A VICTIMOLOGY OF STALKING: AN EXPLORATION

OF PERSONALITY FACTORS AND

GENDER ROLE IDENTIFICATION
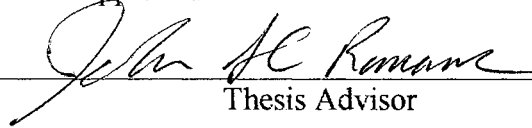
OF STALKING VICTIMS

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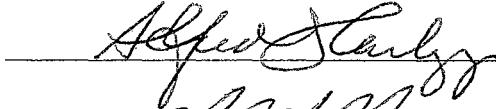Emporia, Kansas
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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Background

The greatest casualty of victimization is often an individual's sense of safety and security, and victims frequently have trouble adjusting to a more realistic view of how vulnerable they really are. So even though most of us acknowledge that crimes such as stalking can happen to anyone, we generally feel shocked when we are personally victimized.

Often associated with sexual assault, domestic violence, and homicide, as well as producing vicarious victimization of primary targets' family, friends, and acquaintances (Romans, Hays, & White, 1996), stalking is a growing concern in today's society. In an article written about stalking for the British Journal of Psychiatry, F. K. Rugeiyamu (1980) proclaimed that with the revolutionary sociocultural changes that have taken place in the Western world over the last half century, coupled with the far greater freedom of expression in sexual matters now enjoyed by young people, it seems likely that this particular syndrome will become an even greater rarity than it is at the moment. A leading forensic psychiatrist and expert on behavioral sciences, Dr Park Dietz, estimated that there are 200,000 stalkers on the street and that 5% of women in the United States will be stalked at least once during their lifetimes (1991).

Unfortunately, Dr. Dietz was not far off in his estimations, as a study in 1997 by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) indicated that stalking had not become a rarity. The NIJ study reported that 8% of American women and 2% of American men would be

stalked in their lifetimes. These percentages, seemingly small, account for a total of 1.4 million American stalking victims every year.

The predictions of the previous researchers were not far from 1994 statistics, which reported one million people in the United States at that time had been stalked. The majority of victims were ordinary people, mostly women, who were being pursued and threatened by someone with whom they had a previous relationship. Approximately 80% of cases involved women stalked by ex-boyfriends and former husbands. Of all women murdered in the United States, one half are killed by their current or former husbands or boyfriends (Ling, 1993). There are several methods of stalking, as well as behaviors which are common among perpetrators.

In its 1992 report on domestic violence, the English Law Commission stated that the degree of severity of stalking behavior depends less upon its intrinsic nature than on being part of a pattern and upon its effect on the victim. The report noted that acts of molestation often follow upon previous behavior, which has been violent or otherwise offensive. Calling at the victim's house on one occasion was not seen as objectionable. However, calling frequently and unexpectedly at questionable hours when the victim was known to be afraid, became the line drawn between mild harassment and stalking. This is because such forms of abuse may in some circumstances be just as harmful, vicious and distressing as physical injuries (Rugeiyamu, 1980).

The methods employed by stalkers include: various harassing behavior such as unwelcome visits; repeated unwanted communications (whether oral, written or electronic); repeatedly following the victim; persistently sending or leaving at the doorstep unwanted gifts or bizarre articles such as pubic hair, used condoms and used

sanitary napkins; paint daubing; putting up offensive notices in the street where the victim lives; watching or besetting a person's home or place of work; damage or destruction of property; kidnapping of the victim, the victim's family member, or pets; threatening conduct; physical and verbal abuse; rape; and sometimes murder. These examples of some of the more bizarre and severe methods employed by perpetrators. In addition to these methods, there are several other more common behaviors displayed by stalkers.

There are several signs of stalking behavior: (1) Persistent phone calls despite being told not to contact in any form, (2) waiting at victim's workplace or neighborhood, (3) threats, (4) manipulative behavior such as threatening to commit suicide in order to get a response in the form of contact, (5) sending written messages such as letters, e-mails, or graffiti, (6) sending gifts from the seemingly "romantic" (flowers, candy) to the bizarre (dog teeth, bed pan, blood soaked feathers), (7) defamation such as the stalker lying to others about the victim (e.g., claims of infidelity), and (8) objectification wherein the stalker derogates the victim, reducing him/her to an object, allowing the stalker to feel angry with the victim without experiencing empathy (Dietz, Matthews, Van Duyne, Martell, Parry, Stewart, Warren, & Crowder, 1991; Meloy & Gothard, 1995). These stalking behaviors have been the basis of many of the legal definitions of stalking.

There are several definitions of stalking. The definition of stalking used in the present study is that by Tjaden and Thoennes (1998), who define stalking as repeated (i.e., two or more) occasions of visual or physical proximity, nonconsensual communication, or verbal, written, or implied threats that would cause a reasonable person to experience fear. Welch (1995) explains that stalking, like shoplifting and

vandalism, is a description rather than a legal concept. Stalking is not a new phenomenon but it is only recently that such behavior has been labeled as a separate and distinct class of anti-social behavior. Wells (1997) describes "stalking" as the pursuit by one person of what appears to be a campaign of harassment or molestation of another, usually with an undertone of sexual attraction or infatuation." Similarly, Lawson-Cruttenden (1996) defines stalking as behavior which subjects another to a course of persistent conduct, whether active or passive, which taken together over a period of time amounts to harassment or pestering.

Lingg (1993) proposes that the term "harass," often used interchangeably with the term "stalking," denotes a pattern of conduct, purposely committed, comprising two or more acts evidencing a continuity of purpose, directed at a specific person, which reasonably causes substantial emotional distress to the person. The 1990 Penal Code of California defines "harass" as a knowing and willful course of conduct directed at a specific person that seriously alarms, annoys, torments, or terrorizes the person, and that serves no legitimate purpose. As you have seen in this and other definitions, this is an adequate description of both the activities engaged in by stalkers and the impact which such behavior has on victims of stalking.

Because of the variability in the wording of these definitions, the legal definition of stalking varies among jurisdictions, all 50 of the United States and several other countries now have anti-stalking laws (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Though stalking laws in the 50 states differ, they generally involve the following three elements: (a) a pattern of behavioral intrusion upon another individual that is unwanted; (b) evidence of an implicit or explicit threat based upon the intrusive behavior of the perpetrator; and (c) the

stalking victim experiences reasonable fear, due to the behavior of the perpetrator (Meloy, 1998).

Though made somewhat simple by the above breakdown of characteristics, stalking is a behavior easily placed on a continuum, which can run from constant annoyance to harassment, to threatening behavior to assault, and even homicide. Additionally, although most of the aforementioned definitions of stalking involve the repeated targeting of a specific victim with harassment or following, the border between legitimate courtship and stalking can be easily blurred (Nadkarni & Grubin, 2000). Though stalking cases involving celebrities attract much media attention, the overwhelming majority of victims of stalking are ordinary people who are harassed at their place of work or in a domestic context.

Even in a workplace, or seemingly safe environment such as the classroom, stalking does not always end with a simple "please leave me alone" or even a restraining order. Those stalkers who end up becoming murderers often do not start out planning to kill, but usually begin at the low end of the continuum with less threatening behaviors such as excessive phone calls, and work their way up in seriousness (Snow, 1998). Some researchers suggest that stalkers' use of explicit threats does not necessarily signal a likely escalation to violence, but the duration and frequency of contacts may portend personal contacts and violence (Dietz, Matthews, VanDuyne et al., 1999). Many studies have examined a behavioral and psychological profile of stalking perpetrators, yet few have pursued that of stalking victims.

Of the few studies focusing on stalking victims, one such study examined aspects of stalking concerning victim personality typologies along with other characteristics.

These researchers found that the victims were often outgoing, friendly, aged 26-46, and had obtained a higher level of education as compared to the general public (Hall, 1998). Other studies have found that alleged stalkers were also better educated, and less likely to abuse substances as compared to other offenders (Schwartz-Watts et al., 1997).

In other research concerning victims of crime, there is a debate over whether men are victims of violence as often as women (Davis, Lurigio, & Skogan 1997). For example, in the area of domestic violence, Straus et al (1986) indicate that women are as likely to assault an intimate partner as are men (Straus, 1993; Straus & Gelles, 1986). However, crime victimization surveys showed that women are 10 times more likely than men to report victimization by male partners or ex-partners (Bachman, 1994). Additionally, a study by the U.S. Department of Justice in 1994 suggested that men are far more likely than women to be arrested for partner violence. Even more serious is the crime of homicide, which is sometimes prefaced by stalking.

Gender disparity is common in domestic homicide data. Using data from the Supplemental Homicide Reports of the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports, Mercy and Saltzman (1989) reported that women were 1.3 times more likely to be killed by a significant other than were men. Nearly 700 males are killed by their female partners, or ex-partners, each year. Moreover, the number of men killing women in "domestic" homicide has steadily increased over the past decade, and males accounted for over 60% of the assailants in domestic homicides by 1994 (Davis, Lurigio, & Skogan, 1997). One difficulty when looking at these figures is trying to understand how gender roles affect one's propensity for victimization.

Although the aforementioned reports agree that the occurrence of intimate partner lethal and non-lethal victimization is much higher for females as compared to males, the severity of the victimization experienced as well as the associated mental and physical health effects have rarely been compared by gender (Mcfarlane, Willson, Malecha, & Lemmey 2000). Here are some questions to consider: What if the stalker is a male, yet he identifies with a primarily "feminine" gender role? What if the victim is a female, yet she identifies primarily with a "masculine" gender role? These questions were only a small portion of the fuel for this research project.

The Problem

According to a study conducted by the U.S. Center for Disease Control (CDC) (2000), of 1,808 respondents, 176 (15%) women reported having been stalked during their lifetime, and 23 (2%) women reported currently being stalked. Of the 176, 132 (75%) women reported they believed the stalking to be dangerous or life threatening; of these, 89 (67%) indicated that they had reported the situation to the police. Other measures reported to stop harassment included changing usual behavior (70%), moving (36%), purchasing a gun (11%), and obtaining a restraining order (11%). Forty two (32%) of the 132 women reported injuries from being assaulted by their stalker, such as swelling, cuts, scratches, bruises, strains or sprains, burns, bites, broken teeth, or knife or gunshot wounds. The findings of the CDC report are consistent with data from the National Violence Against Women (NVAW) Survey (1998). Additionally, both surveys indicate that stalking has adverse psychological and social consequences.

Because the effects of stalking on the victims are both emotional and physical, stalking has become a public health issue across the world (Pathe & Mullen, 1997).

Victims of stalking are affected in many more ways than simply feeling annoyed. It is apparent that the perpetrators of stalking are usually suffering from some sort of torment and because of this, there is cause for concern and preventative measures should indeed be taken. Yet more specific to this research, it is the victims of stalking, as well as family and friends, who are affected in the process. Legal sanctions and laws to protect these victims have been criticized as lacking, and many times in the past health officials have been accused of allowing survivors of stalking to slip through the cracks (Roberts & Dziegielewski, 1996). It is of significant concern for mental health professionals, educators, law enforcement, and other agencies, so that we may aid in preventing these slips from occurring.

Purpose of This Research

The purpose of this research was multifaceted. First, the intent of this research was to attempt to identify personality characteristics that may be related to an individual being at risk of becoming a stalking victim. Additionally, the research was hoping to identify the influence of gender roles, on the likelihood of stalking victimization. Finally, the overall purpose of this study was to aid in educating the public regarding understanding the stalking phenomenon, prevention of stalking and stalking victimization.

Significance of the Study

Research in the area of stalking has focused primarily upon the characteristics of the perpetrators. Luckily, however, victims of stalking are now coming forward to speak out about their experiences. This trend offers researchers a very valuable tool in learning about the experiences of these victims.

