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Andrews University

School of Education

THE PHENOMENON OF WOMAN-ON-WOMEN ABUSE
AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO GENDER PROFILE
AND PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Deborah Johnson Spence

July 2003

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THE PHENOMENON OF WOMAN-ON-WOMEN ABUSE
AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO GENDER PROFILE
AND PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN

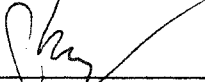
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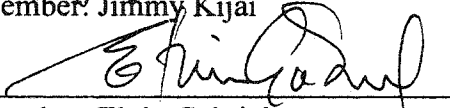
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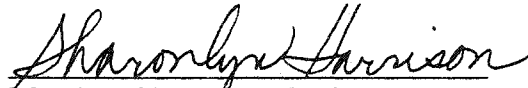
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I lovingly dedicate this dissertation to my husband Roger Martin Spence, whose gentle spirit calmed my fears and served as a beacon of light when the vision started to fade. You trusted my vision and provided the resources to make every dream that I shared with you come true. When I think of your kindness and love, I am overcome with thankfulness.
You are a precious gift from God.

ABSTRACT

THE PHENOMENON OF WOMAN-ON-WOMAN ABUSE
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AND PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN

by

Deborah Johnson Spence

Chair: Elsie P. Jackson

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

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Title: THE PHENOMENON OF WOMAN-ON-WOMAN ABUSE AND ITS
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OF WOMEN

Name of researcher: Deborah Johnson Spence

Name and degree of faculty chair: Elsie P. Jackson, Ph.D.

Date completed: July 2003

Purpose of the Study

Female-on-female aggression is often inferred, or drawn from studies conducted with children or males. Little or no information is available that reports behaviors perceived as mistreatment or abuse among women. The purposes of this study were to investigate (a) behaviors demonstrated by women that women consider abuse or mistreatment; (b) the extent to which these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment were related to gender profiles; and (c) the extent to which personal experiences as victims or perpetrators of abuse were related to age, race, and education.

Method

This study used the survey research method in which questionnaires were mailed and self-administered to a convenience sample of 1,700 Mary Kay™ personnel and their associates. Six hundred and twenty-six of the 640 respondents who chose to participate in this study were included for final data analysis. The questionnaire was designed to elicit demographic characteristics, gender profile, and overt and covert acts or behaviors that may be considered mistreatment/abuse.

Results

Thirty-five percent of the women admitted to being perpetrators of abuse, while 59% reported being victims of abuse by other women. Only overt behaviors such as “sleeping with her husband to hurt her” were considered acts of abuse. Caucasians tended to view these overt acts as more abusive than other racial groups. In addition, women in the 40-49 age range perceived these acts to be more abusive. Perception of abuse was not related to gender profile.

Conclusion

The phenomenon of woman-on-woman abuse is quite real. Unlike gender and education, race and age appear to play important roles in the perception of this phenomenon. Race, age and educational levels appeared to play important roles in the perception of victimization.

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Last but not least, I would like to acknowledge a special friend, the late Avis Cadogan, whose words continue to echo in my mind. They were, "I am more afraid of those women than I am this cancer that is within my body."

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, females have been portrayed as jealous, underhanded, prone to betrayal, disobedient, and secretive. They are thought to lack public identity and language and engage in non-physical aggression that has been described as “catty,” “crafty,” “evil,” and “cunning” (Simmons, 2002). Such behaviors characterize female development, making such conflicts a rite-of-passage (Simmons, 2002). This study seeks to examine behaviors that women consider mistreatment or abuse.

Jones (1990) posits that dynamics adhered to when women congregate in their private domains often excludes the public sector. Their talk serves not only to provide comfort and mutual support within the group, but it may also offer opportunity to protest oppression. While some theorists maintain the supportive nature of female interaction, others report indirect forms of aggression (Bjoerkqvist, Lagerspetz, & Kauianinen, 1992) and discuss the guilt and anxiety experienced due to engaging in such aggressive behavior. Female behaviors are often driven by fear of being the target of retaliation from other females (Eagly & Steffen, 1986). These retaliations are manifest as aggression.

Aggression is hailed as a hallmark of male behavior. Males are expected to engage in aggressive behavior, while females are expected to use intimacy to manipulate

and overpower others (Simmons, 2002). Female aggressive behaviors are seldom the object of any significant contemplation, and still, in the 21st century, little research can be found on the types of abuse/mistreatment women administer to other women.

