pilot study was used in order to measure the social attitudes toward female self-defence and to generate methods of self-defence used in the main study.

Participants

Fifty-five university students from the University of Windsor were recruited through the Psychology Participant Pool due to ease of access to a student sample. The Psychology Participant Pool is a web-based recruitment tool. Students across all faculties and majors can sign up through this pool if they are enrolled in eligible Psychology courses which offer bonus points for research. Bonus points can be put towards final grades in these Psychology courses in exchange for participation in research studies. A little over half (60%) of the sample were Psychology majors. Biology and Behaviour, Cognition, and Neuroscience (BCN) majors made up the next highest groups with 3.6% of the sample each. The students were dispersed across year of enrollment (first year = 30.9%, second year = 27.3%, third year = 21.8%, fourth year = 18.2%, and fifth year = 1.8%).

The participants ranged in age from 18 to 49 ($M = 20.84$, $SD = 4.65$) with more females (81.8%) than males (18.2%). Psychology classes tend to have more women than men, so it is not unusual that this is reflected in the sample. Most participants identified as White or European Canadian (81.5%) with East Asian or Pacific Islander or Asian

Canadian (9.3%), Arab (3.6%), Middle Eastern (3.6%), and South Asian (1.8%) forming a minority of the participants. Most participants were single (72.2%) with 20.0% dating or in a relationship, 5.6% married/common law, and 1.8% cohabiting.

Measures

Demographics (Appendix A). Background information was obtained with a short six-item questionnaire about the participants' gender, age, program of study, year of study, marital status, and ethnicity.

Stimuli – women's self-defence behaviours (Appendix B). A list of 10 self-defence behaviours (e.g., punching with a closed fist, slapping) was generated. For each self-defence behaviour, there were two versions: 1) description of a woman's violence in a non-specified context toward a non-specified gender and, 2) description of a woman's violence in self-defence against a man.

Evaluation of women's self-defence behaviours (Appendix C). Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum's (1957) Semantic Differential method was used to examine attitudes toward women's self-defence. The Semantic Differential allows the "measurement of meaning" of objects, concepts or events. The measure presents a series of adjective pairs and asks participants to rate the target (woman's behaviour in this case) along each dimension. Osgood et al., provided long lists of adjectives in three major attitudinal domains (evaluative, potency, and activity). The researcher chooses from amongst these the ones that best match their attitudinal measurement goal. Five adjective pairs were chosen from the three major domains and were used by participants to rate the self-defence behaviour on a seven-point scale. The possible score summed across these adjective pairs ranged from +15 to -15. Items were scored so that higher scores indicate

greater association with femininity/stereotypical female behaviour. See Appendix C for items and Appendix D for scoring.

Procedure

Following ethics clearance from the Research Ethics Board (REB) at the University of Windsor, an advertisement was posted on the online Psychology Participant Pool. The advertisement can be found in Appendix E. The purpose of the study was presented in general terms (i.e., attitudes toward women's behaviour) in order to avoid confirmation bias. When the participants signed up for the study through the online system, they were sent the URL and their unique confidential participation code.

When the participants accessed the study's URL, they were first presented with the Consent Form (Appendix F) and had the option of printing the page for their own records. Participants agreed to participate by clicking a button which took them to a separate login page. Here they were asked to enter the participation code that was provided in the e-mail sent to them after they signed up for the study. Once they entered their participation code, they were taken to a new page to begin the survey. The demographic questionnaire was presented first followed by the Stimuli - women's self-defence behaviours and the Evaluation of women's self-defence behaviours (see Appendix D for the latter two). The pilot study took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Upon completion of the study, participants were presented with a post-study letter (Appendix G) and lead to a page separate from the survey. Information was gathered to award the participants with incentives and they were thanked for their time.

Results

The purpose of the pilot study was to identify two female self-defence behaviours at the extremes: one non-stereotypic and one stereotypic. The scores of the five adjective pairs were summed for each self-defence behaviour. The lowest score in the acontextual version of behaviours displayed by a woman was the use of a baseball bat ($M = -9.74, SD = 3.63$) followed closely by the use of a kitchen knife ($M = -9.08, SD = 3.13$). The highest score was scratching ($M = -2.19, SD = 4.78$). Thus, in the acontextual version of a woman's behaviour, the baseball bat and kitchen knife represented the most non-stereotypical female behaviour and scratching represented the most stereotypical behaviour. The lowest score in the contextual version of behaviours displayed by a woman (i.e., self-defence against a man) was her use of a kitchen knife as self-defence and thus represented non-stereotypic female behaviour. The behaviour with the highest score was a woman scratching as self-defence and thus represented stereotypic female behaviour. Since the scenarios used in the main study are contextualized in such a way that a woman is using self-defence against a male abuser, the stereotypic and non-stereotypic feminine behaviours from the contextual portion of the pilot study were used in the main study. A paired-samples t-test was conducted to test whether there was a significant difference between these two behaviours. There was a significant difference between participants' ratings of a woman's use of scratching ($M = .68, SD = 4.43$) and a woman's use of a kitchen knife ($M = -5.53, SD = 3.88$) to defend herself; $t(52) = 7.76, p < .001$. Discussion of results follows in Chapter V Discussion section of document.

CHAPTER III

METHOD (MAIN STUDY)

Participants

Data for the current study were collected from 45 students at St. Clair College and the University of Windsor. Approximately half (53.3%) of the participants were from St. Clair College. The remainder (46.7%) of the students was from the University of Windsor with 33.3% and 13.3% of the total recruited from the Criminology classroom and Participant Pool, respectively. The students were dispersed across year of enrollment (first year = 28.9%, second year = 28.9%, third year = 28.2%, fourth year = 10.8%, and graduated = 2.2%).

The participants ranged in age from 18 to 32 years ($M = 21.49$, $SD = 3.27$) with an approximately equal split of females (60%) and males (40%). Most participants identified as White or European Canadian (77.8%) with Black or African-Canadian or Caribbean-Canadian (8.9%), East Asian or Pacific Islander or Asian Canadian (4.4%), Black/Lebanese (2.2%), and Moroccan (2.2%) forming a minority of the participants. Two participants identified as “Other”, but did not specify further. The majority of the participants identified as heterosexual/straight (93.3%) and a minority as lesbian/gay (6.7%). Most participants were single (77.8%) with 13.1% dating or in a relationship, 6.7% married/common law, and 2.2% separated. Due to an insufficient number of ethnic minority participants, ethnicity was not examined as a factor in this study¹.

Possible differences between the college and university students on demographic variables were examined with an independent samples t-test (age) or chi-square tests (gender, relationship status, race, and sexual orientation). No significant differences

were found on variables of age, gender, relationship status, and sexual orientation. A significant difference ($p < .05$) was found on race such that there were more non-White participants in the university subsample.

Measures

Demographics (Appendix H). Background information was obtained with a short six-item questionnaire about the participants' gender, age, program of study, year of study in the program, marital status, ethnicity, and sexual orientation.

Domestic violence scenarios (Appendix I). The Domestic Violence Scenarios measure was created for the current study. It consists of three domestic violence related vignettes and a distracter vignette. Saunders (1995; Appendix J) has used vignettes in his research about police perceptions of domestic violence. A questionable analysis renders their findings unreliable, but their scenarios were used as a jumping off point for the scenarios of the current study. The vignettes presented an imaginary, but probable situation where the participant (as a police officer in the scenario) is called to a domestic disturbance. The distracter scenario described a fight between two men. The remaining scenarios, which were the focus of the current study, were one control condition and two experimental conditions where a man was the perpetrator of violence and a woman has used violence in self-defence. Scenario two was a control condition in which there was implicit evidence (i.e., the man had an injury) that the woman engaged in self-defence. Scenario three described a woman who had used a stereotypically feminine self-defence tactic (scratching). The fourth scenario described a woman who had used a non-stereotypically feminine self-defence strategy (kitchen knife). The injuries sustained by the perpetrators and victims are consistent through the scenarios. The participants were

randomly assigned to one of the three self-defence conditions (none, stereotypic, non-stereotypic) and they were all given the distracter vignette.

Sexism (Appendix K). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory is a 22-item likert-type scale that was developed, in part, to reveal the multidimensionality of sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The scale has two positively correlated subscales, Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism. For Hostile Sexism, internal consistency for non-student samples is good (Cronbach's alpha > .86). For Benevolent Sexism, internal consistency is adequate (Cronbach's alpha > .72).

Among undergraduate students, convergent validity for the Hostile Sexism subscale was supported by its significant correlations with other sexism scales ($.42 < r < .61$). The Benevolent Sexism subscale did not correlate well with any other sexism scale, but the authors suggest that this may be because no other sexism scale taps into benevolent sexism. Internal consistency for the current study was good for both Benevolent Sexism (Cronbach's alpha = .84) and Hostile Sexism (Cronbach's alpha = .77).

Responses to domestic violence (Appendix L). This twelve-item measure was designed for the purposes of this study. The items measure the participants' response to the domestic violence scenarios. The first two questions measure evaluations of the two individuals' violence in the self-defence scenarios and are partially based on a study about police officers' attitudes about woman abuse (Saunders & Size, 1986) where police officers were asked how negatively they view a marital violence situation in which the husband was abusive to the wife. The remaining ten items measure the likelihood of various behaviours towards the individuals including likelihood of arrest. The ten

questions are based on a study that used vignettes to assess the relationship between police officer attitudes and victim arrest (Saunders, 1995). An additional two questions assessed the participants' perception of the race of each party².

Social desirability (Appendix M). The Social Desirability Scale-17 (SDS-17; Stober, 2001) is a self-report social desirability measure made up of 16 true-false items. One of the main reasons it was developed was to have a scale that has modern items compared to the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Originally tested in Germany with students and a large community sample, the scale had good correlations ($r > .51$) with three other measures of social desirability which suggests convergent validity. Non-significant correlations with portions of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and the NEO Five Factor Inventory suggest discriminant validity. Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .72) and test-retest correlation across four weeks ($r = .82$) was satisfactory (Stober, 1999 in Stober, 2001). The SDS-17 has shown adequate internal consistency for adults of 18 to 59 years of age (Cronbach's alpha $> .69$).