One reason for the rise in stalking claims is that in the United States, Canada, England, and Australia, stalking (also called criminal harassment) is now a criminal offense, punishable by imprisonment. There is now a greater awareness and recognition in society of the devastating impact of stalking behaviors on victims. Prior to the passage of anti-stalking laws, the public and media vocalized intolerance for the psychological destructiveness and life-threatening nature of stalking. Since 1990, citizens in several jurisdictions around the globe have pressured their elected representatives to criminalize such heinous acts (Schell & Lanteigne, 2000). Stalking is not limited to social interactions and faulty relationships. It is now a crime that has infiltrated our world at work, school, and even communications through the internet.

Research is abundant in the area of victims of crime in general. However, there is tremendous need for more research addressing stalking victims specifically. Therefore, due to the lack of research in the area of stalking victimology, and the significance of this crime in today's society, there is a significant need for such exploration. It is important to explore the profile of stalking victims, not only for further understanding, but also for the purposes of education and prevention.

Questions Addressed

This study addressed the following research question: Is there a relationship between personality factors, gender role identification, and the likelihood of being victimized? Specific questions addressed in this study are the following:

1.)   Is there a relationship between personality factors and category of stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked)?

2.)   Is there a relationship between gender role identification and category of stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked)?

Major Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses will be tested using an alpha .05 level of significance:

1.)   There is no relationship between either of the 2 categories of stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked) and personality typology (16PF 5 Global Factors).

2.)   There is no relationship between either of the 2 categories of stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked) and gender role identification (BSRI).

Definition of Terms

The following terms are pertinent to this study:

Stalking- For the purpose of this study, stalking is defined as "a course of conduct directed at a specific person that involves repeated visual or physical proximity; non-consensual communication; verbal, written, or implied threats; or a combination thereof that would cause fear in a reasonable person (with repeated meaning on two or more occasions) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000)." Category of victimization was measured by the Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000).

Victimology- The study of the criminal-victim relationship (Schafer, 1977).

Personality- Personality is a global concept and includes all those characteristics that make every person an individual, different from every other person. Cattell and colleagues (1993) would call these characteristics the "primary" characteristics, which describe a person. Personality is not static; it is developed over the years and is always in

the process of changing (Rice, 1995). Personality characteristics were measured using the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) Fifth Edition (Cattell, 1985).

Gender Roles- Also referred to as sex roles or sex-types, gender roles are outward expressions of masculinity or femininity in social settings. These roles are generally how we act and think as males or females (Rice, 1995). According to Bem (1981), a traditionally sex-typed person is someone who is highly attuned to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and who uses such definitions as the ideal standard against which her or his own behavior is to be evaluated. In this view, the traditionally sex-typed person is motivated to keep her or his behavior consistent with an idealized image of femininity or masculinity, a goal that she or he presumably accomplishes both by selecting behaviors and attributes that enhance the image, and by avoiding the behaviors and attributes that violate the image. Gender role identification was measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974).

Limitations

Because of the limited resources such as geography, time, and funding, it was of course not possible to gain a sample, which is representative of the population of the United States in areas such as age, culture, gender, and socioeconomic status. However, it is hoped that this research will fuel future research with the capability to gain such information. Additional limitations arise when using self-report measures, without the support of other-report (e.g. teacher, family member) measures. Because all measures being utilized in this study are self-report, this limitation will be addressed accordingly.

Organization of the Study

This investigation is presented in five chapters. Chapter I introduces the study of stalking, stalking victims and gender role identification. This chapter also presents the history, introduction, and outline of the problem under investigation, including significance of the study, definition of terms, and major hypotheses.

Chapter II includes a review of related literature on stalking, victimology, stalking victims and gender roles and stalking. Chapter III explains the method used for the research by (a) describing the population and sample; (b) discussing the instrumentation; and (c) explaining how the data will be analyzed. Chapter IV includes the results of the study, and Chapter V includes discussion of the results, summary, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter includes an overview of the history and literature related to stalking

in general, victimology, victim personality characteristics, stalking victims, victim gender

and victim gender role identification.

Meloy (1998) suggests that there are new and controversial threats in the area of

stalking. First, it has been hard for lawmakers to finalize statutes due to the fact that only

about half of stalkers explicitly threaten their victims. Additionally, there are some

studies which have suggested there is no significant relationship between explicit threats

and approach behavior to celebrities (Dietz et al., 1991). There is also limited research

supporting any significant relationship between explicit threats and violent behavior

(Meloy & Gothard, 1995).

Pathe and Mullen (1997) conducted research concerning the impact of stalkers on

their victims. The researchers administered questionnaires to a total of 100 reported

victims. The questionnaires assessed the impact of the experience on their psychological,

social, and interpersonal functioning as well as their risk for physical and sexual assault.

The majority of the victims were subjected to multiple forms of harassment including

being followed, repeatedly approached, and bombarded with letters and telephone calls

for periods varying from one month to two years. Threats were received by 58

participants, and 34 were physically or sexually assaulted. All but 6 victims made major

changes in their social and work lives, with 53% changing or ceasing employment and

39% moving home. Increased levels of anxiety were reported by 83%, intrusive

recollections and flashbacks by 55%, with nightmares, appetite disturbance, and depressed mood also being commonly reported. It is unfortunate that victims must experience such physical and emotional effects. In order to focus on prevention, it may be necessary to learn to identify the signs of stalking. The following is a discussion of the cycle of stalking, and the progression from seemingly innocent acts such as writing letters, to the unfortunate act of violence.

Cycle of Stalking

Gedatus (2000) outlines a suggested "cycle of stalking" in his book Stalking: Perspectives on Violence. Phases included in this cycle are the tension building phase, the winning back phase, and the explosively violent phase.

Tension Building Phase. The tension-building phase involves the stalker only intruding minimally in the victim's life. By "minimal," Gedatus means by letters, phone calls, or gifts. The stalker may also follow the victim or visit the person's home. If the victim is aware of the stalker, he or she may wonder what is happening. The tension builds within the victim. Additionally, the stalker may give up if the victim does not respond to his or her actions.

Winning-Back Phase. The second phase in the cycle of stalking is what Gedatus calls the "winning-back," or "hearts and flowers" phase. This phase only occurs if the stalker and victim were once in a relationship. The stalker tries to regain the interest or affection of the victim. The stalker might give many gifts or send highly emotional, apologetic letters. If unsuccessful at winning back the victim, the stalker may not remain in the winning-back phase for long.

Explosively Violent Phase. According to Gedatus, if the stalker's letters, gifts, or calls are ignored or rejected, his or her behavior can escalate into the explosively violent phase. This phase may begin with threats of physical violence, acts of vandalism, or other destruction or property damage. In extreme cases, the violent phase may lead a stalker to assault, or attempt to cause physical harm to the victim, or the victims friends or relatives. A small percentage of stalking cases lead to murder of the victim, or to the suicide of the stalker. The violent phase usually ends with the stalker arrested and sent to prison.

Victimology

What is a victim? There are several different approaches to this question. One of these is to define victimization broadly, extending beyond legal criteria. For example, inmates of inhumane prisons, subjects of medical experimentation, innocent persons charged with a crime, or even entire groups, such as ethnic minorities, can be considered victims (Galaway and Hudson, 1981). The role of the victim is important in assessing the role of the criminal in a crime. Moreover, understanding the subjectivity of the victim also aids victimologists and criminologists in assessing crime likelihood and crime patterns (McLeer, 1998).

Salasin (1981) defines victimization as a "situation that produces a break in the human lifeline, when someone is assaulted, damaged for a long time." Petherick (2000) defines victimology as "an examination of every facet of their [victims] lifestyle, background, health, and physical characteristics." Calling upon other evaluations of victim services, Max Siegel of the American Psychological Association, couples being a victim with the concept of stress, saying that victims are people who have received

threats, either to the body, to self-image, or to life itself. Victims have a stress reaction that manifests itself in physiological symptoms.

In earlier times, victims of crimes played a significant role in the administration of justice; they, or their families, took personal responsibility for extracting recompense from the culprits. The period referred to as the "golden age of the victim," beginning with the Middle Ages, was an era when the victim's dominant role was recognized in a range of practices such as the "blood feud," "composition" (the obligation to pay damages), and the intricate "damages and value system" of the Anglo-Saxons (Parsonage, 1979). If the study of victimology has been so long standing, then what have we found out regarding one's risk of being victimized?

Victim Risk. Petherick (2000) argues that there are three basic levels of victim risk: (1) low risk; (2) medium risk, and (3) high risk. They all refer to the degree of chance of that an individual will experience harm by virtue of his or her personal, professional, and social life. A high risk person would be someone such as a prostitute, as a prostitute is constantly exposed to a large number of strangers, may travel alone late at night, is often in contact with drugs or drug users, may be of low priority to police (if attacked or killed) and will usually not be missed until long after the event. A low risk victim may be someone who has a steady job, large social support network, rarely travels alone, and does not have a routine of activity.

Vincibility. Criminal opportunity and victim behavior combine to determine vincibility. Vincibility is a measure of a victim's attractiveness to a criminal. Statistics indicate that people of a particular age, sex, and lifestyle have a greater risk of being victimized. Each individual's vulnerability to assault is different, yet there are some

common behavioral, lifestyle, and psychological traits that increase everyone's risk (Brewer, 1994).

Age is a factor of victimization that you cannot control. Because of lifestyle and associations, the younger you are, the greater your risk of victimization. Young persons are at a risk that is 7.7 times higher than the risk for older adults. However, there have been stories about the stalking of the elderly. In most places, older people have lower criminal victimization rates than younger age groups, but unfortunately this does not always prove to be the case. In a recent news article from Scranton, Pennsylvania, two nursing home workers were arrested and charged with stalking and harassment involving at least five elderly patients (Associated Press, 2000). Additionally, perpetrators of stalking range in age from teenager to retiree (Monaghan, 1998).

Personality Characteristics of Victims

Personality in itself has many definitions. There are the non-psychological definitions, which are philosophical and theological. Philosophically, personality was defined by observing consistent behavior in one person, and yet also observing change that occurred in a person's reactions. A philosophical definition would also use the word person instead of personality. The ending of what we know today as personality was not added until the English language of the fourteenth century (Allen, 1965).

Sociology has yet another definition of personality, one which has changed many times. Early on, personality was about the individual being one of many in a group and without an identity. A shift was then made that looked at the interaction within that group, giving greater importance to that individual. From studying this, socio-culturalists

found that society holds the material for an individual to form his personality (Allen, 1965).

Psychologically, there are many different definitions. Allport and Vernon (1930) gave five: omnibus, integrative, hierarchical, adjustive, and social. In 1954, Brand gave three classes for definition: the individual-behavior (unique), general behavior (common attributes observed in a well-controlled experimental design), and the functional (individual's behavior in a given situation). These two groups of definitions have overlapped in time, and created many different definite definitions for personality. From all that define personality, including Catell (1946), it is concluded that personality comes from behavior and reaction to the environment around them. A personality is measured by traits, structures that define a potential behavior. These traits are defined by the individual and the group that the individual belongs to (Allen, 1965).

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition (DSM-IV) defines "personality traits" as "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts (American Psychiatric Assiociation, 1994, p. 629).