Institutional training programs focus even on the aggression in boys rather than girls (Crick, 1996).

One distinguishing characteristic between boys and girls, and consequently between men and women, is the use of aggression. After same-sex groups are formed, boys continue to play rough and exert overt aggression among themselves. By contrast, relational aggression, the type of aggression more commonly engaged in by females, involved attempts to harm others through the manipulation and damage of relationships, and through social exclusion (Crick, 1995). This aggression is thought to be a type of aggression performed by girls toward other girls, beginning in middle childhood. Girls demonstrate aggression by damaging or interfering with one another's relationships, reputation, or psychological well-being. Such behavior may include spreading rumors, name-calling, withholding friendship, or excluding someone from a group (Papalia, 2001). This is clearly distinct from the roughshod behavior that typically characterizes boys. Patently, girls have been more likely to rely on words to protest and to work out conflicts (Coie & Dodge, 1998). They demonstrate aggression differently, and their type of aggression may not be noticed for what it really is (Boyle, 1999; Coie & Dodge, 1998; Papalia, 2001).

Burgess (2001) identifies behaviors exemplifying relational aggression in children as: (a) keeping a person from being in their group of friends, (b) threatening to stop liking

a friend unless they conform to specific expectations, (c) ignoring or refraining from talking to a person when mad, and (d) selectively limiting the people who are let into a group during activity or play time.

There seems to be a link between this early pattern and what later happens among women. Burgess (2001) sees adult relational aggressive behavior to include: (a) giving the “silent treatment” when angry, (b) damaging others’ reputation by passing on negative information, (c) retaliation by excluding others from activities, (d) intentionally ignoring others until they agree to do something for you, (e) making it clear to your friend that they will be thought less of until acquiescence, (f) threatening to share private information with others to force compliance, and (g) stealing the dating partners of same-sex peers. It is apparent from Burgess’s studies that aggressive behavior among adults is an expanded form of aggressive behavior among children.

Evans (1996) reported similar behaviors to the ones that Burgess lists. Evans (1996) reported the dynamics of verbally abusive relationships depicting men as verbal abusers of females. Similar behaviors were noted between the men in Evans’ study and the behaviors reported by women in the focus group that will be discussed in chapter 3. These acts would be considered verbal, emotional, and psychological abuse in male-female relationships. Evans cites anger as a motivator, cause, and perpetual force in verbal abuse administered by men to women. It can be inferred from these studies that there is comparable aggressive tendency among men just as there is among women. These aggressive behaviors are labeled as abuses when perpetrated by men toward women. However no such label has been applied when the same behavior is

demonstrated by women to women. When performed by women these same abuses are deemed “relational,” rather than aggressive.

Statement of the Problem

Dichotomous nomenclature used to describe aggressive behaviors is problematic. Palliative terms such as “relational aggression” are used to label female aggressive behaviors, while abuse is often used to describe the same behavior by men. This dichotomous labeling serves to tone down or even trivialize abusive behaviors when done by women.

While there is wide societal acceptance that polar forms of aggression between males and females exist, researchers press toward gender neutrality in hopes to propel society toward androgyny or fluid identity, attempting to foster the disappearance of boundaries, especially when boundary dissolutions relate to gender (Haraway, 1991). Even though these research postulates move toward gender neutrality and societal communicative competencies, unanswered questions remain regarding communication and gender profiles’ influence on the dynamics of women’s interactions. Gender neutrality and communicative competence in societies are the ideals, but gender stereotyping, mainly gender and aggression in boys and men, remains the primary focus of a wide body of research literature (Alpert-Gillis & Connell, 1989; Clark, 2002; Crick, 1995; Kirkley & Weaver, 1999; McNeill-Choque et al., 1996; Murray, 1998; Peters, 2001; Simmons, 2002; Wiseman, 2002).