The scale has also been tested with 800 Americans, including students and non-students (Blake, Valdiserri, Neuendorf, & Nemeth, 2006). Convergent validity with the Marlowe-Crowne Scale was good ($r > .69$). Internal consistency was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha $> .69$) in all assessments of the study except for one (Cronbach's alpha = .64). The authors (Blake et al., 2006) also tested the use of the SDS-17 online and established good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha $> .69$) and convergent validity with the Marlowe-Crowne Scale ($r > .77$). Internal consistency for the current study was fairly low but consistent with that of other studies (Cronbach's alpha = .66).

Procedure

Upon receiving ethics clearance from the Research Ethics Board (REB) at the University of Windsor followed by clearance at St. Clair College, an e-mail advertisement was sent to all Police Foundations students with a link to the online study's website (see Appendix N for advertisement). The e-mail was sent by the program's contact person. For the second sample, an advertisement (Appendix O) was made visible only to Criminology students in the University of Windsor Psychology Participant Pool. The third sample consisted of students enrolled in a summer class, Administration of Criminal Justice, in the Criminology department at the University of Windsor. The participants were recruited by the researcher on the first day of class with a short oral advertisement (Appendix P) during the second portion of the class.

All three samples were given approximately four weeks to complete the study. For the students recruited through classrooms, reminders were given one week after the initial e-mail and one week prior to the last day of data collection. The reminders were given by the teachers/professors in each classroom during class time. All students recruited through the Psychology Participant Pool were sent reminders by the researcher one week after they were sent the initial e-mail and 24 hours prior to the last day of data collection.

The advertisement for all three samples included basic information about the study: duration, the study's URL, and a password. Due to the nature of the study, the description of the study used general descriptors rather than informing the participants of the specific factors under study: "This study examines views and decision-making in hypothetical police calls." To reduce subject selection bias, the participants were not

informed until all data were collected and the post-study information sent that the scenarios were all related to domestic violence.

When the participants accessed the study's URL, they were first presented with the Consent Form (Appendix Q) and had the option of printing the page for their own records. Participants agreed to participate by clicking a button that took them to a separate login page. Here they were asked to enter the password that was provided in the recruitment email that they received. Upon doing so they were taken to a new page to begin the survey. The demographic questionnaire was presented first followed by the SDS-17, the Distracter and Domestic Violence Scenarios each followed by the appropriate Responses to Domestic Violence scales (i.e., in the intimate partner violence scenarios, the participants were asked about the man and woman; in the distracter scenario, the participants were asked about the two men involved) and finally, the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory.

Once the measures were completed, the participants were presented with the last page of the study which was not linked with the previous survey responses. The participants recruited through the classrooms were asked to provide their first name, last name, and mailing address in order to receive the post-study information (Appendix R) and a \$5 Tim Hortons gift card as a thank-you for their participation. Participants recruited through the Psychology Participant Pool were asked to provide details allowing them to be provided with the post-study information and 0.5 bonus points to be put toward eligible Psychology courses. This study took approximately 15 minutes to complete.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS (MAIN STUDY)

Preliminary Analysis

The participants in this study were randomly assigned to one of three self-defence conditions: one control with no specification of the woman's self-defence, one of a woman using stereotypic female self-defence (scratching), and one of a woman using non-stereotypic self-defence (a kitchen knife). However, as mentioned earlier, there was an error made during the writing of the data by the Fluid Survey software such that a variable was not created for the experimental assignment. Therefore, I could not analyze responses by experimental condition but instead had to perform analyses collapsing across conditions.

The preliminary and main analyses were conducted using SPSS Version 19.0. Preliminary analyses were conducted to construct dependent variable subscales from the 12 outcome questions in Responses to Domestic Violence to be used in the main analysis. Missing data appeared to be scattered randomly throughout the data set with the exception of one case which was subsequently removed. The case in question was not completed beyond the distracter variables and was therefore missing crucial information required for the preliminary and main analyses. Less than 5% of the data were missing for the outcome questions and scales of interest. Therefore, an algebraic equation weighting the scores by numbers of non-missing values was used to impute values for the well-established scales (SDS-17 and ASI). Missing values on the Responses to Domestic Violence were not altered.

To examine the relationships between the twelve outcome questions in Responses to Domestic Violence, a principal components analysis (PCA) with orthogonal rotation (varimax) was conducted. The correlation matrix was examined to ensure that each question was correlated with at least one other question ($r > .3$), but that no variables were correlated highly enough ($r > .9$) to pose the problem of multicollinearity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy indicated that the sample size ($n = 42$) was not ideal but acceptable ($KMO = .51$; Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(66) = 125.34, p < .001$, indicating that the correlations for the PCA were significantly different from a correlation of zero. The analysis revealed four components above Kaiser's criterion of 1. As a general rule, factor loadings greater than .4 should be considered, but a more conservative cut-off was applied (loadings greater than .5) due to the small sample size. Therefore, each variable in the model shared at least 25% variance with the component. Table 1 shows factor loadings after rotation.

The first component, named Legal Repercussions Against Julie, contained three outcome questions which related to legal repercussions suggested by the participant against Julie (i.e., warning Julie of possible arrest) or which reduced the legal protections she was entitled to (i.e., discouraging her from seeking Mark's arrest and being less confident that they would actually arrest Mark (reverse scored)). The second component, named Preference for Informal Actions, contained four outcome questions related to empathizing with Julie or believing her violence was mitigated by the circumstances (i.e., show understanding, view Julie's violence as acceptable) and increased confidence that they would rely on solutions that did not involve arrest (i.e., help couple solve immediate problem by mediating between them, discuss Julie's options

with her). The third component contained three outcome questions related to concern for Julie without legal action (i.e., warn Mark of possible arrest, refer both Mark and Julie) and was named Concern for Julie without Legal Protection. The fourth and final component, named Gender Neutral Anti-violence, contained two outcome questions related to generic (i.e., gender neutral) anti-violence (e.g., Arrest Julie). Table 2 shows the summary of the four components.

Internal consistency for the Legal Repercussions Against Julie component was sufficient, Cronbach's $\alpha = .63$, mediocre for the Preference for Informal Actions component, Cronbach's $\alpha = .59$, acceptable for Concern for Julie without Legal Protection, Cronbach's $\alpha = .69$, and poor for the Gender Neutral Anti-violence component, Cronbach's $\alpha = .44$. It is expected that internal consistencies across the four components may be low given that the scores could be systematically affected by the independent variable manipulation (i.e., conditions). Internal consistencies are likely higher by condition. Therefore, I proceeded with the analyses acknowledging that the findings are tentative. Table 3 shows the psychometric properties of the SDS-17, Benevolent Sexism, Hostile Sexism and the four distinct types of reactions to domestic violence.

Main Analyses

Descriptives. Frequencies of endorsement for various outcome questions of interest were investigated. With some certainty (i.e., $> 0\%$), approximately 90% of the participants would "arrest Mark" and approximately 60% would take the same action against Julie. About half of the participants would "discourage Julie from seeking arrest". With some certainty, approximately 90% of the participants would "warn Mark of arrest"

Table 1

*Summary of Principal Component Analysis Results for Responses to Domestic Violence**(N = 42)*

Variable	Comp 1	Comp 2	Comp 3	Comp 4
Arrest Mark	-.88	-.09	.07	.18
Discourage Julie from seeking arrest	.85	.09	-.17	.08
Warn Julie	.51	-.34	.29	.28
Show understanding	.14	.78	-.10	.12
Julie's violence was acceptable	-.33	.66	.02	-.22
Tell Julie options	.09	.63	.12	-.30
Mediation	.47	.57	-.07	.28
Refer Julie	-.09	-.07	.87	.10
Refer Mark	.06	.01	.79	.19
Warn Mark	-.19	.06	.59	-.32
Arrest Julie	.04	-.26	.10	.83
Mark's violence was acceptable	.00	-.07	-.03	-.68

Note. Factor loadings > .5 are in bold.

Table 2

Summary of Components Derived from Responses to Domestic Violence

Comp		Factor Correlations
Comp1	Legal Repercussions Against Julie; $\alpha = .63$	
Arrest Mark	Arrest Mark	-.88
Discourage Julie from seeking arrest	Discourage Julie from seeking arrest	.85
Warn Julie	Warn Julie of possible arrest	.51
Comp2	Preference for Informal Actions; $\alpha = .59$	
Show understanding	Show that I understood each person's feelings	.78
Julie's violence was acceptable	Julie's violence was acceptable	.66
Tell Julie options	Tell Julie of her legal and personal options	.63
Mediation	Help couple solve immediate problem by mediating between them	.57
Comp3	Concern for Julie without Legal Protection; $\alpha = .69$	
Refer Julie	Refer Julie	.87
Refer Mark	Refer Mark	.79
Warn Mark	Warn Mark of possible arrest	.59
Comp4	Gender Neutral Anti-violence; $\alpha = .44$	
Arrest Julie	Arrest Julie	.83
Mark's violence was acceptable	Mark's violence was acceptable	-.68

Note. Arrest Mark and Mark's violence was acceptable were negatively weighted.