Because there are countless definitions, as well as aspects of "personality." For the sake of this research, personality will be defined as the sum total of the physical, mental, emotional, and social characteristics of an individual. When Dr. Raymond Cattell and his colleagues set out to measure the broad range of "normal" personality over 45 years ago, they reasoned that adjectives relating to personality had to correspond to those adjectives commonly used to describe people. Therefore, they began research on the basis of the Allport and Odbert (1936) trait lexicon, a set of some 18,000 adjectives

that describe people (Russel & Karol, 1994). Personality is a global concept and includes all those characteristics that make every person an individual, different from every other person. Because of this, Cattell used factor analysis to discover, in a large set of variables, a smaller subset that explains the whole domain of personality. Additionally, personality is not static; it is developed over the years and is always in the process of changing (Rice, 1995). This fits with why Cattell and colleagues were searching for "primary" characteristics, which described a person. Therefore, it is obvious from such a lofty definition, that personality is encompassing of several aspects of an individual. What then, do we know about the personalities of victims?

Because of the importance of learning more about victim-perpetrator interactions, researchers focusing on victims of crime have attempted to gain an understanding of who victims are, including the personality characteristics of these victims. Research in victimology has rarely produced a clear demographic profile of victims (Coleman, 1997), let alone a personality profile.

In England, the Police Federation (1996) estimated that 3,000 people fall victim to stalkers every year and that the overwhelming majority of them are women. The National Anti-Stalking and Harassment Campaign in the UK reported that over 7,000 victims of stalking telephoned their helpline between January 1994 and November 1995. They also estimated that about 95% of victims are women. It is unfortunate that victims have to feel more comfortable calling a helpline, than coming forward to authorities. It seems that only celebrities are notable victims of stalkers in this society.

Often as a result of the media's focus on celebrities, victims who are not of such status do not get as much note. Due to the narrow scope of the media, it would seem that

the victim's personality had relatively little to do with the crime, and that it was the fact that a person is famous which draws a perpetrator to obsession. Even though, what are the personality characteristics of the famed victims? Are these people who the perpetrators find attractive or likeable, even powerful? Stalking is of course not an experience reserved for celebrities. Victims are often the former spouses or lovers of their stalkers (Coleman, 1997).

Because there is limited research on stalking victims in particular, researchers must rely also on studies concerning the victims of other crimes. Research on victims of rape give note to the Sex Role Socialization Analysis of Rape (Burt, 1980). Under this theoretical framework, rape is seen as an extreme extension of traditional gender roles and male-female sexual interaction, not as deviant or pathological behavior. The subject of sex roles will be addressed later, but for now it is important to discuss what personality characteristics theories such as the Sex Role Socialization Analysis of Rape attribute to victimization. Characteristics attributed to men are "dominant, powerful, sexually aggressive, and able to gain sexual access to reluctant women," and those attributed to women are "fragile, passive, submissive but yet still responsible for controlling their extent of their sexual activity (Simonson, & Subich, 1999)." From these descriptions, victim personality characteristics would be those of submissiveness, passiveness, and fragility.

The above mentioned study is in contradiction to research by Hall (1998), which suggests that victims are often outgoing and friendly (Hall, 1998). Additionally, other research suggests it is individuals in positions of power such as professors, business leaders, celebrities, health professionals, lawyers, and adult-education teachers who are

most likely to be the victims of stalking (Willing, 1998). This inconsistency in victim

attractiveness makes the study of such phenomenon more interesting.

<u>Victim Blaming</u>

Inherent in the examination of victim characteristics, is the idea that there is

possibly some profile of a stalking victim that makes a person more vulnerable to such a

crime. If there is a profile, then it seems implied that the victim has some responsibility

in the crime. However, probably the most important thing for victims and for the reader

to consider is that they neither want nor deserve to be stalked. They are the victims, not

the criminals. Therefore, efforts to gain insight on the profiles of victims are not for the

purpose of victim blaming, but prevention. In looking at the phenomenon, they are not

only looking at its perpetrators, they are also beginning to see the necessity of focusing

on its victims. Monaghan (1998) suggests that recent research, though scarce, has begun

bringing to light just who the typical victim is.

The study of victimology dates back to post World War II, when researchers had

just begun the attempt to understand the criminal-victim relationship (Young, 1997).

Unfortunately, the early beliefs were ironic in that early victimology at times suggested

that victims themselves might be one of the causes of criminal behavior. Benjamin

Mendelssohn (1956) first coined the term "victimology" to propose a separate discipline

from criminology, one that focused on the victim's role in criminal behavior. His initial

typology classified victims in accordance with the degree of their guilt in contributing to

the crime. Similarly, Hans von Hentig (1948) argued that the reciprocal relationship

between criminals and victims called for not only greater victim participation in the

criminal justice system but also a greater share in criminal responsibility.

Up until the last decade society had basically disregarded victims. The money and influence were directed to the criminal's rights, rehabilitation, and return to society. The victim was frequently stigmatized, as much of society viewed them as losers. Victims were seen as people who somehow lost in a competitive society, and were thus responsible for their own fate. Although we will see that behavior can increase the chances of becoming a victim, there need not be stigma of culpability attached to those unfortunate enough to be confronted by perpetrators.

<u>Stalking Victims</u>

Recent reports from the National Crime Victimization Survey reveal that more than 960,000 incidents of violence against a current or former spouse, boyfriend, or girlfriend occur each year, and about 85% of the victims are women (Greenfeld, et al., 1998). In 1996, violence by an intimate accounted for 21% of the violent crime against women, compared to 2% for men. On average, each year from 1992 to 1996, 8 out of every 1,000 women were physically and/or sexually assaulted by a current or former intimate partner. Although less likely than males to experience violent crime, women are eight times more likely than males to be assaulted by an intimate partner (Greenfeld et al., 1998). Though not always the case, the reader will see that an overwhelming number of stalking cases involve such intimate partner violence.

According to the National Violence Against Women (NVAW) Survey (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998), 81% of the women who experienced intimate partner violence, were stalked by a current or former husband or cohabitating partner. This confirms other studies that report stalkers are more likely to be violent if they have had an intimate relationship with the victim (Coleman, 1997; Meloy, 1998).

Unfortunately, stalking is not a rare or unusual activity. Anyone can be a victim of stalking whether an ordinary citizen or a celebrity. According to the Michigan Women's Commission (1999) one out of 20 adults will be stalked in their lifetime, and one-third of women in domestic violence shelters, are victims of stalking. The majority of studies concerning victimology are focused in general on those victims of violent crime, not necessarily relating to stalking victims. However, there are a few studies, which do focus on this specific population. Monaghan (1998) suggests that, although stalkers and victims range in age from teenager to retiree, the most common stalking victim is probably a female, in her 20's and her stalker is usually a male in his 30's.

Since both men and women from all walks of life can become an unwitting target of a stalker, it would be understandable to ask if there are any trait in adults that make them especially enticing to stalkers. At this time, researchers have few insights to offer (Schell & Lanteigne, 2000). One of the few clues in the literature is that targets are often empathetic people (De Becker, 1997). Stalkers often have experienced painful and consistent rejection throughout their lives. Therefore it is not surprising that stalkers seem to be drawn to, and even seek out, overtly empathic individuals with whom to develop relationships. Because of professional role obligations, workplace introductions, or more personal reasons, empathic would-be targets tend not to callously turn away would-be stalkers (Schell & Lanteigne, 2000).

Mental Health Professionals. Some mental health professionals who deal regularly with individuals having mental or emotional difficulties have become the victims of stalking by their clients (Romans, Hays, & White, 1996). Gentile, Asamen, Harmell, and Weathers (2002), conducted a study in which 294 psychologists were

randomly selected to participate. The researchers developed a survey to obtain information concerning psychologists and clients who stalk them. Thirty of the respondents had been stalked at least once. Results of the study revealed that (a) there was no significant profile for the psychologists who had been stalked; (b) the stalked psychologists subsequently employed significantly more safety measures than those who had not; and (c) the clients who stalked were usually single, likely had mood and/or personality disorder diagnoses, childhood disturbances, and /or recent major stressors. It seems

In order to clarify why perpetrators are drawn to certain victims, it is important to study the intricacies of stalker-victim relationships.

Stalker-Victim Relationships

In studying the victims of stalking, it is necessary to explore the relationships between these victims and their perpetrators. Hall (1998) conducted an exploratory study on stalking victims, focusing on collecting data on the relationship between the stalker and the victim, the impact of the crime on the victim's life, types of contact made by the stalker, and the effectiveness of protective orders in combating this crime. This research produced results suggesting that 57% of the stalkers in the study were post-intimate relationship stalkers, prior-acquaintance stalkers accounted for 35%, and strangers made up 6% of the sample. Two percent of the respondents did not know who their stalkers were at the time they completed the Hall's study. Slightly half of the respondents obtained a protective order against their stalker. Of those stalking victims with a protective order less than one-fourth rated the protective order as effective in controlling stalking behaviors.

Other researchers have focused on categorizing stalker-victim relationsips. For example, Meloy (1998) outlines four categories of stalker-victim relationships: (1) Simple Obsessional, (2) Love Obsessional, (3) Erotomaniac, and (4) False Victimization Syndrome.

Simple Obsessional. Sometimes referred to as domestic stalking (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 4), and comprising around 80% of all stalking cases, the Simple Obsessional relationship refers to cases wherein the victim and suspect (perpetrator) have some prior knowledge of one another. Though these relationships do not always involve intimacy, a significant number are an outgrowth of these relationships. In this relationship, the stalker's motive may be to coerce the victim back into a relationship or simply to seek revenge. Non-intimate situations occurring at the workplace account for another sub-category of the Simple Obsessional relationship.

Love Obsessional. Meloy describes the Love Obsessional relationship as one in which there is an absence of an existing relationship between the perpetrator and victim. The most common victims in this case are celebrities and public figures. However, it is also quite common for the stalker to choose an ordinary citizen on whom to focus.

Erotomania. In the case of erotomania, the stalker feels strongly toward the victim, and holds a strong belief that the victim shares similar feelings toward him or her. A syndrome recognizing the pathological form of love has been around since ancient times. Various descriptions can be found in the writings of Hippocrates, Plutarch, Galen, and others. However, "erotomania" as a label for the syndrome did not appear in the psychiatric literature until the nineteenth century, when in 1838 it was described by Esquirol in *Maladies Mentales* (Kurt, 1995). Research indicates the typical profile of the

erotomaniac, such as an unmarried and socially immature loner who is unable to establish or sustain close relationships with others. These individuals rarely date and have had few, if any, sexual relationships. Additionally, these individuals usually come from an emotionally barren or severely abusive background (Orion, 1997).

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, 4th edition -Text Revision (DSM-IV-TR) (2000), describes that the delusion often concerns idealized romantic love and spiritual union rather than sexual attraction. The person about whom this conviction is held is usually of higher status (e.g. a famous person or a superior at work), but may also be a complete stranger. Efforts to contact the object of the delusion (through telephone calls, letters, gifts, visits and even surveillance) are also common, although occasionally the person keeps the obsession a secret. Most individuals who experience erotomania are females, yet in forensic settings, most stalkers falling into this category are males. Additionally, the victim is usually of a higher status.

False Victimization Syndrome. Meloy (1998) describes a False Victimization Syndrome (FVS), in which an individual creates a scenario in order to falsely support the position that he or she is being stalked. In this case, there is no stalker, just a creative "victim." Pathe, Mullen, and Purcell (1999) conducted a study of individuals who falsely claimed to be victims of stalking. The authors report that false stalking victims presented for help earlier than real victims and were less likely to claim harassment via letters. They also reported equivalent levels of violence directed at themselves but seldom claimed others were attacked.

False victims used more medical services than genuine stalking victims and they were more likely to be embroiled in legal action. They reported similar levels of distress

with suicidal ruminations in over 40%. The same authors also suggest that the current interest in stalking is promoting false claims of being stalked. It is important, then, to ensure that these false victimization cases do not impede the insurance of help for genuine stalking victims.

In a study by Zona (1993), 74 stalkers were divided into 3 categories: (1) erotomaniacs; (2) love obsessionals; and (3) simple obsessionals. Zona found that 63 % of the participants were suffering from a major mental illness. Zona also found that 41.7% of the cases involved erotomania, 34.1% were cases of love obsessionals, and 41.4% were simple obsessional stalking cases.

Relational and Revenge Stalking

Schell and Lanteigne (2000) describe that stalking cases are sometimes classified in a motivational sense of being either relational or revengeful. Descriptions of each are as follow:

Relational Stalking. At the core of relational stalking is a one-sided attempt by the stalker to create or maintain a close, if not romantic, relationship with the target, whether domestic relationships or stranger. Often the two parties are either completely unacquainted, or only superficially acquainted. Relational stalking cases include three variations along this basic theme:

1. Unaquainted Stalking. The pursued target can be a stranger initially encountered in some public or semi-public case.

2. Pseudo-Acquainted Stalking. The pursued target can be a publicly identified figure, often an official or a celebrity with whom the pursuer has come to feel that he or she has a special understanding or emotional attachment.

3. <u>Semi-Acquainted Stalking</u>. The pursued target can be a contact from the past such as a former classmate or a date, or a contact in the present such as a boss, co-worker, lawyer, or physician.

<u>Revenge Stalking.</u> In revenge stalking, the stalker's actions are characterized by intimidation and threats. No active relational claim is being invoked. If the epitome of a relational stalking is the stalker's refusal to accept an aborted or failed intimate relationship, that of revenge stalking is a failed service or work relationship. In revenge stalking, the dissatisfied client, coworker, or other party often litigates, quasi-vigilante style (Emerson, Ferris, & Gardner, 1998). Revenge stalking has become more and more clear in the public eye, as workplace violence has seen an increase, and is in the media. Counselors, bosses, teachers, doctors, lawyers, and other communications professionals are at risk for revenge stalking due to the job of evaluating people, some of which result in results the individual cannot handle.

<u>Types of Stalkers</u>

In addition to the typologies proposed by Meloy, Geberth (1996) defined two broad categories of stalkers: (1) Psychopathic Personality Stalkers; and (2) Psychotic Personality Stalkers.

<u>Psychopathic Personality Stalkers.</u> Geberth (1996) describes these perpetrators as generally male, with the absence of any diagnosable mental disorder. Additionally he hypothesizes that they generally target familiar victims, the harassment may be anonymous, and there is usually some precipitating stressor.

<u>Psychotic Personality Stalkers.</u> Geberth (1996) describes these perpetrators as being either male or female with a type of delusion or delusional fixation. Psychotic

stalkers usually target strangers, make attempts to contact the victim, and that there is an absence of any identifiable precipitating stressor.

Meloy (1996) notes that, besides severe attachment disturbances, most stalkers have psychiatric disorders and personality disorders. In a study by Zona et al (1993), it was found that major mental illness was present in 63% of stalkers. In a study by Meloy and Gothard (1995), 85% of the stalkers had both a psychiatric disorder and a personality disorder. Substance abuse or substance dependence was noted in 35% of the cases, while a mood disorder was reported in 25% of the cases. The most likely personality disorders found were borderline disorders, narcissistic disorders, histrionic disorders, and dependent disorders.

Somewhat surprisingly, the least likely personality disorder found in stalkers was anti-social personality disorder (ASPD), one often found in criminals. Although some might wonder why ASPD is not as prevalent in stalkers as in other criminals, Meloy (1996) notes that when viewed from an attachment theory perspective, these findings make perfect sense. Briefly, ASPD is a disorder of chronic emotional detachment. That is, ASPD criminals do not typically "feel" for their targets when they maim or kill them to meet their own selfish needs. Stalkers, in contrast, are more likely to have an intense and pathological attachment to, and fear of abandonment by, their objects of pursuit. This intense and pathological attachment was also found in a study by Dr. Don Dutton (1995), who found linkages between borderline psychopathology and fears of abandonment in domestic abusers.

Cyberstalking

Because the information superhighway is undergoing rapid growth, the internet

and other telecommunications technologies are promoting advances in communication

for virtually every aspect of society and in every corner of the globe. Unfortunately,

many of the attributes of this technology – low cost, ease of use, and anonymous nature –

make it an attractive medium for fraudulent scams, child sexual exploitation, and

increasingly, a new concern known as "cyberstalking (1999 Report on Cyberstalking)."

The illusion of anonymity offered specifically by the internet, has spawned a new

generation of stalkers, or simply offers a new method for those already at practice. Four

years ago, the word cyberstalking had not yet been coined.

In the cyberstalking scenario, the stalker will utilize electronic media such as the

internet to pursue, harass, and intimidate another. In cases of cyberstalking, an online

incident may spiral so out of control that it gets to a point where the victim fears for his

or her life. There are programs that perpetrators can use to mask Internet Protocol (IP)

addresses, in addition to remailers, which can make it virtually impossible to link internet

communications to the original source. Given this ability of perpetrators to mask their

identities when using the internet, it is almost impossible for law enforcement to

investigate such cases, let alone prosecute.

Hitchcock (2000) estimated that 1,350,000 Americans each year are victims of

some form of stalking. However, according to national and international experts, it is

only within the last few years that cyberstalking has taken hold. As more and more

incidents became known, and victims reached out to law enforcement for help, all they

received were either blank stares or were told to turn off their computers. Because of the

overwhelming number of cyberstalking cases, law enforcement agencies now know that cyberstalking is a very real issue that needs to be dealt with. The first anti-cyberstalking law went into effect just over two years ago in California, and Congress followed suit, implementing a federal law. The Stalking Prevention and Victim Protection Act of 2000 was passed by congress, and includes cyberstalking as a legitimate and punishable offense (Hancock, 2000).

<center>Victimization and Routine Activity Theory</center>

Mustaine and Tewksbury (1999) propose a routine activity theory of stalking, suggesting that movement into the public domain increases one's risk for victimization for both men and women. Consequently, the economic status of an individual can tell us much about potential for movement in public locales and inform us about target suitability. Employed persons are known to be victimized more often than are unemployed persons. However, individuals who are unemployed, but maintain a regular routine of activities outside the home, are more often victimized than those individuals who stay at their homes (Cohen & Cantor, 1981). This brings up questions about what unemployment has to do with victimization. Similarly, Maxfield (1987) suggests that full-time students are also more likely to be victimized than are persons holding full-time employment.

Lasley and Rosenbaum (1988) used data from the British Crime Survey to examine the extent to which routine activity predicted repeated victimization. They measured: (1) victims' work patterns; (2) number of weekend evenings spent away from home, and; (3) alcohol consumption. Results showed that all three of these routine activities were significantly related to repeat victimization. Using the same data source,

Sampson and Wooldredge (1987) found that victimization risk increased for people who frequently went out at night or left their homes empty.

Findings on repeat victimization prompted Sparks (1981) to wonder whether victimization changes the probability of subsequent victimization, or whether it operates as a marker of preexisting risk. In other words, is there some condition created by victimization that makes people more vulnerable to subsequent crime, or are certain individuals more vulnerable targets who are more likely to be selected for victimization and for revictimization. Surprisingly, a 1995 study by Ellingworth, Osborn, Trickett, and Pease points to both of the aforementioned hypotheses as possibilities for victimization. Due to the trend of repeat victimization, also referred to as revictimization, it is necessary to explore the theory behind this phenomenon.

Revictimization Theory

One of the earliest and best predictors of victimization that researchers were able to isolate was being a victim on an earlier occasion (Davis, Lurigio, and Skogan, 1997). Repeat victimization was first examined in the United States for the 1967 President's Commission on Criminal Victimization (Ennis, 1967). Repeat victimization has been studied now for over 20 years, and it has been consistently shown that persons once victimized are at elevated risk of victimization in the future. This fact is not surprising for victims of domestic violence, when the victim more likely stays in the situation for a longer period of time. However, research has shown that robbery victims stand a 9 times greater chance of revictimization than others, and sexual assault victims a 35 times greater chance (Canada Solicitor General, 1988). Now that we understand somewhat more the phenomenon of revictimization, it is necessary to explore what previous

research has been able to contribute regarding the relationship between gender, gender roles, and victimization.

<div align="center">Victim Gender and Identified Gender Roles</div>

<u>Victim Gender</u>

Stalking, similar to sexual assault, is almost exclusively a crime against women and is often perpetrated by ex-husbands or ex-boyfriends (DeBecker, 1997; Patton, 1994; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) found that women are 4 times more likely to be victims of stalking than men and that women are twice as likely to be stalked by an intimate partner.

In a study very early on, Lewis (1971) compared the hospital records of fifteen male patients to the records of sixty female patients. Researchers found that men with a history of sexual or physical abuse were much more likely to be aggressive and to have abused others than were women with a history of abuse. Erotomania, stalking, "violent attachments" (Meloy, 1992), and other pathologies of love occur in both men and women. Although there has been a dramatic increase in media fascination with stalking that would suggest that its base rate is escalating in the population, there is no hard empirical data to warrant such a conclusion to a reasonable degree of scientific certainty (Meloy, 1998). Contrary to today's statistics, traditional studies suggested that erotomania occurred almost exclusively among women. Hart (1921) even referred to erotomania as "Old Maid's Insanity." De Clerambault (1921/1942) did, however, include one male patient among his original five cases. How then has the study of the gender of stalking victims developed?

Harvey and Hansen (1999) reported that, women are realizing more autonomy and versatility in life choices. They indicated that men are also exploring their affective awareness and expression, and that women have exhibited more traditionally masculine characteristics through the women's liberation movement. More than 20 years ago, Straus (1977) reported the controversial finding that women are as violent as men toward their partners, hence men are as likely to be victimized. Since then, experts in the field of intimate partner violence have debated whether women's use of violence against their partners is the same as men's. On one side of the debate are those who contend that men and women are similarly victimized by their partners and that the problem of "battered women" should therefore be reframed to one of "spouse abuse" or "family violence" (McNeely & Mann 1990).

In another surprising finding, a study by the National Violence Against Women Survey (2000) estimated that more than one in four of the nation's 1.4 million annual stalking victims are men. However, other studies have specified that few male victims are pursued by females who have been spurned: 90% are stalked by other men (National Institute of Justice and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1998).

According to the Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics (1991), of the more than 2.5 million stranger assaults that occur yearly in the United States, most of the victims are young males. Willing (1998) proposed that males may be more likely to be the targets of stalking because they are more likely to hold managerial positions. Researchers say men stalk other men for the same reasons they stalk women: a complex mix of mental and personality disorders that can include schizophrenia, drug dependency, narcissism, and anti-social behavior. What, then, does victimization have to do with

gender? Is there a difference between the influences of biological sex, and gender roles in relation to victimization?

<u>Gender Roles</u>

Gender roles, also referred to as sex roles, are the outward expressions of our biological sex. Though quite distinct from our gender, or biological sex, these roles are generally how we act and think as males or females (Rice, 1995). Expectations about appropriate gender role characteristics and sexual behavior have changed markedly during the last several decades. This has been particularly true for women (Lucke, 1998). Tightly constrained and rigidly prescribed gender roles have given way to recognition of wide individual variation in gender role characteristics. The range of behavior acceptable for women has also widened considerably and the sexual "double standard" is now a matter for debate, rather than a certainty (Sprecher & McKinney, 1993).

The socially prescribed necessity for men and women to cling to traditional gender role patterns has greatly diminished, making the line between the sex roles of men and those of women much more diffuse (Lawrance, Taylor & Byers, 1996). Gender roles have traditionally been construed as first a one-dimensional and then a two-dimensional model of masculine and feminine personality traits (Bem, 1974; Constantinople, 1973). The two-dimensional model allowed people to be classified into one of four categories on the basis of their masculinity and femininity scores: (1) masculine; (2) feminine, (3) androgynous; and (4) undifferentiated.