Table 3

Psychometric Properties of Measures and Responses to Domestic Violence

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	Range	
					Potential	Actual
SDS-17	45	22.89	3.00	.66	16 – 32	17 – 28
Benevolent Sexism	45	2.19	.98	.84	0 – 5	.36 – 3.91
Hostile Sexism	45	2.29	.80	.77	0 – 5	.18 - 4
Legal Repercussions Against Julie	44	28.26	24.70	.63	0 – 100	0 – 100
Arrest Mark	45	80.67	30.03		0 – 100	0 – 100
Discourage Julie from seeking arrest	45	25.33	33.07		0 – 100	0 – 100
Warn Julie of possible arrest	44	39.09	34.02		0 – 100	0 – 100
Preference for Informal Actions	44	64.49	21.78	.59	0 – 100	0 – 100
Show understanding	45	76.67	30.45		0 – 100	0 – 100
Julie's violence was acceptable	45	35.78	32.58		0 – 100	0 – 100
Tell Julie options	44	87.27	26.80		0 – 100	0 – 100
Mediation	45	56.67	38.67		0 – 100	0 – 100
Concern for Julie without Legal Protection	44	54.09	30.10	.69	0 – 100	0 – 100
Refer Julie	45	46.00	43.14		0 – 100	0 – 100
Refer Mark	44	33.64	41.21		0 – 100	0 – 100
Warn Mark of possible arrest	45	83.78	28.79		0 – 100	0 – 100
Gender Neutral Anti-violence	44	57.61	22.01	.44	0 – 100	0 – 100
Arrest Julie	44	25.91	30.90		0 – 100	0 – 100
Mark's violence was acceptable	45	10.44	23.35		0 – 100	0 – 100

and approximately 70% would “warn Julie of arrest”. Finally, approximately three quarters of participants “strongly disagree” that “Mark’s violence was acceptable” meaning that one quarter of participants justified his actions in some way. Conversely, approximately one third of participants strongly disagree that Julie’s violence in self-defence was acceptable. See Tables 4 and 5 for a complete list.

T-tests were performed to test whether there were differences between the pairs of responses that are directly parallel (i.e., have a Mark and Julie version). When examining the measures of centrality of the responses to domestic violence, one can see that even though participants’ mean was lower for “Mark’s violence was acceptable” than “Julie’s violence was acceptable” [i.e., they disagreed with Mark’s violence more than Julie’s; paired samples $t(44) = -4.55, p < .01$], the modal response was “strongly disagree” that Mark’s and Julie’s violence was acceptable. The means were higher for the arrest of and warning Mark of arrest than the arrest of and warning Julie of arrest [arrest: paired samples $t(43) = 9.26, p < .01$; warning of arrest: paired samples $t(43) = 6.45, p < .01$]. Finally, participants’ most frequent response was 0% likelihood that they would discourage Julie from seeking arrest, but the mean was 25%. For a complete list of the measures of centrality, see Table 6.

Bivariate correlations. Two-tailed Pearson correlations were calculated to examine the relationships between social desirability, benevolent, and hostile sexism and the Responses to Domestic Violence items. Significant positive correlations were found between SDS-17 and warning Julie of arrest meaning that participants who offer more socially desirable responses are also more likely to report higher confidence that they would warn Julie of arrest. Hostile Sexism was significantly positively correlated

Table 4

Percent Indicating Degree of Confidence (%) That Participant Would Engage in Particular Action

Variables	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Arrest Mark	6.7	0.0	2.2	4.4	0.0	2.2	4.4	4.4	13.3	8.9	53.3
Arrest Julie	36.4	13.6	13.6	4.5	6.8	11.4	2.3	2.3	0.0	0.0	9.1
Warn Mark	6.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2	8.9	2.2	4.4	6.7	2.2	66.7
Warn Julie	27.3	6.8	4.5	6.8	4.5	25.0	9.1	0.0	0.0	2.3	13.6
DJFSA	53.3	4.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	24.4	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.0	8.9

Note. DJFSA = Discourage Julie from seeking arrest.

Table 5

Percent Indicating (on 11-point Likert Scale) Acceptability of Violence for Mark and Julie

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
MWA	75.6	4.4	6.7	0.0	0.0	6.7	2.2	0.0	2.2	0.0	2.2
JWA	33.3	4.4	8.9	4.4	0.0	17.8	4.4	15.6	6.7	0.0	4.4

Note. MWA = Mark's violence was acceptable; JWA = Julie's violence was acceptable;

1 = Strongly Disagree; 6 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 11 = Strongly Agree

Table 6

Mean, Median, and Mode of Variables of Interest

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
Mark's violence was acceptable	2.04	1.00	1.00
Julie's violence was acceptable	4.58	4.00	1.00
Arrest Mark	80.67	100.00	100.00
Arrest Julie	25.91	15.00	0.00
Warn Mark	83.78	100.00	100.00
Warn Julie	39.09	45.00	0.00
Discourage Julie from seeking arrest	25.33	0.00	0.00

Note. SD of the outcome questions in this table is presented in Table 3.

with Arrest Mark. Endorsement of mediation was negatively correlated with arresting Mark and positively correlated with discouraging Julie from seeking arrest and showing understanding. Telling Julie her options was significantly positively correlated with viewing Julie's violence as acceptable and showing understanding. Arresting Julie and viewing Julie's violence as acceptable were negatively correlated meaning that those who perceived Julie's violence as acceptable tended not to endorse arresting her. Arresting Mark and viewing Mark's violence as acceptable were not significantly correlated. Thus, it is interesting that acceptability of violence and arrest were related for Julie but not for Mark. See Table 7 for a summary of bivariate correlations (bivariate correlations for the reactions to domestic violence and major variables follow in Table 8).

Finally, two-tailed Pearson correlations were calculated to examine the relationships between social desirability, benevolent, and hostile sexism with the reactions to domestic violence (Legal Repercussions Against Julie, Preference for Informal Actions, Concern for Julie without Legal Protection, and Gender Neutral Anti-violence). Although there were no significant correlations with SDS-17, there were also no significant correlations between any of the other aforementioned variables. See Table 8 for a summary of these bivariate correlations.

T-tests. Independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine any differences between students recruited through the two different programs (college and university) as well as between women and men on four responses to domestic violence of theoretical interest (Mark's violence was acceptable, Julie's violence was acceptable, Arrest Mark, and Arrest Julie) and the reactions to domestic violence (i.e., four components). The four items chosen are key issues in the literature and in the present study and they appeared to

Table 7

Correlations between SDS-17, Benevolent Sexism and Hostile Sexism with Responses to Domestic Violence

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. SDS-17	-														
2. Benevolent Sexism	-.17	-													
3. Hostile Sexism	-.06	.26	-												
4. MWA	.02	.19	.13	-											
5. JWA	-.01	-.01	-.08	.14	-										
6. Arrest Mark	.00	.03	.32*	-.03	.14	-									
7. Arrest Julie	.12	-.04	.18	-.29	-.38*	.19	-								
8. Refer Mark	.02	-.04	.13	-.07	-.05	.06	.13	-							
9. Refer Julie	.06	-.02	.16	-.07	.00	.12	.12	.62**	-						
10. Warn Mark	.13	.25	.12	-.00	.11	.15	-.33*	.22	.41**	-					
11. Warn Julie	.35*	-.01	.17	-.12	-.31*	-.25	.39**	.19	.14	-.04	-				
12. Mediation	-.02	.17	-.21	-.13	.15	-.34*	.08	.00	-.13	.01	.05	-			
13. DJFSA	-.09	.00	-.19	-.11	-.13	-.64**	.07	-.07	-.19	-.28	.23	.45**	-		
14. Show understanding	-.08	.01	-.25	-.04	.25	-.20	-.15	.01	-.06	-.04	-.14	.40**	.09	-	
15. Tell Julie options	.10	.00	-.16	.15	.34*	-.09	-.29	.03	.03	.05	-.05	.15	.04	.41**	-

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

Note. MWA = Mark's violence was acceptable; JWA = Julie's violence was acceptable; DJFSA = Discourage Julie from seeking arrest.

Table 8

Correlations between SDS-17, Benevolent Sexism and Hostile Sexism with Reactions to Domestic Violence

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. SDS-17	-						
2. Benevolent Sexism	-.17 ^a	-					
3. Hostile Sexism	-.06 ^a	.26 ^a	-				
4. Legal Repercussions Against Julie	.11 ^b	-.01 ^b	-.12 ^b	-			
5. Preference for Informal Actions	-.02 ^b	.08 ^b	-.26 ^b	.10 ^c	-		
6. Concern for Julie without Legal Protection	.07 ^b	.03 ^b	.15 ^b	-.07 ^c	-.06 ^c	-	
7. Gender Neutral Anti-violence	.07 ^b	-.13 ^b	.04 ^b	.15 ^b	-.15 ^c	.04 ^c	-

Note. ^a*n* = 45. ^b*n* = 44. ^c*n* = 43

be masked by the components. There was a significant difference on one response to domestic violence (Arrest Mark) such that college students were significantly more likely to arrest Mark than university students, $p < .05$. There were no significant differences between college and university students on the reactions to domestic violence. See Table 9 for descriptives and results of the independent samples t-tests.

There were no significant differences between female and male students on the four responses to domestic violence or the reactions to domestic violence. See Table 10 for descriptives and results of the independent samples t-tests.

Table 9

Analysis of Key Variables by Institution Type

	Group	n	M	SD	t	df	p	95% Confidence Interval	
								LL	UL
LRAJ	College	23	23.19	20.19	-1.50	21.06	.15	-33.70	5.41
	University	15	37.33	32.57					
PIA	College	23	61.52	22.48	-.67	36	.51	-20.12	10.16
	University	15	66.50	22.52					
CJWLP	College	23	59.57	30.46	1.37	36	.18	-6.43	33.12
	University	15	46.22	27.60					
GNAV	College	23	61.09	25.67	1.34	36	.19	-5.20	25.37
	University	15	51.00	17.03					
MWA	College	24	1.88	2.56	-.66	37	.51	-2.14	1.09
	University	15	2.40	2.17					
JWA	College	24	4.08	3.43	-1.14	37	.26	-3.47	.97
	University	15	5.33	3.18					
Arrest Mark	College	24	90.00	21.47	2.58*	19.55	.02	5.36	50.64
	University	15	62.00	38.40					
Arrest Julie	College	23	31.30	37.33	1.61	35.41	.12	-3.94	34.55
	University	15	16.00	20.98					

Note. Independent samples t-tests were used. LRAJ = Legal Repercussions Against Julie; PIA = Preference for Informal Actions; CJWLP = Concern for Julie without Legal Protection; GNAV = Gender Neutral Anti-violence; MWA = Mark's violence was acceptable; JWA = Julie's violence was acceptable. LRAJ, Arrest Mark, and Arrest Julie degrees of freedom; equal variances not assumed.

LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

* $p < .05$

Table 10

Analysis of Key Variables by Gender

	Group	n	M	SD	t	df	p	95% Confidence Interval	
								LL	UL
LRAJ	Female	27	28.89	22.32	.21	42	.83	-13.97	17.24
	Male	17	27.25	28.78					
PIA	Female	27	67.13	21.65	1.01	42	.32	-6.77	20.44
	Male	17	60.29	21.97					
CJWLP	Female	27	50.99	28.67	-.86	42	.40	-26.90	10.83
	Male	17	59.02	32.51					
GNAV	Female	27	59.26	19.45	.62	42	.54	-9.59	18.11
	Male	17	55.00	25.98					
MWA	Female	27	1.74	1.91	-.99	27.12	.33	-2.33	.81
	Male	18	2.50	2.85					
JWA	Female	27	4.70	3.21	.31	43	.76	-1.71	2.34
	Male	18	4.39	3.42					
Arrest Mark	Female	27	78.15	28.83	-.69	43	.50	-24.84	12.24
	Male	18	84.44	32.22					
Arrest Julie	Female	27	25.93	29.78	.01	42	1.00	-19.49	19.58
	Male	17	25.88	33.55					

Note. Independent samples t-tests were used. LRAJ = Legal Repercussions Against Julie; PIA = Preference for Informal Actions; CJWLP = Concern for Julie without Legal Protection ; GNAV = Gender Neutral Anti-violence; MWA = Mark's violence was acceptable; JWA = Julie's violence was acceptable. MWA degrees of freedom; equal variances not assumed. LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore attitudes and judgments of women who defend themselves against their abusive male partners. Studies suggest that many women who are arrested in domestic violence cases have used violence in self-defence and police officers know that it was the male partner who initiated the incident (Muftic et al., 2007). Therefore, it is important to examine acceptability and judgments of women's violence in the context of intimate partner violence. Further, up until the implementation of mandatory arrest policies approximately twenty-five years ago, domestic violence was generally not treated as a crime and male abusers were often not arrested (Department of Justice Canada, 2011). Thus, it continues to be important to examine attitudes toward male violence and judgments of arrest in situations of intimate partner violence.

The results of the pilot study showed that, when context is not considered, the violent acts thought (based on media representations) to represent the most stereotypic and non-stereotypic behaviours perpetrated by women were both perceived to be non-stereotypic feminine behaviours (all scored in the masculine domain on the Semantic Differential). Thus, when individuals are thinking about women's use of violence in the abstract it may always be perceived as masculine behaviour. When a woman used violence in a specific context, in self-defence against a man, there was slight movement toward viewing her actions as something other than masculine. However, even the most 'feminine' of the behaviours did not move beyond the neutral centre, that is, neither really masculine nor really feminine, zone of the scale. Scratching was rated as the least

stereotypically masculine with and without a specific context, but it was only perceived to move out of the masculine end of the continuum when it was contextualized as a woman's scratching a man in self-defence. It could be that the mere presence of a man feminizes a woman and her behaviour in the participants' eyes. Further, because none of the violent behaviours were perceived as being in the domain of stereotypical feminine behaviour, it is possible that whenever a woman uses physical violence (whether in self-defence or not) she is masculinized.

Through examining measures of centrality and frequency of endorsement of responses in the main study, it can be concluded that participants were likely to warn Mark of arrest, arrest him, and deem his violence as unacceptable. However, as hypothesized, the study also found that, to some degree, participants would warn Julie of arrest, arrest her and deem her violence as unacceptable. Approximately one quarter of the participants endorsed a 50% or higher certainty of arresting Julie while half of the participants endorsed a very low certainty (10% and less) of arresting her demonstrating that there is considerable diversity in participants' attitudes toward a woman who uses self-defence. Some participants would also discourage the woman from seeking arrest. In two of the three scenarios Julie was described as acting against Mark only in self-defence. Although Mark had an injury in the third scenario, Julie was not portrayed as taking any specific action against him. Therefore, despite difficulty in untangling the effects of the manipulation, Julie was never portrayed as having acted violently first. It may seem surprising that a sizeable minority of participants still warned her about her own behaviour and discouraged her from having Mark arrested. In research conducted in the mid-1990s with scenarios much like the control scenario in this study, approximately

one third of police officers indicated some propensity to arrest the female victim in a domestic violence scenario even when there were no signs of her using violence in self-defence or otherwise (Saunders, 1995).

In the current study, judgments of arrest of the man could at least partially be explained by the mandatory arrest policies and the cultural view of men's violence against women. That is, with the success of the battered women's movement and cultural shifts since the 1980's, physical violence against women is generally condemned by the public. As such, few people would be expected to view and/or report the man's violence as acceptable. The students in this study endorsed the arrest of the man, as mandatory arrest laws would suggest, but they also endorsed some of the problematic acts of policing that have been present since the implementation of mandatory arrest policies. For example, much like the problematic endorsement of arrest of the victim in this study, women have been arrested along with their partners even when they claim they have acted in self-defence (DeJong, Burgess-Proctor, & Ellis, 2008). The arrest of both partners (i.e., dual arrest) involved in a domestic violence call has been on the rise since the enforcement of mandatory arrest policies (National Institute of Justice, 2008). Additionally, approximately half of the potential police officers endorsed discouraging the woman from seeking arrest, making it reminiscent of policing practices prior to the more serious enforcement of mandatory arrest policies when spousal violence was viewed as a personal problem rather than a criminal act (Department of Justice Canada, 2011; Fedders 1997). In sum, the participants may have been influenced by police practices present prior to and after mandatory arrest policies began to be enforced in the 1980's.

Contrary to expectations, participants' hostile sexism was not related to judgments that minimized or accepted the violence in the scenarios; it was not correlated with arresting Julie or with acceptability of violence. Hostile sexism was related to judgments related to Mark's arrest but in the opposite direction from what was expected. The most hostile participants were the most sure that Mark should be arrested. This finding may be supported by theory and research on hypermasculinity. While studies normally tend to include either measures of hypermasculinity or sexism but not both, similar links have been found between hypermasculine men and perceptions of violence against women as have been demonstrated between hostile sexists and perceptions of violence against women in the direction I hypothesized (minimization) (e.g., Zaitchik & Mosher, 1993). It is likely that participants who score high on hostile sexism may also score high on hypermasculinity. Hypermasculine men dominate women in relationships, deny their own feminine affect, and view challenges as opportunities for macho action (Zaitchik & Mosher, 1993). Though it may seem unusual that hypermasculine/hostile sexist men would arrest rather than sympathize with or reward a man for his domination of a woman through physical violence, it is possible that these participants are punishing the man in the scenario, because his violence toward a weaker person (i.e., a woman) is perceived as weak or feminine and not sufficiently masculine.

Benevolent sexism was not correlated with any outcome questions or components, including arrest and acceptability of violence. Previous research suggests that individuals high in benevolent sexism are more likely to blame women victims if the women are perceived as breaking gender norms (e.g., Viki & Abrams, 2002). These relationships may have emerged if I had been able to differentiate between the scenarios

where the woman used stereotypical versus non-stereotypical self-defence. It is impossible to know for sure, however, whether the high variability in the responses on the outcome questions suggest an experimental effect due to the different conditions. As an aside, although not the focus of a specific hypothesis, an interesting finding was that acceptability of violence and arrest were related for the woman but not for the man. This may have been affected by the strong certainty (100%) of arrest of a large proportion (53.3%) of the participants for Mark, but not for Julie where 0% was the mode (36.4%).

In my hypotheses, I made presumptions that the university and college students would have similar responses, because of their access to similar criminal justice material. This was generally true as there were no statistically significant differences detected between university and college students on reactions to the victim, appropriate interventions, and acceptability of violence on the part of the perpetrator or victim. As mentioned earlier, some Police Foundations instructors at St. Clair College hold sessional positions in the Criminology department at the University of Windsor. Thus, this lack of significant differences between groups can be explained by the students' exposure to similar material and possibly the same teachers. However, contrary to expectations, university and college students did differ on their arrest decisions such that college students were significantly more likely to arrest Mark (but not Julie) than university students. This difference may exist because college students are more committed to a police career and have begun to be socialized into policing culture. Although there are very high arrest judgments across both groups, perhaps a particular scenario effect is present for one group over the other and is elevating the average. Thus, it is important

that this study be replicated under conditions where the impact of the experimental manipulation can be assessed.

Further, the college and university students differed on one demographic variable: racial identification. There were more non-White participants in the university sub-sample than the college sub-sample. Given the police services recently publicized desire to recruit higher proportions of officers from marginalized groups (Chen, 2012), this finding may represent the promise of multiple approaches to a police career (university or college). As mentioned above, there were also differences between college and university students' endorsement of arresting the man. These two differences between students suggest that a replication of the study warrants using either the university or college population or both as independent points of entry to a police career, but that one population cannot be used as a stand in for the other.

Because the women and men in this study came from the same institutions, I hypothesized that there would not be differences in their responses. Indeed, there were no gender differences in reactions to the victim and perpetrator, appropriate intervention for the domestic disturbance, acceptability of violence, and arrest decisions. As mentioned earlier, this may be explained by other studies' findings (e.g., Stewart & Maddren, 1997; Zupan, 1986) showing that women may be more affected by institutional practices rather than their prescribed gender roles. Thus, the men and women in this study are part of the same classroom, degree program, and institution and are more influenced by those factors than their gender on the aforementioned outcome scores.