Bem (1974; 1981) also explored these four gender-role orientation groups on the basis of an individual's self-perception of traditionally masculine or feminine traits. Those who endorse a large number of traits stereotypical of their own gender and a small

number of traits stereotypical of the other gender are sex-typed individuals. Those who endorse a large number of both traditionally masculine and traditionally feminine traits are androgynous individuals, whereas those who endorse a small number of both masculine and traditionally feminine traits considered undifferentiated individuals. Finally, those who endorse a small number of traits stereotypical of their own gender and a large number of traits stereotypical of the other gender are considered cross-sex-typed individuals.

Bem (1981) maintains that androgynous and undifferentiated individuals differ from traditionally masculine or feminine sex-typed individuals in the way they process gender-related information. This model has been widely applied and forms the basis for much of our current knowledge about gender roles (Lucke, 1998). Harvey & Hansen (1999) suggest that those individuals identifying with an androgynous gender role appear to possess high self-esteem, behavioral flexibility, and enhanced interpersonal judgement. With these results in mind, it is understandable to hypothesize that gender role identification has some effect on stalking victimization.

Gender roles have been found to be associated with indicators of mental health. A large body of literature has demonstrated that 'masculine' personality characteristics are associated with high levels of self-esteem (Bassott & Glass, 1982; Whitley, 1983). Healthy ego development and achievement have also been found to be related to 'masculine' personality characteristics (Taylor & Hall, 1982).

In the study of gender roles, an integral part of this research is consideration of cultural differences. Since Sandra Bem constructed the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) in 1974, the BSRI has been used worldwide (Katsurada, 1999). Although the BSRI is

solidly established as an assessment instrument, when this and other instruments are used outside of the United States, it is essential to examine its applicability because gender roles are both biologically and culturally defined (Block, 1973). For example, in Japan, although empirical studies on gender roles still are scarce, the BSRI often has been used in recent studies. In fact, Shimonaka, Nakazato, and Kawaai (1990), using the BSRI, found that Japanese elderly men had reversed gender roles; that is, their femininity was higher than their masculinity. Similar results were found among Japanese college students in southern Kyushu (Sugihara & Katsurada, 1999).

Summary

This chapter was a review of the available literature on stalking, the perpetrators, and the cycle of stalking. Additionally, research on victimology, as well as personality and possible personality characteristics of stalking victims was reviewed. Finally, a review of the available literature concerning victim gender and gender roles was reviewed.

The following chapter presents a thorough description of the methods utilized in the current study. This entails an explanation of the participants, instrumentation, procedures, and statistical analyses implemented.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Overview

This chapter presents an explanation of the methodology used in this

investigation. The primary purpose of this study was to examine and describe the

personality characteristics and self-identified gender roles of stalking victims. The

chapter begins with a discussion of participant selection then follows with a description

of instruments. The chapter concludes with a description of the experimental design as

well as procedures used in collecting and analyzing the data.

Participants

A total of 92 participants completed this study. Participants for this study were

drawn from the student body of a major comprehensive state university, as well as other

individuals from the general population. Research assistants approached some

participants in classes and on campus. Some of the participants who were not attending

school were acquired by asking the student participants to find acquaintances from the

community to complete protocols. Other non-student participants were randomly

approached by the researcher, and others simply happened to be on campus, and not

attending school. Through this partial randomization, it was hoped that this researcher

would draw participants of a variety of cultures and age groups, as well as attempting to

achieve a relative balance of gender. Participants were asked to volunteer and were told

that they would be involved in a research project examining relationships and

interpersonal issues. Each participant read and signed an informed-consent form prior to

participation (See Appendix A). The participants were also informed of their right to

decline participation, to withdraw from the study at any time, and other rights and protections as defined by the American Psychological Association and Oklahoma State University's Institutional Review Board (See Appendix B).

A demographic form was completed by each participant to document descriptive information (See Appendix C). Of the total number of participants, 44.6% were male (n=41), and 55.4% were female (n=51). Participants ranged in age from 19 to 48 with a mean age of 28 and a modal age of 30. The racial composition of the participants was 71% Caucasian (n=66), 9.8% Hispanic (n=9), 6.5% African American (n=6), 4.3% Native American/American Indian (n=4), 4.3 % Asian (n=4), 2.2% Latino/Latina (n=2), and 1.1% identified as "other" (n=1). When identifying with a certain sexual orientation, 94.5% identified as heterosexual (n=87), and 5.4% identified as gay or lesbian (n=5).

Of the total participants, 47.8% were currently attending school (N=48), and Of those participants who were currently attending school, 47.8% were graduate students (n=44), 6.5% were seniors in college (n=6), 2.2% were juniors (n=2) and 1.1% was a sophomore in college (n=1). Of those participants who were not currently in student status (N=39), 15.2 % were post-masters (n=14), 20.7% had completed a masters degree (n= 19), 1.1% had received a bachelors degree (n=1), 6.5% had received a high school education (n=6), and 4.3% had not completed high school (n=4). All of the participants reported living off-campus.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

Stalking Victimization Survey (SVS) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998)

The SVS (See Appendix D) is an 18-Item yes/no questionnaire. Ten items were developed by Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) as part of the Violence and Threats of

Violence Against Women in America Survey (Department of Justice, 1998). Eight items were also added from the Sheridan (1998) HARASS instrument to form the 18-item SVS. Examples of items added include threats by the abuser to harm the children or commit suicide if the individual left the relationship, leaving scary notes on the victim's car, or threatening the victim's family. Examples of other items include being followed or spied on, sent unsolicited letters or written correspondence, or finding the perpetrator standing outside the victim's home, school, or workplace. Content validity was established by a panel of experts. For this study, only the first 10 items were included in the analyses so that there would be only two categories of stalking victimization: (1) stalked; and (2) not stalked, to be considered. Measure of internal consistency of the SVS, using Cronbach's alpha previously resulted in an alpha coefficient of .83 for the original set of 18 questions.

Due to the sensitive nature of stalking victimization, a list of local counseling resources was provided to each participant in the event that remembering or acknowledging the occurrence of victimization resulted in emotional distress.

Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) Fifth Edition (Cattell, 1985).

The 16PF is a 185-item questionnaire and includes 16 primary personality factor scales as well as an Impression Management (IM) index, which assesses social desirability. Labels for the 16 scales are: warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism and tension. Each primary personality factor scale contains 10 to 15 items. The 16PF also collapses the scores on each of the 16 scales, into five global factors: (1)

Extraversion; (2) Anxiety; (3) Tough-Mindedness; (4) Independence; and (5) Self-

control. These five global factors were the basis for measure in this study. Table 1 offers

a description of each of these global factors, what the scores indicate, and which of the 16

primary factor scales combine to make up each factor.

Table 1.

Descriptions of the 5 Global Factors assessed by the 16Personality Factor (16PF)

Questionnaire, 5th Edition, and Contributing Factor Scales.

Global Factor	Description	Contributing Scales
1. Extraversion	Low scores indicate characteristics such as reserved, private and solitary. High scores indicate characteristics such as lively and adventuresome.	a. Warmth b. Liveliness c. Social Boldness d. Privateness e. Self-Reliance
2. Anxiety	Low scores indicate characteristics such as trusting, self-assured, relaxed and patient. High scores indicate characteristics such as vigilance and apprehension.	a. Emotional Stability b. Vigilance c. Apprehension d. Tension
3. Tough Mindedness	Low scores indicate sensitivity, openness to change, and imagination. High scores indicate reserved, traditional, and objective.	a. Warmth b. Sensitivity c. Abstractedness d. Openness to Change
4. Independence	Low scores indicate avoidance of conflict, shyness, and unsuspecting. High scores indicate dominance, forcefulness, and boldness.	a. Dominance b. Social Boldness c. Vigilance d. Openness to Change
5. Self-Control	Low scores indicate seriousness, restraint, and organization. High scores indicate spontaneity, abstraction, and nonconforming.	a. Liveliness b. Rule-consciousness c. Abstractedness d. Perfectionism

The 16 PF can be administered individually or in a group setting, and takes 35 to 50 minutes to complete by hand or 25 to 30 minutes to complete by computer. Overall readability of the 16PF is at the fifth grade level.

Norms. Development of the 16PF included 2,500 total participants (1,245 males and 1,255 females). A normalizing procedure was used to convert the raw scores of the sample into sten scores to simplify the comparison of a subject's scores across the 16 primary factors. Four demographic variables were used to stratify the selection of the sample: gender, race, age, and education.

Validity. Construct validity of the 16PF demonstrates that the test measures 16 distinct personality traits. Criterion validity of the 16PF is demonstrated by its ability to predict various criterion scores, such as Self-Esteem.

Reliability. Internal consistency of the 16PF averages .74; and Test/retest reliabilities average .80 for two-week interval, and .70 for two-month interval.

Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974)

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) original form is a 60-item questionnaire containing sixty personality characteristics. Twenty of the characteristics are stereotypically feminine (e.g. affectionate, gentle, understanding, sensitive to the needs of others) and twenty are stereotypically masculine (e.g. ambitious, self-reliant, independent, assertive). The BSRI also contains twenty characteristics that serve as filler items (e.g. truthful, happy, conceited).

The BSRI has two features that distinguish it from most masculinity-femininity scales; it treats femininity and masculinity as two independent dimensions rather than as two polar opposites. This enables the examinee to indicate high scores on both feminine

characteristics and masculine characteristics or even low scores on both of these dimensions. When an individual scores high on both feminine and masculine dimensions, they receive a classification of "androgynous," and when scoring low on both dimensions, they receive a classification of "undifferentiated."

Additionally, the BSRI was created based on a conception of the traditionally sex-typed person as someone who is highly attuned to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and who uses such definitions as the ideal standard against which her or his own behavior is to be evaluated. In this view, the traditionally sex-typed person is motivated to keep his or her behavior consistent with an idealized image of femininity or masculinity. Accordingly, items were selected as feminine or masculine on the basis of cultural definitions of sex-typed social desirability and not on the basis of differential endorsement by females and males. In other words, a characteristic qualified as feminine if it was judged to be more desirable in American society for a woman than for a man (Bem, 1981).

Norms. Development of the BSRI original form included 806 Stanford University students in 1978 (340 females and 476 males). As with the 16PF, four demographic variables were used to stratify the selection of the sample: gender, race, age, and education.

Reliability. Coefficient alpha was computed separately for females and males and all scores proved to be highly reliable. Test-retest reliability was accomplished by administering the BSRI to a sample of 28 males and 28 females, approximately four weeks after the initial norming. Product-moment correlations were computed between

the first and second administrations and all three scores proved highly reliable, with the lowest test-retest reliability at .76.

When completing the BSRI, a person is asked to indicate on a 7-point likert scale how well each of the 60 characteristics describes herself or himself. The scale ranges from 1(Never or almost never true) to 7 (Always or almost always true). The scores of the BSRI yield a classification into one of the 4 following categories: (1) Masculine; (2) Feminine; (3) Androgynous; or (4) Undifferentiated. These 4 classifications were also measures of interest in the present study.

Like the other instruments used in this study, the BSRI can also be administered either individually or in a group setting. The administrator is given the option of administering the original form

<div align="center">Procedures</div>

Research Design and Analysis

This study was a non-experimental design with naturally occurring groups and variables which were not manipulated. The first dependent variable consisted of the 5 Global Factors from the 16 Personality Factor (16PF) Questionnaire; (1) extraversion, (2) anxiety, (3) tough-mindedness, (4) independence, and (5) self-control. The second dependent variable was gender role identification, consisting of; (1) masculine, (2) feminine, (3) androgynous, and (4) undifferentiated identifications, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). The independent variable in each analysis was category of stalking victimization; (1) stalked, and (2) not stalked as measured by the Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS).