Strengths

This study made contributions to the literature on intimate partner violence by examining participants' attitudes toward women using self-defence against male abusers. An important strength of the design is the use of a pilot study that examined attitudes toward various women's self-defence techniques. As a result of the pilot study, future research can incorporate stereotypic and non-stereotypic female self-defence against male abusers.

An additional strength of the current study is the use of potential police officers in the sample. Rather than using a generic university sample, the study made use of the various programs in the local area which attract potential police officers and are meant to prepare them for police college. These potential police officers from the Police Foundations and Criminology programs appear to be an adequate stand-in for police officers (i.e., a population that makes arrest decision in domestic violence calls) and thus increase the external validity of the study.

Finally, the current study adds to scenario research by examining participants' perception of victim and offender race used in the scenario. The race of the couple in the scenarios followed standard conventions in psychological research and was left out. However, unlike previous research, an assessment was made of the perception of race. Results suggest that participants overwhelmingly perceive the couple as white. This finding suggests that future studies using scenarios should be aware of participants' perception of race and how this may influence the generalizability of results.

Limitations

There were three experimental conditions in the original design of this study: a control where no explicit self-defence was used by the woman (the man had a cut on his cheek, so it was implicit), and two where she was described as using self-defence (non-stereotypic self-defence in one scenario and stereotypic self-defence in the other). The most important limitation of this study is the fact that due to a data error, the conditions to which participants were assigned are no longer known. This means that the original purpose of the study, exploring whether sexism and type of self-defence behaviour predict judgments of a woman's arrest in intimate partner violence scenarios, was not realized. Further, it is possible that the results in this study could be explained by systematic differences such as the condition to which a participant was assigned but which are not detectable. For example, it is possible that those who would arrest the woman with any certainty on the scenarios are primarily participants who were assigned to the non-stereotypic self-defence where Julie used a kitchen knife to defend herself. Thus, the problem of not knowing the conditions in the data may be obscuring any nuanced conclusion to be made; the error variance includes what could be a fairly large experimental effect.

The principal components analysis in the current study revealed four dimensions or reactions to domestic violence: Legal Repercussions Against Julie, Preference for Informal Actions, Concern for Julie without Legal Protection, and Gender Neutral Anti-violence. A similar study (Saunders, 1995) with different scenarios and only ten of the 12 outcome questions from Responses to Domestic Violence had similar components: Referral of the Man and Woman, Preference for Informal Actions, Arrest of the Man and

Warning or Arresting the Woman components for one of the scenarios and Referral of the Man and Woman, Preference for Informal Actions, Mutual Arrest, and Warning the Woman of Arrest for a second scenario. Saunders does not provide the reader with the details of the components such as number of items and internal consistency of each component which would be helpful in further examining similarities and differences between his study and the current study. However, there seem to be some similarities with his research and the current research. The Gender Neutral Anti-violence component in the current research is similar to the Mutual Arrest component, Legal Repercussions Against Julie is similar to Saunders' Warning or Arresting the Woman, and the Preference for Informal Actions in the current study is similar to Saunders' Informal Actions. Therefore, together, the Saunders' (1995) research and the current study show that there are fairly consistent dimensions along which people are making distinctions. Further research is needed to establish whether these are common reactions in larger samples and what happens specifically in response to variations/manipulations of variables.

The measurement of the responses to domestic violence in the analyses for this study were somewhat problematic. The internal consistency for the factors was less than ideal. For example, Gender Neutral Anti-violence had only two items and as is often the case with two item scales, had a low internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha = .44$. Concern for Julie without Legal Protection contained three items and the highest internal consistency, $\alpha = .69$, which was acceptable, but not ideal. Therefore, the analyses that examined gender and institution (college versus university) differences should be interpreted with caution. As mentioned earlier, the internal consistency may be low

because the scores are being systematically affected by the experimental manipulation of Julie's self-defence tactic. It is likely that the internal consistency would be higher by condition.

The current study also suffers from a relatively small sample size of only 45 participants. Considerable difficulty with recruitment in both settings was encountered. With greater statistical power, additional effects may have been detected. One difficulty of recruitment at the college was lack of access to students who were eligible to participate. Once recruitment of university students began, advertising was done in person and higher proportion of students participated than at the college. As well, response rates at both the university and college were much higher at the beginning of the recruitment than at the end. It would be advisable to intensify recruitment efforts (e.g., in-person recruitment, reminder e-mails) as soon as response rates begin to drop.

Another limitation of this study is the ethnic composition of the sample. Because nearly three quarters of participants were White, it is difficult to say if the attitudes and judgments of arrest in domestic violence are generalizable to other ethnic groups. Further, because most participants perceived the couple in the scenario to be White, it is unclear whether the results in this study are applicable to domestic violence involving non-White or mixed race couples.

Other experiences that might influence participants' views of arrest in intimate partner violence situations were not included in the current study. Future studies may consider including participants' experiences with domestic violence as children or adults. These could be important factors to examine, because they are likely to complicate perceptions of the appropriateness of arrest.

The purpose of this study was to apply the results to improving police response in domestic violence cases when a woman uses self-defence. Thus, even the limited conclusions which can be made about judgments of women cannot be generalized with confidence to those who interact with domestic violence cases: police officers. Rather than recruiting from a pool of potential police officers (i.e., Police Foundations and Criminology students), it would be beneficial to recruit from a pool of police officers. That being said, other studies have noted similar arrest attitudes toward female victims of domestic violence when police officers were used (e.g., DeJong et al., 2008; Saunders, 1995).

Another limitation of the study is the restricted generalizability to other geographic areas. As mentioned earlier, the Windsor Police Service faced a string of lawsuits late last year that totaled approximately \$72 million (Sacheli, 2012). While these suits were not related to domestic violence, it is possible that these lawsuits affected how instructors at the college and university taught material with perhaps a new awareness of problematic policing. This, in turn, may have affected the students and their responses in the current study. This is not to suggest that the students responded in socially desirable ways (social desirability was only significantly correlated with warning the woman of arrest). Instead, their instructors may have approached the material differently than those in areas of Canada who have not had recent police scandals.

Finally, social science research has extensively used scenarios to study attitudes about violence against women (e.g., Abrams et al., 2003; Viki & Abrams, 2002). Scenario, or vignette, research has strengths and weaknesses. On the one hand, scenarios are useful for isolating the impact of variations in information provided and they are less

threatening when a researcher is exploring sensitive topics (Barter & Renold, 2000; Wilks, 2004) such as domestic violence. However, scenario research is not without its disadvantages. One important drawback of using scenarios in research is that it may not be realistic enough. Another drawback is participants' responses to scenarios. Even if a scenario was deemed as realistic enough, the participant's reported probable behaviour may not be in line with what their actual behaviour would be in those situations (Barter & Renold, 2000). Eifler (2007) concludes that even though social psychological theories propose a strong relationship between intent and behaviour, the connection between self-reported probable behaviour and what one would actually do is uncertain. Thus, a limitation of this study is that even though the scenarios enabled the study to explore a sensitive topic, it is not clear if the scenarios are realistic and if participants' responses would translate to actual behaviour.

Conclusion

Up to 36.4% of women are affected by intimate partner violence in their lifetime (Clark & Dumont, 2003) resulting in serious psychological and physical consequences (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Neidig, & Thom, 1995; Golding, 1999; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2001). Yet, the majority of female victims of spousal assault are reluctant to call the police and to report the violence (Statistics Canada, 2009). While some of this reluctance is likely common to the reluctance of women more generally to report acts of violence against women (similar in the case of rape), researchers have suggested that prior experience with police could exacerbate this phenomenon, particularly when police officers have arrested female victims for using physical violence in self-defence (DeJong et al., 2008).

Overall, this study's findings suggest that researchers be cautious in their interpretation of results when race is not defined in scenario research as most people may perceive the characters to be White and responding to questions accordingly. In the scenarios used in this research, all violence committed by the woman was used in self-defence. Sections 34 to 37 of the Canadian Criminal Code state that Canadians have a right to defend themselves (Department of Justice Canada, 2012). As such, all women have the legal right to defend themselves, even if the self-defence is against their intimate partners. It is problematic that individuals who are likely to become police officers believe and report they would arrest or threaten to arrest a woman in these situations.

These findings may warrant changes in what potential police officers are taught at university and college levels about domestic violence, particularly about women's self-defence. Although it is positive that there was widespread support of arrest of the perpetrator of violence in this study, there was also a negative tendency toward arrest of the victim as well, as well as the view that her legally justifiable violence to defend herself was unacceptable. It is important to continue conducting research in this area and to explore differences in attitudes when a woman uses various types of self-defence. Future research should explore attitudes toward and arrest rates for women who use non-stereotypic self-defence versus stereotypic self-defence to examine whether responses and reactions to domestic violence vary by type of self-defence a woman uses against her male abuser.

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FOOTNOTES

¹Socioeconomic status was not measured and therefore was also not investigated.

²Included in the Response to Domestic Violence Scenarios is Perception of Race, a two-item measure designed for the purposes of this study. The items are designed to assess which race the participants envisioned when reading the experimental scenarios. An overwhelming majority of the participants perceived Julie and Mark to be White (75.5% and 77.7% respectively). Nine of the ten non-White participants perceived the couple in the scenario to be White while the other minority participant answered that the couple could be any race. The lack of a minority/majority difference in these perceptions demonstrates that the dominant group's race/ethnicity is perceived by the majority of citizens to be normative. See Appendix S for the items.

Appendix A

Demographic Questionnaire – Pilot Study

1. Gender:
 - Female
 - Male
 - Other (please specify) _____

2. Age (in years): _____

3. Which program are you currently enrolled in?
 - Psychology
 - Sociology
 - Criminology
 - Social Work
 - Nursing
 - BCN
 - Biology
 - Chemistry
 - Other (please specify) _____

4. What is your current year of study?
 - 1st year
 - 2nd year
 - 3rd year
 - 4th year
 - Other _____

5. What is your marital status:
 - Married/Common law
 - Single
 - Divorced
 - Widowed
 - Other _____

6. Which of the following categories best describes your racial/ethnic background?
 - White or European Canadian
 - First Nations or Aboriginal or Inuit or Metis
 - Black or African-Canadian or Caribbean-Canadian
 - East Asian or Pacific Islander or Asian Canadian
 - Other (please specify) _____

Appendix B

Stimuli - Women's Self-defence Behaviours

A woman's violence toward non-specified gender:

A woman punching (closed fist) someone

A woman slapping someone

A woman kicking someone

A woman using a found object (like a lamp or vase) on someone

A woman using a kitchen knife on someone

A woman biting someone

A woman poking someone in the eyes

A woman scratching someone

A woman using a baseball bat on someone

A woman using a frying pan on someone

A woman's self-defence against a man:

A woman punching (closed fist) a man to defend herself

A woman slapping a man to defend herself

A woman kicking a man to defend oneself

A woman using a found object (like a lamp or vase) to defend herself against a man

A woman using a kitchen knife to defend herself against a man

A woman biting a man to defend herself

A woman poking a man in the eyes to defend herself

A woman scratching a man to defend herself

A woman using a baseball bat to defend herself against a man

A woman using a frying pan to defend herself against a man

Appendix C

Semantic Differential - Evaluation of Women's Self-defence Behaviours

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

Appendix D

Women's self-defence behaviours stimuli and evaluation

Choice of semantic differential items based on Hawkes, D., Senn, C. Y., & Thorn, C. (2004). Factors that influence attitudes toward women with tattoos. *Sex Roles, 50*, 593-604. doi:10.1023/B:SERS.0000027564.83353.06

The purpose of this study is to measure the meanings of certain things to various people by having them judge them against a series of descriptive scales. Please make your judgments on the basis of what these descriptions mean to you. On the following twenty pages you will find a different description to be judged and beneath it a set of scales. You are to rate the action being described on each of these scales in order.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel the description at the top of the page is *very closely related* to one end of the scale, you should click on the option as follows:

fair unfair
or
fair unfair

If you feel the description is *quite closely related* to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should click on the option as follows:

fair unfair
or
fair unfair

If you feel the description is *only slightly related* to one or the other end of the scale (but is not really neutral), you should click on the option as follows:

fair unfair
or
fair unfair

If you consider the description to be *neutral* on the scale, or if the scale is *completely irrelevant* or *unrelated to the description*, then you should click on the option as follows:

fair unfair

IMPORTANT: Be sure you check every scale for every description – do not accidentally omit any.

Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Work at fairly high speed through these items. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first impression, the immediate “feelings” about the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless because we want your true impressions.

A woman punching (closed fist) someone

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good
weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong
safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous
violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle
masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman slapping someone

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good
weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong
safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous
violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle
masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman kicking someone

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good
weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong
safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous
violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle
masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman using a found object (like a lamp or vase) on someone

bad _____ good

weak _____ strong

safe _____ dangerous

violent _____ gentle

masculine _____ feminine

A woman using a kitchen knife on someone

bad _____ good

weak _____ strong

safe _____ dangerous

violent _____ gentle

masculine _____ feminine

A woman biting someone

bad _____ good

weak _____ strong

safe _____ dangerous

violent _____ gentle

masculine _____ feminine

A woman poking someone in the eyes

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman scratching someone

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman using a baseball bat on someone

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman using a frying pan on someone

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good
weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong
safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous
violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle
masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman punching (closed fist) a man to defend herself

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good
weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong
safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous
violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle
masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman slapping a man to defend herself

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good
weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong
safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous
violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle
masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman kicking a man to defend herself

bad _____ good

weak _____ strong

safe _____ dangerous

violent _____ gentle

masculine _____ feminine

A woman using a found object (like a lamp or vase) to defend herself against a man

bad _____ good

weak _____ strong

safe _____ dangerous

violent _____ gentle

masculine _____ feminine

A woman using a kitchen knife to defend herself against a man

bad _____ good

weak _____ strong

safe _____ dangerous

violent _____ gentle

masculine _____ feminine

A woman biting a man to defend herself

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman poking a man in the eyes to defend herself

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman scratching a man to defend herself

bad ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ good

weak ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ strong

safe ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ dangerous

violent ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ gentle

masculine ____:____:____:____:____:____:____ feminine

A woman using a baseball bat to defend herself against a man

bad ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ good
weak ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ strong
safe ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ dangerous
violent ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ gentle
masculine ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ feminine

A woman using a frying pan to defend herself against a man

bad ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ good
weak ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ strong
safe ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ dangerous
violent ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ gentle
masculine ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ feminine

Scoring Instructions

bad ___-3___:___-2___:___-1___:___0___:___+1___:___+2___:___+3___ good
weak ___+3___:___+2___:___+1___:___0___:___-1___:___-2___:___-3___ strong
safe ___+3___:___+2___:___+1___:___0___:___-1___:___-2___:___-3___ dangerous
violent ___-3___:___-2___:___-1___:___0___:___+1___:___+2___:___+3___ gentle
masculine ___-3___:___-2___:___-1___:___0___:___+1___:___+2___:___+3___ feminine

The scores are assigned such that the most stereotypic female behaviour is given the highest number (+3) and the most non-stereotypic female behaviour is given the lowest number(-3). Sum the scores for each stimuli. That is, the highest score a stimuli (e.g., a woman scratching a man to defend herself) can receive is +15 and the lowest possible score is -15.

Appendix E

Sona System Advertisement – Pilot Study

An Investigation of Attitudes toward Women's Behaviours

This study examines attitudes toward women's behaviours. If you are interested in participating in this study, sign up during an available time slot. Once you sign up, you will be contacted at your university e-mail address. Please allow up to 24 hours for the e-mail to arrive in your inbox. In the e-mail, you will be provided with the link to the online survey as well as a participation code needed to complete the survey. Participants will receive 0.5 bonus points for 30 minutes of participation towards the psychology participant pool, if registered in the pool and enrolled in one or more eligible courses.

Appendix F

Consent Form – Pilot Study



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Study: Attitudes toward women's behaviours

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Mia Sisic under the supervision of Dr. Charlene Senn from the Psychology department at the University of Windsor. The results of this study will contribute toward Mia Sisic's M.A. thesis.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel to contact the principal investigator Mia Sisic by e-mail, sisic1@uwindsor.ca or the faculty supervisor Charlene Y. Senn at 519-253-3000 x.2255 or by e-mail, csenn@uwindsor.ca.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to research attitudes toward women's behaviours.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire that will take no more than 30 minutes to complete. You will be asked to answer some questions describing who you are and then will be presented with a list of various behaviours a woman might engage in. You will be asked to provide your evaluation of each behaviour. Upon completing the survey, you will be led to a page separate from the survey and asked to enter your first and last name, and student number so that your Participant Pool points can be awarded to you.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Some of the questions you will answer in this study may contain details on personal behaviour that may make you feel uncomfortable or emotionally distressed. This discomfort is expected to be no greater than watching prime time TV shows. A resource sheet will be made available to you. If you have any issues or concerns, please contact Mia Sisic or Dr. Senn.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There are no expected personal benefits beyond potentially gaining insight into your evaluations of behaviour and how the research process works. This study may benefit the

scientific/scholarly community by providing information about perceptions of women's behaviour.

COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

You will receive 0.5 bonus points for participating in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Your survey responses are collected on a separate page from the survey so they are not linked to your identifying information and are therefore anonymous. Your confidential information will be kept in a password protected file and will be destroyed after data collection is complete.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. However, you may not withdraw your data once each page of the electronic survey has been submitted. Your responses are submitted and cannot be withdrawn once you click the "Next" button at the bottom of each page. In order to withdraw from the study and discontinue further participation, you must click the "I withdraw from this study" button located at the bottom of each page. This will ensure that you are still taken to the page to type in your information to receive your bonus points. If you withdraw by closing your browser, your bonus points cannot be awarded. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

FEEDBACK OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY TO THE PARTICIPANTS

A summary of the results of this study will be available to you online.

Web address: <http://www.uwindsor.ca/reb/study-results>

Date when results are available: December 30, 2012

SUBSEQUENT USE OF DATA

These data may be used in subsequent studies in publications and in presentations.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact: Research Ethics Coordinator, University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario, N9B 3P4; Telephone: 519-253-3000, ext. 3948; e-mail: ethics@uwindsor.ca

I confirm that no coercion of any kind was used in seeking my participation in this research project and that I have read and fully understand the purpose of the research project and its risks and benefits.

By clicking "I agree to participate" you are agreeing to participate in this study and will be taken to the login page.

Please print a copy of this form for your records using the print option located in your internet browser.

(“I agree to participate” Button)

(Will then be taken to the login page)

(“I do not agree to participate” Button)

(Will be taken to “Thank you for your time. Have a good day.” on new page)

Appendix G

Post-study Information – Pilot Study



POST-STUDY INFORMATION

Thank-you for participating in the research study, Attitudes toward women's behaviours, conducted by Mia Sisic under the supervision of Dr. Charlene Senn from the Psychology department at the University of Windsor. This study measured attitudes toward women's self-defence. Your participation in this research will inform another study in which we need a list of perceived stereotypical and non-stereotypical female self-defence tactics that may be used in situations of domestic violence.

Recently, women involved in domestic violence have been getting arrested at higher rates than before. Some researchers suggest that it is not because they have been committing these crimes at a higher rate. When women are arrested, police reports indicate that it was often the male partner who initiated the incident. Many women who are arrested in domestic violence cases have used violence to defend themselves. Therefore, police attitudes toward women may be partially responsible for the higher rates of women arrested in domestic violence cases. It has been suggested that women's stereotypical and non-stereotypical behaviour in cases such as drug arrests and rape have an effect on how they are perceived by the public and by police officers. There has been speculation that women who behave in stereotypical ways receive more sympathy in domestic violence arrest decisions and that women who behave in non-stereotypical ways tend to get arrested more often. However, there has been no research in the past with this focus.