Because of the multilevel nature of the dependent variables in this study, the most appropriate statistical method to utilize was a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) in order to compare the 5 global factor scores of those participants who had been stalked to those who had not. An additional MANOVA was conducted to compare the BSRI scores of those participants who had been stalked, with those who had not. MANOVA was also chosen in order to protect against possible Type I error that might occur if multiple ANOVA's were conducted independently. Additionally, it can reveal differences not discovered by ANOVA tests.

Chapter 3 presented a discussion of participant selection, descriptions of each of the instruments used in this study, a description of the experimental design, and the procedures used in collecting and analyzing the data. The next chapter will offer the results of the aforementioned analyses.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses

utilized in this study. The goal of the present study was to investigate whether or not

there any relationship between personality factors and stalking victimization, as well as

investigating the relationship between sex role identification and stalking victimization.

The data were derived from participants' scores on the Sixteen Personality Factor (16PF)

Questionnaire, Fifth Edition (Cattell, 1945), the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem,

1974), and the Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998).

The procedure included obtaining data via group and individual protocol

completion. Confidentiality was maintained by using only numbers to identify

participants. Due to incomplete protocols, the information for eight participants had to be

excluded from this analysis. Data were analyzed using the SPSS 10.0 for Windows©

program. Due to unequal samples, weighting of the data was necessary.

A Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to test for any

significant relationship between personality factors and stalking victimization. A second

MANOVA was run to test for any significant relationship between participants' sex role

identification and stalking victimization. Internal consistency for each of the measures

used in this study was measured by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reliability

coefficients for each of the instruments were as follows: .79 for the 16PF; .78 for the

BSRI; and .51 for the SVS.

Table 2 contains a listing of the means and standard deviations for participants, separated by stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked).

Table 2.

Means and Standard Deviations for Participants Who Had Been Stalked, and Those Who Had Not Been Stalked

Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
A. Global Factors	*Stalked (n=39)*		*Not Stalked (n=53)*	
1. Extraversion	5.85	2.49	5.77	2.06
2. Anxiety	5.55	1.89	5.65	1.87
3. Tough Mindedness	5.23	2.18	5.62	1.69
4. Independence	4.87	2.08	4.79	1.95
5. Self Control	4.64	1.96	5.19	1.82

(N = 92)

Notice the means for either group did not vary dramatically (range from 4.64 to 5.85), nor did the standard deviations (range from 1.69 to 2.49). Taken together, these sample characteristics indicate that the participants were fairly consistent in their responses. Table 3 contains a listing of the sex role identifications endorsed by participants who reported they had been stalked versus those who reported they had not been stalked.

Simply from review of these raw data, it is apparent that the majority of participants who endorsed that they have been stalked were classified by a gender role identification of "feminine" (n=21). Likewise, notice that the majority of participants

who identified as never being stalked were classified by a gender role identification of

"masculine" (n=28).

Table 3.

Number of Participants in Each Sex Role Category and Stalking Victimization.

Sex Role ID	Victimization	
	Stalked (n=39)	*Not Stalked (n=53)*
1. Masculine	4	28
2. Feminine	21	12
3. Androgynous	6	8
4. Undifferentiated	8	7

N= 92

Of the total participants, 42% reported they had in fact been stalked at least once

in their lifetime (n=39), and 57.6% reported they had not been stalked (n=53). Upon

scoring of the BSRI, 33.7% identified as masculine (n=31), 35.9% identified as feminine

(n=33), 14.1% identified as androgynous (n=13) and 16.3% were categorized as

undifferentiated (n=15).

Research Questions

Research Question One

Is there a relationship between personality factors (5 16PF Global Factors) and category of stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked)?

This question was evaluated using a 5 (Five 16PF global factors) X 2 (stalked vs. not stalked) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to compare the scores on each of the five global factors on the 16 Personality Factor (16PF) Questionnaire, 5th Edition, of stalking victims to the scores of non-victims as measured by the Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS). Findings of this analysis indicate that there are no significant main effects or interactions between stalking victims and non-victims on any of the following 16 PF global factor scales: Extraversion [F (1, 87) = .026]; Anxiety [F (1, 87) = .066]; Tough-Mindedness [F (1, 87) = .912]; Independence [F (1, 87) = .036]; or Self-Control [F (1, 87) = 1.91]. Multivariate results are shown on Table 4.

Table 4.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) Comparing the Five 16PF Global Factors to Stalking Victimization .

Global Factor MS	Mean Square	F	Significance
Extraversion	.131	.026	.873
Anxiety	.235	.006	.797
Tough-Mindedness	3.351	.912	.342
Independence	.146	.036	.850
Self-Control	6.768	1.191	.171

Independent Variable = Stalking Victimization

N = 92

Pearson correlations among the five global factors were also reviewed and are presented on Table 5.

Table 5.

Pearson Correlations Among the 5 Global Factors

Global Factors	1	2	3	4	5
1. Extraversion	--	-.157	-.463**	-.541**	-.471**
2. Anxiety		--	.097	.192	-.063
3. Tough-Mindedness			--	-.421**	.479**
4. Independence				--	-.524**
5. Self Control					--

N = 92
** Correlation significant at the .01 level (2 tailed)

Research Question Two

Is there a relationship between sex role identification (BSRI) and category of stalking victimization (stalked vs. not stalked)?

This question was evaluated using a 4 (gender role identification) X 2 (stalked vs. not stalked) MANOVA. This analysis resulted in a significant multivariate main effect for those who were classified as Masculine [F (1, 88) = 21.19, p < .01]. Referring back to Table 3, the reader will notice that these results indicate that those individuals identifying with a traditionally masculine gender role, seem less likely to be stalked.

Additionally, this analysis indicated a significant multivariate main effect for those classified as Feminine on the BSRI [F (1,88) = 10.376, p < .01]. Again, in reference to Table 3, the reader will notice that these results are consistent with what is represented in the table, that is, those individuals who identify with a traditionally feminine gender role, seem more likely to be victimized by a stalker. Multivariate results are shown on Table 6.

Table 6.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance Comparing Sex Role Identification to Stalking

Victimization.

Sex Role Identification	MS	F	Significance
Masculine	4.07	21.82	.000*
Feminine	2.19	10.38	.002*
Androgynous	1.89	.001	.970
Undifferentiated	.120	.868	.354

Independent Variable = Stalking Victimization

N = 92

The analysis indicated that there is no significant relationship between stalking

victims and non-victims related to gender role identifications of Androgynous [F (1,88) =

.001], or Undifferentiated [F (1,88) = .868], as measured by the BSRI. Both of the

aforementioned significant multivariate main effects are in agreement with previously

mentioned trends in other research regarding stalking victimization.

It must be noted, that there is a distinction between those identifying with a

masculine versus feminine gender role, and their actual gender. There were individuals

in this study who were female, identifying with a traditionally masculine pattern of

gender roles, and males who identified with traditionally feminine gender role

identifications. Pearson correlations among the four BSRI classifications were also

reviewed and are presented on Table 7.

Table 7.

Pearson Correlations Among the Four BSRI Classifications

BSRI Classification	1	2	3	4
1. Masculine	--	-.546**	-.182	-.322**
6. Feminine		--	-.317**	-.330**
7. Androgynous			--	-.187
8. Undifferentiated				--

N = 92
** Correlation significant at the .01 level (2 tailed)

Though not included in the analysis, some of the descriptive information from the

Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS), concerning those participants who had been victims

(N = 39), was surveyed. Though some of the victims left items incomplete, there was

enough response consistency to glean some valuable information. The first set of

questions were concerning the victim-perpetrator relationship. According to their

responses, 27 of the victims had been stalked by a current or former boyfriend or

girlfriend, 10 had been stalked by acquaintances, and 2 had been stalked by complete

strangers.

The next set of questions were open-ended in structure, and explored the

frequency and nature of the victimization. Fifteen of the participants reported being

victimized twice by the same individual, and the other 24 victims reported a single,

isolated stalking event. Participants were vague regarding when the first, and most recent

stalking incidents had occurred. However, for 25 of the victims, the incidents had

occurred over 5 years prior to the current study. For those same victims, the most recent

stalking event had also occurred over 5 years prior to the current study. For 10 of the victims, the first stalking incident had occurred 2-3 years prior to the current study, with the most recent incident also being around 2-3 years prior. For the final 4 victims, the stalking incident had occurred either 1 year, or slightly over 1 year prior to the current investigation.

In response to the questions inquiring about measures taken by the victims to deal with their perpetrators, the overwhelming majority of these victims (n = 29) did nothing to deal with the stalker. Of those who decided to intervene in the situation, 10 victims reported the incident to police. It should be noted that none of the victims retained restraining orders, and none of them reported receiving mental health counseling.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

Chapter four presented a summary of the statistical analyses used to examine the research questions posed in this study, along with the results of those analyses. The results of this study suggest that, for this pool of participants, there was no relationship between personality factors and stalking victimization. Therefore, for the first research question, the outcome was acceptance of the null hypothesis.

Results of the second statistical analysis indicate that there was a significant relationship between sex role identification and stalking victimization. Specifically, results indicate that those participants orienting toward a traditionally masculine sex role identification were less likely to also be the victims of stalking than were any of the other participants. Additionally, results indicate that those participants who oriented toward a more traditionally feminine sex role identification, were more likely to also be the victims of stalking than were any of the other participants. A summary of the study, discussion,

limitations, implications for treatment, and recommendations for future research will be

offered in the next chapter.

Chapter V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS FOR

TREATMENT, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH,

AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter consists of four sections. The first section will review and

summarize the study. The next section will include results obtained from the current

study as well as discussion of the findings. The third section will discuss the limitations

of the current study. The final section will include recommendations for future study.

Summary

The goal of the present study was to investigate whether or not there is any

relationship between personality factors and stalking victimization, as well as

investigating the relationship between sex role identification and stalking victimization.

The data were derived from participants' scores on the Sixteen Personality Factor (16PF)

Questionnaire, Fifth Edition (Cattell, 1945), the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem,

1974), and the Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). The

definition of stalking used in this study, and upon which the Stalking Victimization Scale

(SVS) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998) was developed is "repeated (i.e. two or more)

occasions of visual proximity, nonconsensual communication, or verbal, written, or

implied threats that would cause a reasonable person to experience fear." It is the last

part of this definition, the experience of fear that seems to transform an individual's

perception of such behaviors from annoyance to stalking. This perception was supported

by a 1992 report by the English Law Commission, which stated "the degree of severity of

such [stalking] behavior depends less on its intrinsic nature than on being part of a pattern and upon its effect on the victim."

Prior to the current investigation, there had been a great deal of research on the perpetrators of stalking, as well as other aspects of the phenomenon. There had also been a number of studies and writings on victimology in general, and concerning victim-perpetrator relationships. However, there had not as of yet been a large body of research specifically on the victims of stalking. Previous studies had pointed out that the earlier trend for females to be the most common victims, and males the perpetrators, has now been challenged by the number of males stalking males, females stalking females, and females stalking males. Additionally, what has been often thought of by the mainstream public, as mainly an offshoot of intimate relationships turned bad, has been shown to ensue from total strangers under the façade of an internet chat room or e-mail exchange.

Eight years ago, statistics indicated that one million people had been stalked. The majority of these reported victims were women whose stalkers were men with whom they had a previous relationship (Ling, 1993). Later statistics reported from the National Crime Victimization Survey (Greenfeld et al., 1998) revealed that more than 960,000 incidents of violence against a current or former spouse, boyfriend, or girlfriend occur each year, and about 85% of the victims were women.