By participating in this survey, you are helping me better understand which women's behaviours are seen as stereotypical and non-stereotypical, so that I can use these behaviours in domestic violence scenarios in an upcoming study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel to contact the principal investigator Mia Sisic by e-mail, sisic1@uwindsor.ca or the faculty supervisor Charlene Y. Senn by phone, 519-253-3000 x.2255 or by e-mail, csenn@uwindsor.ca.

Thank-you for your participation.

Sincerely,
Mia Sisic and Dr. Charlene Senn

Community Resource List		
Site	Contact	Additional Information
Student Counselling Centre	253-3000 ext.4616	*On campus (located on top floor of the CAW) *Free to students
Distress Centre of Windsor/Essex County	256-5000	*12:00 pm – midnight *7 days per week * http://www.dcwindsor.com
Community Mental Health Clinic	257-5125	*8:00am – 4:00pm *Monday - Friday
Catholic Family Services	254-5164	*9:00am – 5:00pm Monday - Friday
Family Services Bureau	256-1831	*9:00am – 8:00pm (Monday and Wednesday) *9:00am – 5:00pm (Tuesday, Thursday, Friday) *9:00am – 12:00pm (Saturday)
Community Crisis Centre	973-4435	*Available 24 hours *Also offers 24-hour walk-in service at Hotel-Dieu Grace Hospital
Canadian Mental Health Association	Downtown: 255-7440 Walker Rd: 971-0314 Leamington: 326-1620	* http://www.cmha-weeb.on.ca *8:30am – 4:30pm (Monday – Friday)
Hiatus House	252-7781	*For victims of domestic violence *Also offers program for abusive men
Home of the Duluth Model	http://www.theduluthmodel.org/	*Information on domestic abuse intervention programs

Appendix H

Demographic Questionnaire – Main Study

1. Gender:
 - Female
 - Male
 - Other (please specify) _____

2. Age (in years): _____

3. Which program are you enrolled in?
 - Police Foundations
 - Other _____

4. What is your current year of study in the program?
 - 1st year
 - 2nd year
 - Other _____

5. What is your relationship status:
 - Married/Common law
 - Single
 - Divorced
 - Widowed
 - Other _____

6. Which of the following categories best describes your racial/ethnic background?
 - White or European Canadian
 - First Nations or Aboriginal or Inuit or Metis
 - Black or African-Canadian or Caribbean-Canadian
 - East Asian or Pacific Islander or Asian Canadian
 - Other (please specify) _____

7. What is your current sexual identity?
 - Heterosexual (straight)
 - Lesbian/gay
 - Bisexual
 - Not sure

Appendix I

Domestic Violence Scenarios

Vignette One (Control Group):

You are called to a domestic disturbance to a neighbourhood in Windsor. The couple, Mark and Julie, is waiting for you at the door of their house. They are in their late twenties. When you arrive at their door, the couple is no longer fighting. Julie is crying. When questioned, Mark admits to losing his temper and hurting her. Julie has bruising on both of her arms and left cheek, and she has a bleeding gash across her left temple; Mark has a cut on his left cheek.

Vignette Two (Experimental – Stereotypic):

You are called to a domestic disturbance call to a neighbourhood in Windsor. The couple, Mark and Julie, is waiting for you at the door of their house. They are in their late twenties. When you arrive at their door, the couple is no longer fighting. Julie is crying. When questioned, Mark admits to losing his temper and hurting her. He says that she scratched him during the incident. Julie has bruising on both of her arms and left cheek, and she has a bleeding gash across her left temple; Mark has a cut on his left cheek.

Vignette Three (Experimental – Non-Stereotypic):

You are called to a domestic disturbance call to a neighbourhood in Windsor. The couple, Mark and Julie, is waiting for you at the door of their house. They are in their late twenties. When you arrive at their door, the couple is no longer fighting. Julie is crying. When questioned, Mark admits to losing his temper and hurting her. He says that she used a kitchen knife on him during the incident. Julie has bruising on both of her arms and left cheek, and she has a bleeding gash across her left temple; Mark has a cut on his left cheek.

Vignette Four (Distracter):

You are called to the Honest Lawyer, a bar in downtown Windsor, where there is a fight in progress between two males who are in their late twenties. Jimmy has a bloody nose and bleeding left ear. Frank has a swollen right eye. Each of the men are blaming one another for starting the fight. The fight began in the men's washroom when only the two were present, so there are no witnesses to corroborate either story.

Appendix J

Saunders (1995) Original Vignettes

Vignette A: You arrive at the scene of a family disturbance, the third such call to this family in about 2 months. The woman has a broken nose and numerous cuts and bruises on her face and arms. She is crying and says between her sobs, "He came home drunk and started accusing me of spending too much money on myself. When I said I wouldn't discuss it when he was drunk, he started hitting me." Immediately the husband says she is lying and tells you angrily: "Our fights are none of your business. She deserved what she got and she knows it too."

Vignette B: You are dispatched to the scene of a domestic disturbance. The woman who comes to the door tells you her husband has been beating her and she wants him removed. She has apparently been crying and has a black eye and bruises on her arms and neck. They continue to argue in your presence.

Appendix K

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

permission obtained

Relationships Between Men and Women

Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale: 0 = disagree strongly; 1 = disagree somewhat; 2 = disagree slightly; 3 = agree slightly; 4 = agree somewhat; 5 = agree strongly.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

_____ 1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

_____ 2. Many women are actually seeking special favours, such as hiring policies that favour them over men, under the guise of asking for “equality”.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

_____ 3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

_____ 4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 5. Women are too easily offended.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 6. People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 13. Men are complete without women.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 18. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advancers.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 21. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

___ 22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

Scoring Instructions

The ASI may be used as an overall measure of sexism, with hostile and benevolent components equally weighted, by simply averaging the score for all items after reversing the items listed below. The two ASI subscales (Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism) may also be calculated separately. For correlational research, purer measure of HS and BS can be obtained by using partial correlations (so that the effects of the correlation between the scales is removed).

Reverse the following items (0 = 5, 1 = 4, 2 = 3, 3 = 2, 4 = 1, 5 = 0): 3, 6, 7, 13, 18, 21.

Hostile Sexism Score = average of the following items: 2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18, 21.

Benevolent Sexism Score = average of the following items: 1, 3, 6, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, 19, 20, 22.

Appendix L

Response to Domestic Violence

Please answer the following questions using the scale below:

1. Mark's violence was acceptable:

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0										
strongly disagree										neither agree nor disagree										strongly agree

2. Julie's violence was acceptable:

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0										
strongly disagree											neither agree nor disagree									strongly agree

Please answer the following questions using the scale below:

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%										
very uncertain											moderately certain									very certain

The scale represents the percentage (%) likelihood that you would do the following:

1. Arrest Mark

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%										
very uncertain											moderately certain									very certain

2. Arrest Julie

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%										
very uncertain											moderately certain									very certain

3. a) Refer Mark

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%										
very uncertain											moderately certain									very certain

3. b) If you indicated over 0% in question 3a, please specify where you would refer Mark:

4. a) Refer Julie

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
very uncertain					moderately certain					very certain

4. b) If you indicated over 0% in question 4a, please specify where you would refer Mark:

5. Warn Mark of possible arrest

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
very uncertain					moderately certain					very certain

6. Warn Julie of possible arrest

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
very uncertain					moderately certain					very certain

7. Help couple solve immediate problem by mediating between them

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
very uncertain					moderately certain					very certain

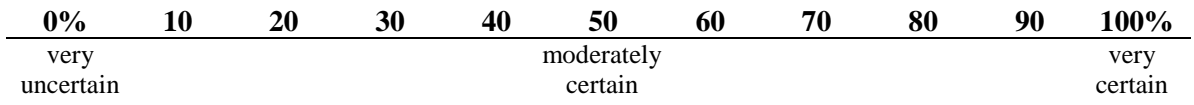
8. Discourage Julie from seeking arrest

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
very uncertain					moderately certain					very certain

9. Show that I understood each person's feelings

0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
very uncertain					moderately certain					very certain

10. Tell Julie of her legal and personal options



Appendix M

The Social Desirability Scale-17 (SDS-17)

Instruction

Below you will find a list of statements. Please read each statement carefully and decide if that statement describes you or not. If it describes you, click on the word “true”; if not, click on the word “false.”

Items

TRUE	1. I sometimes litter.
FALSE	
TRUE	2. I always admit my mistakes openly and face the potential negative consequences.
FALSE	
TRUE	3. In traffic I am always polite and considerate of others.
FALSE	
TRUE	4. I always accept others' opinions, even when they don't agree with my own.
FALSE	
TRUE	5. I take out my bad moods on others now and then.
FALSE	
TRUE	6. There has been an occasion when I took advantage of someone else.
FALSE	
TRUE	7. In conversations I always listen attentively and let others finish their sentences.
FALSE	
TRUE	8. I never hesitate to help someone in case of emergency.
FALSE	
TRUE	9. When I have made a promise, I keep it – no ifs, ands or buts.
FALSE	
TRUE	10. I occasionally speak badly of others behind their back.
FALSE	
TRUE	11. I would never live off other people.
FALSE	
TRUE	12. I always stay friendly and courteous with other people, even when I am stressed out.
FALSE	
TRUE	13. During arguments I always stay objective and matter-of-fact.
FALSE	
TRUE	14. There has been at least one occasion when I failed to return an item that I borrowed.
FALSE	
TRUE	15. I always eat a healthy diet.
FALSE	
TRUE	16. Sometimes I only help because I expect something in return.
FALSE	

Note

Answer categories are “true” (1) and “false” (0). Items 1, 5, 6, 10, 14, and 16 are reverse keyed. Higher scores are indicative of an inclination towards socially desirable responding.