A total of 92 participants completed this study. Participants for this study were drawn from the student body of a major comprehensive state university, as well as other individuals from the general population. Participants were asked to volunteer and were told that they would be involved in a research project aimed at examining relationships and interpersonal issues. Each participant read and signed an informed-consent form prior to participation. The participants were also informed of their right to decline participation, to withdraw from the study at any time, and other rights and protections as defined by the American Psychological Association and Oklahoma State University's Institutional Review Board. All participants were asked to complete the Sixteen Personality Factor (16PF) Questionnaire, Fifth Edition, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), and the Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS), and a demographic form to document descriptive information.

Discussion

The results of the first statistical analysis in this study suggest that there is no apparent relationship between certain personality factors, as measured by the 5 global factor scales of the 16PF, and stalking victimization, as measured by the Stalking Victimization Scale. This was a rather interesting finding due to previous research, which had indicated the possibility of a "typical victim (Monaghan, 1988)." This may be an important, but disconcerting finding, due to possible societal trends, indicating a lack of discrimination on the part of perpetrators when choosing and pursuing their victims.

It is difficult to determine, particularly with the evidence of psychological instability of many perpetrators, if there is really any type of reasoning which takes place when one decides who to victimize, particularly with regard to personality typology.

Quite often researchers are frustrated upon receipt of insignificant results. However, this is one case where the lack of significant findings in an analysis, may have significant implications regarding the state of our current society and victimization. It has already been made somewhat clear that both victims and perpetrators come in all forms, and the lack of significant differences between these groups, and among these variables, would indicate that no one is exempt from victimization on the basis of personality.

This brings us to the point of what being victimized really means, and the social construction of the term "victim." Is it a certain type of person as defined by personality typology, or is it a perception, both of individuals and of society? Although the term "victim" is one of the staples of criminological language, and though it was used to coin the term "victimology," its real criminological meaning remains unclear, and its utility remains in doubt (Fattah, 1994).

According to Bem (1974), a traditionally sex-typed person is someone who is highly attuned to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and who uses such definitions as the ideal standard against which her or his own behavior is to be evaluated. In this view, the traditionally sex-typed person is someone who is highly attuned to cultural definitions of sex-appropriate behavior and who uses such definitions as the ideal standard against which his or her own behavior is to be evaluated. This goal is accomplished by selecting behaviors and attributes that enhance the image, and by avoiding the behaviors and attributes that violate that image.

The results of the second statistical analysis support a relationship between sex role identification and stalking victimization. Results indicated that those participants who identified with a traditionally feminine sex role were more likely to be stalked than

individuals who identified with masculine, androgynous, or undifferentiated sex roles. Additionally, these results indicated that those participants, who identified with a more traditionally masculine sex role, were the least likely to be victims of stalking.

Expectations about appropriate gender role characteristics and behavior have evolved markedly during the last several decades. Tightly constrained and rigidly prescribed gender roles have given way to recognition of wide individual variation in gender role characteristics. Regardless of this recognition, it appears that gender role expectations continue to influence behavior (Lucke, 1998).

However, what is it about the women that leaves them as potential victims, and what is it about the men, that makes them less likely to be victimized? Is it really related to the gender roles and beliefs they have adopted? Is it the traditionally masculine traits of being aggressive, outgoing, competitive, and confident, which preclude one from victimization? Likewise, is it the traditionally feminine traits of fragility, passivity, submissiveness, friendliness, empathy, and introversion, which include one in the realm of victim? De Becker (1997) would agree that one of the few clues in the literature is that targets are often empathic people. Because stalkers have often experienced painful and consistent rejection throughout their lives, it is not surprising that stalkers seem to be drawn to empathic individuals.

Hall (1998) conducted a study on stalking victims and changes they perceived in their personalities as a result of stalking. Results indicated that 83% of the participants reported that their personalities changed as a result of being stalked. Those who perceived themselves as friendly prior to being victimized, later perceived themselves as more cautious of others and guarded, as well as easily frightened and startled.

Participants also tended to perceive themselves as more extroverted and aggressive as compared to pre-victimization. When looking at these trends, it seems that prior to victimization, participants may have adopted traditionally feminine gender roles, and post-victimization resulted in a shift to traditionally masculine gender roles.

Abrahams, Feldman, and Nash (1978) used the BSRI as an instrument to measure whether masculinity and femininity were an aspect of enduring personality characteristics, or adaptations to changing life situations. They administered the BSRI to adult women and men in four life stuations: cohabitation, marriage, the anticipation of a first child, and parenthood. The results indicated that self-reported masculinity and femininity varied as a function of the demands and characteristics of the particular life situation being experienced at the time. More specifically, men and women involved in situations characterized as requiring predominantly feminine [or masculine] behavior described themselves as relatively more feminine [or masculine] than their contemporaries in less feminine [or masculine] situations. This research would indicate that individuals fluctuate in their gender role identification, depending on life events.

Though it is interesting and valuable to learn about the previously mentioned post-victimization gender role shifts, it would be even more interesting to examine what the social costs of these shifts are to the victim. It would be important to know if these shifts were changes that victims implemented into their overall lifestyle, or if they were only minor alterations to certain daily activities such as walking to work or going out with friends. It would seem to be quite difficult for one to change his or her entire way of interacting and communication with others, without experiencing some negative consequences.

An interesting finding in the current study, was that a large number of the participants had been stalked. This finding is especially interesting due to the predictions set forth by the latest National Institute of Justice (NIJ) study in 1997, indicating that 8% of women, and 2% of men, would be stalked in their lifetimes, as well as Dr. Park Dietz' (1991) prediction that 5% of women will be stalked in their lifetimes.

Upon review of, and comparison to previous literature, it seems that this may be partially due to the age range of the participants (19-43). According to the U.S. Bureau of Census in 1966, 57% of stalking victims were between the ages of 26 and 46, with a mean age of 28 and a modal age of 30. The ethnic make up of the current participant pool was 71% Caucasian, which is relatively close to the reported 83% Caucasian in the previously mentioned Census report. However, another possibility for the large number of stalking victims, may be due to the confidentiality provided by assigning numbers to participants, and the likelihood that more of the participants felt comfortable disclosing a stalking experience.

Limitations

There are practical reasons that may have influenced the lack of significance in the first analysis, one of which was, again, the small sample size. The reason the sample size was rather small for the current study was partially due to the length of time taken to complete the questionnaires, as well as the lack of incentive to complete the protocol. Additionally, there are limitations to using self-report measures as used in this study. It is often extremely valuable to gain information from collateral sources so that reliability of information is assured.

In addition to the small sample size, the majority of the participants were Caucasian, heterosexual, graduate students. Furthermore, previous research supports a high correlation between age and victimization (Monaghan, 1998). The majority of the participants in this study fell into an age range which is 7.7 times more likely to be victimized than individuals in the older age range, the lack of variance should be noted, and future studies should be more proactive in the inclusion of participants from widely varying ages. Therefore, the variance between those who had been stalked, and those who had not been stalked, may have been too small.

An additional limitation in this study was the limited body of research specifically related to stalking victims. As would seem likely, because there is a limited body of research on the victims of stalking, there is an even smaller body of research concerning personality characteristics of stalking victims, and no available research on stalking victims and gender role identification.

Evident in the body of literature reviewed prior to the collection and analysis of data for this project, was an uncertainty about what types of personalities were more prone to victimization by a stalker than others. Additionally, previous research seemed to overwhelmingly support the likelihood of a female being stalked as being higher than that of a male. However, the lack of significance in this study may suggest that perpetrators do not necessarily discriminate when it comes to personality type, but more so by whether one has adopted a traditionally masculine or feminine gender role identification.

While not all hypotheses of this study were supported, this study provided valuable insight and direction to future research in the examination of personality factors, sex role identification, and how they are related to stalking victimization and non-

victimization. A somewhat alarming statistic represented in this study, was that almost fifty percent of the participants had been stalked. Furthermore, though not quantified, there were several others who had been repeatedly harassed, followed, and contacted in some way against their wishes by a perpetrator, they just did not experience the fear of bodily harm needed to qualify for the legal definition of stalking. Future research utilizing the Stalking Victimization Survey should endure a more specific item analysis to differentiate for these issues.

Implications for Treatment

First, this topic of research has specific implications for counseling professionals. That empathetic professionals, businesspeople, and co-workers fall victim to stalking is not all that surprising. The institutions overseeing the granting of business, medical, legal, and professional degrees or licenses often advocate empathic approaches to client-professional and coworker-supervisor interactions. In many workplaces, and especially in the therapeutic relationship, open climates are encouraged (Schell & Lanteigne, 2000). Sometimes, however, during what we see as a routine job, due to the intimate discussions our jobs entail with clients, and the empathic ear we lend, we may easily fall prey to those prone to stalking behavior. In fact, Dr. Julian Gojer, a psychiatrist at the Clarke Institute of Psychiatry in Toronto who treats court-referred stalkers said that simple professional civility in the face of the stalkers' unrelenting interpersonal adversity may be the simple seed that blossoms into stalking. Just listening to someone who's never been listened to may be all that it takes to get the stalking process going.

Because of the nature of our job, many professionals in the mental health field have had negative experiences with stalkers. Additionally, experts Guy, Brown, and Poelstra (1992) affirm that half of all practicing mental health experts experience stalking and other forms of workplace violence over their careers.

Experts Guy, Brown, and Poelstra (1992) affirm that half of all practicing mental health experts experience stalking and other forms of workplace violence over their careers. Additionally, Gentile, et al (2002) offer that a number of practicing psychologists have become victims of threats and/or harassment from their clients. However, mental health professionals must also make use of therapeutic interventions in order to help those clients, or potential clients who have been victimized.

Pathe and Mullen (1997) found evidence of substantial depression, anxiety, and traumatic symptoms among victims of stalking in Australia. Westrup, Fremouw, Thompson, and Lewis (1999), in a study of female undergraduate stalking victims, found that victims revealed significant posttraumatic stress symptoms. How, then, if victims suffer from such stress, can we get these individuals to present to treatment.

Roberts and Dziegielewski (1996) report that the three most common events that will bring victims in for treatment are: (1) escalation in the incidence or severity of the episodes; (2) injury being inflicted whether purposeful or accidental; and (3) relationship and/or employment disturbance. These make conceptual sense when looking at most problems that spurn individuals into presenting for treatment. The disturbance of every day life is just enough, or has gone too far and the individual can no longer function to either their own, or others' expectations at home, work, school or in social situations.

The most important issue in treatment is not to blame the victim. As mentioned earlier, we could either look at the results of the first analysis in this study in the framework of being insignificant and meaning nothing. However, the results could also be viewed as extremely valuable, indicating that perpetrators are not as selective as once thought. This viewpoint could help much in the treatment of victims in emphasizing the importance of victims not telling themselves "I should have done....," or "I should not have done..." However, it is important to educate victims, and others on how to take responsibility for future safety.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Future Research</div>

As a result of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. In terms of the future exploration in the area of stalking victimization, it may be necessary to use some sort of anchor by which to gauge whether or not stalking victimization has any effect on personality factors as opposed to the reverse. For example, it is possible that after one has been victimized by a stalker, he or she may become a more private, cautious or reserved person in order to avoid future encounters. However, it may also be possible that one would feel empowered and forthright after victimization to prove "survival of the fittest."

2. Just as interesting as possible changes in personality style as a result of victimization, it would likewise be interesting to see if participants' gender role identification would have been altered in any way in relation to stalking victimization. Because it is common to assume that more masculine traits are protective in nature, and feminine are more vulnerable, would one change his or her gender role as a result of victimization?