Appendix N

E-mail Advertisement

Dear Student,

My name is Mia Sisic and I am a Master's student in Applied Social Psychology at the University of Windsor. As part of my program requirements, I am conducting a research study on **Police Foundations**** students' views and decision-making about hypothetical police calls. The study takes approximately 20 minutes to complete and upon completion, you will receive one \$5 Tim Hortons gift card as a thank-you for your participation.

The study can be found at: <http://fluidsurveys.uwindsor.ca/s/hypotheticalpolicecalls/>
The password is: **stclaircollege*****

Thank-you in advance,
Mia Sisic
sisic1@uwindsor.ca

*Please note that Criminology students recruited through the Psychology Participant Pool were told they would receive 0.5 bonus points, not a \$5 Tim Hortons gift card.

**"Police Foundations" changed to "Criminology" in university recruitment.

***"stclaircollege" changed to "uwindsor" in university recruitment.

Appendix O

Sona System Advertisement – Main Study

Views and decision-making in hypothetical police calls

This study examines views and decision-making in hypothetical police calls. If you are interested in participating in this study, sign up during an available time slot. Once you sign up, you will be contacted at your university e-mail address. Please allow up to 24 hours for the e-mail to arrive in your inbox. In the e-mail, you will be provided with the link to the online survey as well as a password needed to complete the survey. Participants will receive 0.5 bonus points for 30 minutes of participation towards the psychology participant pool, if registered in the pool and enrolled in one or more eligible courses.

Appendix P

In-Person Recruitment Script for Criminology Class

Hello everyone. My name is Mia Sisic and I am a Master's student in Applied Social Psychology at the University of Windsor. As part of my program requirements, I am conducting a research study on views and decision-making in hypothetical police calls. University of Windsor Research Ethics Board has cleared this study. The study takes approximately 20 minutes to complete and upon completion, you will receive a \$5 Tim Hortons gift card as a thank-you for your participation. Your participation would be greatly appreciated.

I am now going to pass out cards for everyone. The card includes the information you need to participate: the URL and the password.

Thank you for your time and attention.

The card:

<p>http://fluidsurveys.uwindsor.ca/s/crimhypotheticalpolicecalls/ The password is: uwindsor</p>
--

Appendix Q

Consent Form – Main Study



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Study: Views of Police Foundations students and decision-making about hypothetical police calls**

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Mia Sisic under the supervision of Dr. Charlene Senn from the Psychology department at the University of Windsor. The results of this study will contribute toward Mia Sisic's M.A. thesis.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel to contact the principal investigator Mia Sisic by e-mail, sisic1@uwindsor.ca or the faculty supervisor Charlene Y. Senn by phone, 519-253-3000 x.2255 or by e-mail, csenn@uwindsor.ca.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study explores people's views and decision-making in hypothetical police calls.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a short survey that takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. The survey includes background questions as well as some questions about your beliefs and your judgments on hypothetical police calls. Upon completing the survey, you will be led to a page separate from the survey which is not linked with the previous survey responses. You will be asked to enter your mailing address in order to receive the post-study information and a \$5 Tim Hortons gift card as a thank-you for your participation.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Police calls often contain information that may be upsetting to some people. If you anticipate that you would be uncomfortable reading about hypothetical police calls, please feel free to close your browser without continuing. If you have any issues or concerns, please contact Mia Sisic or Dr. Senn..

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There are no expected personal benefits beyond potentially gaining insight into your decision-making about hypothetical police calls and how the research process works. This study may benefit the scientific/scholarly community by contributing to research on views and decision-making in hypothetical police calls.

COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

You will receive a \$5 Tim Hortons gift card for participating in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Your survey responses are collected on a separate page from the survey so they are not linked to your identifying information and are therefore anonymous. Your confidential information will be kept in a password protected file and will be destroyed after data collection is complete and the gift card and post-study information has been sent to you.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. However, you may not withdraw your data once each page of the electronic survey has been submitted. Your responses are submitted and cannot be withdrawn once you click the "Next" button at the bottom of each page. In order to withdraw from the study and discontinue further participation, you must click the "I withdraw from this study" button located at the bottom of each page. This will ensure that you are still taken to the page to type in your information to receive your bonus points. If you withdraw by closing your browser, your bonus points cannot be awarded. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

FEEDBACK OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY TO THE PARTICIPANTS

A summary of the results of this study will be available to you online.

Web address: <http://www.uwindsor.ca/reb/study-results>

Date when results are available: December 30, 2012

SUBSEQUENT USE OF DATA

These data may be used in subsequent studies in publications and in presentations.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact: Research Ethics Coordinator, University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario, N9B 3P4; Telephone: 519-253-3000, ext. 3948; e-mail: ethics@uwindsor.ca

I confirm that no coercion of any kind was used in seeking my participation in this research project and that I have read and fully understand the purpose of the research project and its risks and benefits.

By clicking "I agree to participate" you are agreeing to participate in this study and will be taken to the login page.

Please print a copy of this form for your records using the print option located in your internet browser.

(“I agree to participate” Button)

(Will then be taken to the login page)

(“I do not agree to participate” Button)

(Will be taken to “Thank you for your time. Have a good day.” on new page)

*Please note that “\$5 Tim Hortons gift cards” were replaced with “0.5 bonus points” for recruitment through the Psychology Participant Pool.

**“Views of Police Foundations students and decision-making about hypothetical police calls” was changed to “Views and decision-making about hypothetical police calls” in university recruitment.

Appendix R

Post-study Information – Main Study



POST-STUDY INFORMATION

Recently you participated in a research study, **Views of Police Foundations students and decision-making about hypothetical police calls***, conducted by Mia Sisic under the supervision of Dr. Charlene Senn from the Psychology department at the University of Windsor.

Recently, women involved in domestic violence have been getting arrested at higher rates than before. Some researchers suggest that it is not because they have been committing these crimes at a higher rate. When women are arrested, police reports indicate that it was often the male partner who initiated the incident. Many women who are arrested in domestic violence cases have often used violence to defend themselves. Therefore, police attitudes toward women may be partially responsible for the higher rates of women arrested in domestic violence cases. It has been suggested that women's stereotypic and non-stereotypic behaviour in cases such as drug arrests and rape have an effect on how they are perceived by the public and by police officers. There has been speculation that women who behave in stereotypical ways receive more sympathy in domestic violence arrest decisions and that women who behave in non-stereotypical ways tend to get arrested more often. However, there has been no research in the past with this focus.

This study may help clarify whether there is a connection between the type of self-defence a woman uses (stereotypical or non-stereotypical) and judgments of her self-defence tactics as well as whether there is suggestion to arrest her. In total, there were four scenarios in this study. Three scenarios were related to domestic violence. One scenario was about two men fighting at a bar and it was used to distract you from the true purpose of the study. All of the participants read the scenario of the two men fighting at a bar. In addition to that, all participants were randomly assigned to read one of the three domestic violence scenarios. In one scenario, the woman used stereotypical female violence to defend herself. In a second scenario, the woman used non-stereotypical female violence to defend herself. In the third domestic violence scenario, there was not a description of which kind of violence the woman used to defend herself. Your answers to the questions in the study will help clarify if the women in these three scenarios were judged differently based on the type of self-defence they used.

Your participation in this study is a preliminary step in examining police attitudes and judgments of women who fight back against their male abusers. Current police attitudes and behaviour present a problem when a female victim knows she risks arrest if she calls the police for help. Unfortunately, reluctance to call the police and report domestic violence is already an issue for the majority of female victims of spousal assault. If

women are discouraged from calling the police due to fear of being arrested, this may result in further injury or even death for these women.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel to contact the principal investigator Mia Sisic by e-mail, sisic1@uwindsor.ca or the faculty supervisor Dr. Charlene Senn at 519-253-3000 x.2255 or by e-mail, csenn@uwindsor.ca.

Thank-you for your participation.

Sincerely,
Mia Sisic and Dr. Charlene Senn

Community Resource List**		
Site	Contact	Additional Information
Counselling Centre	972-2727, ext. 4226	* You can also make an appointment in-person in Learning Commons (Room 206)
Distress Centre of Windsor/Essex County	256-5000	*12:00 pm – midnight *7 days per week * http://www.dcwindsor.com
Community Mental Health Clinic	257-5125	*8:00am – 4:00pm *Monday - Friday
Catholic Family Services	254-5164	*9:00am – 5:00pm Monday - Friday
Family Services Bureau	256-1831	*9:00am – 8:00pm (Monday and Wednesday) *9:00am – 5:00pm (Tuesday, Thursday, Friday) *9:00am – 12:00pm (Saturday)
Community Crisis Centre	973-4435	*Available 24 hours *Also offers 24-hour walk-in service at Hotel-Dieu Grace Hospital
Canadian Mental Health Association	Downtown: 255-7440 Walker Rd: 971-0314 Leamington: 326-1620	* http://www.cmha-weeb.on.ca *8:30am – 4:30pm (Monday – Friday)
Hiatus House	252-7781	*For victims of domestic violence *Also offers program for for abusive men
Home of the Duluth Model	http://www.theduluthmodel.org/	*Information on domestic abuse intervention programs

*“Views of Police Foundations students and decision-making about hypothetical police calls” was changed to “Views and decision-making about hypothetical police calls” in university sample.

**Please see Community Resource List in Appendix G for the list used in the university sample.

Appendix S

Perception of Race

When you read the scenario, what did you envision Julie's race to be?

When you read the scenario, what did you envision Mark's race to be?

VITA AUCTORIS

NAME: Mia Susic

PLACE OF BIRTH: Bihać, Bosnia and Herzegovina

YEAR OF BIRTH: 1987

EDUCATION: Ursuline College Chatham
Chatham, ON
2000 - 2004

University of Windsor, B.A. (Honours)
Windsor, ON
2004 - 2008

University of Windsor, M.A. Candidate
Windsor, ON
2010 - present