3. The two-dimensional model of masculine and feminine personality traits used in this study allowed people to be categorized into one of four categories on the basis of their masculinity scores on the BSRI. This model has been widely applied and forms the basis for much of our current knowledge about gender roles. However, Spence (1984) has proposed a multidimensional gender role model, which includes traits, attitudes, values, interests, preferences, behaviors and other specific details. It would be interesting for future research to investigate the same phenomenon using this more detailed model, so we might find out what specific types of traits, etc. are common in groups of victims and non-victims.

4. In addition to these areas of interest, it would be helpful to research the coping styles of victims, and how some handle a stalking situation (i.e. ignore the stalker, confront the stalker, change daily schedules, carry pepper spray, and even reconcile with stalker). This type of study may help in understanding what it takes to first, deal with a stalker, and second put an end to what could result in some cases, in the death of a victim.

5. Because the legal definition of stalking relies strongly of an individual's "real or perceived threat" and fear, it would be interesting to measure what individual thresholds are to fear, and how this plays into reported stalking victimization.

6. A replication of the present study, with the inclusion of much larger samples from various geographical regions, age groups, socioeconomic status, sexual orientations, and genders would be beneficial for generalization to the overall population.

7. A replication of this study using different instruments, which measure similar constructs, might be beneficial both for differing results, and comparisons to current data.

8. Several criminologists have argued that the risk of criminal victimization is linked to lifestyle, routine activities, and opportunities. What people do, where they go, and whom they associate with all affect their likelihood of victimization. Hendelang (1978) reports that what people do, where they go, and whom they associate with all affect their likelihood of victimization. Variations in lifestyle are important because they are associated with differences in exposure to high-risk times, places, and people.

9. Finally, because the most recent trend in stalking is victimization via the internet, or "cyberstalking," it would be very important to study this phenomenon more thoroughly in order to understand more clearly the victim-perpetrator relationship and interactions, but more importantly to learn how to prevent it from occurring.

Conclusions

As mentioned earlier, because of the effects of stalking on the victims are both emotional and physical, stalking has become a public health issue across the world (Pathe & Mullen, 1997). It is apparent that the perpetrators of stalking are usually suffering from some sort of torment and because of this, there is cause for concern and preventative measures to be taken. Additionally, and of specific concern to this researcher, it is not only the victims of stalking, but also the family and friends, who are affected in the process. More recent anecdotal accounts of victim assistance service providers suggest that when both male and female victims are considered, the stark reality is that, when the

need for protection arises, means such as protective orders often do not protect the parties they were intended to protect (Harrell, Smith, & Newmark, 1993). In Tjaden and Thoennes' 1998 study, a significant 69% of female victims and a significant 81% of male victims said that their stalkers violated the no-contact orders.

The bottom line is, the statistics regarding stalking victimization in this country and others, though shocking, are more than likely inaccurate and gross underestimations of the actual problem. Experts agree that systematically collected and accurate databases on stalking prevalence do not exist (Schell & Lanteigne, 2000). Therefore, more rigorous research needs to be conducted concerning the stalker-victim relationship and how we can learn to prevent the stalking phenomenon and further victimization. As is evident in the world events today, it seems more and more common that perpetrators are not being picky regarding whom they choose to victimize.

Anti-stalking legislation is in effect for all 50 states in the U.S., along with several other countries. Additionally, human resources personnel working for companies, are either currently operating, or working toward specific guidelines for dealing with the stalking phenomenon in the workplace. These types of safeguards may change the way society and our legal system handles perpetrators and helps victims. However, just as in every crime, it won't stop it from happening altogether. Therefore it is important for men and women, regardless of sex role identification or personality style, to be always vigilant and aware in both their intimate, and everyday relationships.

The best way to avoid becoming a victim of stalking is think about how easily you can become one. Remember Snow (1998) reported that those stalkers who end up becoming murderers often do not start out planning to kill, but usually begin at the low

end of the continuum and work their way up in seriousness. Excessive paranoia and fearfulness are not always necessary, but don't wait until a situation gets out of hand to start planning what action you will take. Recognize that the threat of violence always exists, not only at work, home, school, or the social arena, but through the exchanges you make via the internet. This is a time to be proactive, rather than reactive.

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APPENDIX A

RESEARCH DESCRIPTION, PARTICIPANT CONSENT

AND CONFIDENTIALITY

INFORMED CONSENT
FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

I, _____, hereby authorize or direct Heather Ranger, M. S. to administer the necessary questionnaires in order to fulfill research requirements of her doctoral dissertation entitled "A VICTIMOLOGY OF STALKING: A COMPARISON OF PERSONALITY FACTORS AND GENDER ROLE IDENTIFICATION OF STALKING VICTIMS AND NON-VICTIMS." This study involves research and is being conducted through Oklahoma State University. The purpose of this research is to explore various relationship issues, and will take approximately 1 hour to complete.

Participants will be asked to fill out information in the following order: (1) Read and sign this consent form; (2) complete participant demographic form; (3) complete Stalking Victimization Scale (SVS); (3) complete the Sixteen Personality Factors (16PF) Questionnaire; and (4) complete the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

The results of this research are expected to benefit participants because of the educational possibilities of the results. The investigator will do all possible to protect the confidentiality of participants by replacing participant names with numbers. If any participant should have questions regarding this study, they may contact the project director, Heather Ranger, M. S., or her dissertation adviser and chair, Dr. John Romans at (405) 744 - 9506. Also, additional contact may be directed toward Sharon Bacher, IRB Executive Secretary, Oklahoma State University, 203 Whitehurst, (405) 744-5700.

I understand that there is the potential risk of experiencing psychological distress as a result of responding to certain questions. However, I also understand that I will be provided with the necessary referral sources in the case that I experience such distress.

I understand that participation is voluntary and that I will not be penalized if I choose not to participate. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and end my participation in this project at any time without penalty after I notify the project director.

I have read and fully understand this consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_____   Time:_____ (a.m./p.m.)

Signed:_____
             Participant's Signature

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the participant before requesting the participant to sign it.

Signed:_____
             Project Director or Authorized Representative

---Detach Here---

I wish to have the results of this study sent to me upon completion of this research project:

Name:_____

Address:_____

APPENDIX B

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

APPROVAL FORM

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 4/22/02

Date : Monday, April 23, 2001   IRB Application No   ED0191

Proposal Title: A VICTIMOLOGY OF STALKING: AN EXPLORATION OF PERSONALITY FACTORS
AND GENDER ROLE IDENTIFICATION OF STALKING VICTIMS

Principal
Investigator(s) :

Heather Ranger   John Romans
429 Willard   325 EE Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078   Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and
Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s) : Approved

Signature :

Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance   Monday, April 23, 2001
                                                                 Date

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications
to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor's signature. The IRB office
MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited
and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS FORM

PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS FORM

1.) **Age:** ___

2.) **Gender :** ___Male ___Female

3) **Ethnic Origin :** ___ African American
___ Native American/American Indian
___ Hispanic
___ Latina/Latino
___ Asian
___ Caucasian
___ Other (Specify)_____

4.) **Sexual Orientation:** ___ 1) Bisexual ___2) Gay/lesbian ___3) Heterosexual

5.) **If a student:** Year in School ___ Freshman
___ Sophomore
___ Junior
___ Senior
___ Graduate Student

6.) **If not a student, what is the highest level of education you have attained:**

__ <High School
__ GED
__ High School
__ Business/Trade School
__ Associates Degree
__ Bachelor's Degree
__ Master's Degree
__ Higher than Master's (Please specify):_____

7.) **What is your current occupation?**_____

8.) **What is your current living situation?**

__ Residence Hall
__ Fraternity/Sorority House
__ On – Campus Apartment
__ Off – Campus Housing
__ With Parents or Family

APPENDIX D

STALKING VICTIMIZATION SCALE (SVS)

Patricia Tjaden, Ph.D. & Nancy Thoennes, Ph.D

STALKING VICTIMIZATION SCALE

For the purpose of this study, stalking is defined as a course of conduct directed at a specific person that involves repeated visual or physical proximity; non-consensual communication; verbal, written, or implied threats; or a combination thereof that would cause fear in a reasonable person (with repeated meaning on two or more occasions).

Please answer yes or no to the following questions.

I.   Victimization

Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, or other salespeople, has anyone, male or female, ever. . . . .

1.)   Followed or spied on you?   Yes___   No___

2.)   Sent you unsolicited letters or
       written correspondence?   Yes___   No___

3.)   Made unsolicited phone calls to you?   Yes___   No___

4.)   Stood outside your home, school, or
       workplace?   Yes___   No___

5.)   Showed up at places you were even
       though he or she had no business
       being there?   Yes___   No___

6.)   Left unwanted items for you to find?   Yes___   No___

7.)   Tried to communicate in other ways
       against your will?   Yes___   No___

8.)   Vandalized your property or
       destroyed something you loved?   Yes___   No___

If you answered YES to one or more of the above questions. . . . .

9.)   Did anyone ever do any of the above
       things to you on more than one occasion?   Yes___   No___

10.)   Did you ever feel frightened or fearful
       of bodily harm as a result?   Yes___   No___

II.   Victim-Perpetrator Relationship

11.)   What was your relationship to the perpetrator?
        (Please check all that apply)

___ Spouse
___ Ex-Spouse
___ Current or former opposite-sex cohabitating partner
___ Current or former date or boyfriend/girlfriend
___ Relative
___ Acquaintance
___ Stranger
___ Other (please explain)_____

III.   Frequency and Duration of Victimization

12.)   How many times were you victimized by each individual?

13.)   When did the first stalking incident, by each perpetrator, occur?

14.)   When did the most recent stalking incident, by each perpetrator, occur?

IV.   Interventions

Which of the following measures did you take in order to deal with the perpetrator(s)?

15.)   Reported the incident(s) to police?   Yes___   No___

16.)   Retain a restraining order?   Yes___   No___

17.)   Received mental health counseling?   Yes___   No___

18.)   Did nothing?   Yes___   No___

Tjaden, P. & Thoennes, N. (2000). Prevalence and consequences of male-to-female and female-to-male intimate partner violence as measured by the national violence against women survey. Violence Against Women, 6, (2) 142-161.

VITA 2

Heather Renee' Ranger

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: A VICTIMOLOGY OF STALKING: AN EXPLORATION OF PERSONALITY FACTORS AND GENDER ROLE IDENTIFICATION OF STALKING VICTIMS

Major Field: Educational Psychology

Biographical:

  Personal Data: Born in Winfield, Kansas on August 24, 1973, the daughter of David B. and Gail A. Ranger.

  Education: Graduated from Winfield High School, Winfield Kansas in May 1991; received Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology and Master of Science degree in Clinical Psychology from Emporia State University, Emporia, Kansas in May 1995 and May 1997, respectively. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Counseling Psychology at Oklahoma State University in December, 2002.

  Experience: Employed as a graduate teaching and research assistant at Emporia State University from 1996 to 1998; clinical psychology intern at the Mental Health Center of East Central Kansas in Children's Services, and the Children's Partial Hospital Program, both in Emporia Kansas from 1997 to 1998; practicum counselor at Oklahoma State University Psychological Services Center from 1998 to 1999; practicum counselor at Cushing Regional Hospital in the Transitions Behavioral Health/Geriatric Psychiatric Unit, Cushing, Oklahoma, from 1990 to 2000; Graduate Teaching Assistant at Oklahoma State University, Department of Counseling Psychology from 1998 to 2001; United States Air Force clinical psychology resident at Wilford Hall Medical Center, Lackland Air Force Base Texas from 2001 to 2002; and presently serving as staff psychologist at Laughlin Air Force Base, Texas.

  Professional Memberships: Society for Air Force Clinical Psychologists, and the American Psychological Association.