Another problem is suggested by the literature (Boyle, 1999; Clark, 2002; Crick, 1995; Magner, 2001; Slee, 1994; Stanley & Tiny, 1998; Wiseman, 2002). The majority of the extant studies from which our conclusions about female-on-female aggression are inferred are drawn from studies on children. Few have focused on women as primary research subjects. Consequently, little information is available that reports perceptions of female relational aggression into adulthood, or more specifically, behaviors perceived as mistreatment or abuse among women. It is not surprising that the conclusions are, on the main, obliquely related to women. Therefore, there is not only room for, but a need for, research that focuses directly on women's issues, particularly abusive behaviors among women.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine the behaviors demonstrated by women that women perceive to be abuse. It is also to examine the extent to which such perceptions or experiences of abuse are related to gender profiles. Personal experiences of women as both victims and perpetrators with regard to age, race, and education are also examined.

Research Questions

The three major questions this research seeks to answer are:

1. What behaviors do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?
2. Are these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?
3. What is the relationship between a woman's personal experience as both victims and perpetrators of abuse and race, age, and education?

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 = There is a significant relationship between race and the perceived types of abuse/ mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 2 = There is a significant relationship between age and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 3 = There is a significant relationship between education and the perceived types of abuse/ mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 4 = There is a significant relationship between gender profiles and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 5 = There is significant relationship between perceived victim's personal experiences and race, age, and education.

Hypothesis 6 = There is a significant relationship between perceived perpetrator's personal experiences and race, age, and education.

Significance of the Study

Providing clarity to the phenomenon of women abusing women establishes that not only men abuse women but that women abuse other women. Determining perceptions of abuse by empirically derived data makes addressing the specter of abuse in the feminine domain and in the research community more substantive. Empirical conclusions may support what women have already known, but was considered too subtle to measure. Hence, the investigation of this phenomenon "Woman on Woman Abuse" (WOWA) would serve as a tool to further raise women's consciousness regarding

WOWA's dynamics.

The results of this study may generate a body of knowledge that can support applications in counseling and leadership. Findings may also provide significant insights that may be integrated into educational curricula and intervention models, and social and community forums. These findings may also serve as an evaluative tool in the workplace, and create understandings with the potential to strengthen women's ministries. However, stimulating research which investigates the dynamics of women's harmful interactions with other women is most sought after by this researcher.

Conceptual Framework

This conceptual framework begins with the perception of classical psychological ideology and proceeds to discussions on gender. Gender is presented as a biological determinant first, and as a construct second. The construct of gender involves traditional and nontraditional aspects of individuals based on perceived sex. The positions of two theorists, Bem (1993) and Deaux (Deaux & Lewis, 1983), present uni-dimensional and multi-dimensional perspectives on gender. The key construct, that women engage in the same type of non-physical abuse within their subculture, is given. Finally, the issue of perception is revisited.

One outstanding characteristic of human perception is that we tend to organize our conscious perception of the world in terms of the highest available level of organization (Latner, 1986), and in doing so we see the whole rather than the parts. The study challenges researchers to consider paradigm shifts away from the classic psychological

ideology that it is impossible to account for the perceptions of a whole simply by adding the perceptions of its individual parts. It is my assumption that to understand the phenomenon of women abusing women, it becomes necessary to examine the parts. The parts in this study comprise gender profiles of women as they relate to women's perceptions of abuse among women.

Gender perception is a multifaceted process involving all senses put into service when making a decision regarding a person's gender (Peirce, 2002). The practice of perception commences with the processing of general sensory signals (cues) such as appearance, speech and speech content, scent, mannerisms, eye contact, length of eye contact, and type of eye contact. Research suggests some cues are obvious in nature and others very subtle, but nonetheless important. All cues, regardless of sex, have a masculine and a feminine side (Peirce, 2002).

Historically, sex has been explained as a biological and dichotomous determinant of gender, therefore, genitalia determined whether an individual is a woman or a man. Gender Schema Theory developed by Bem (1993) accounts for the socialization of children into gender-specific roles. According to Bem, societal conditions result in an individual's viewing the world from gender-schematic or gender-aschematic perspectives.

Gender-schematic, or sex-typed, individuals are those who view the world mainly from a point of view that bifurcates society into female or male sectors based on biological determinants. Women who view the world from a gender-schematic point of view are thought to be stereotypically nurturing, acquiescent and non-confrontational. Women who view the world from a gender-aschematic, point of view are thought to

exhibit fewer nurturing behaviors, are not necessarily acquiescent, and demonstrate characteristics stereotypically thought to be male characteristics (“The Theory Behind the Research,” n.d.).

Whereas Deaux and Lewis (1983) fail to reference Bem’s Gender Schema Theory, they did identify two clusters of traits that are associated with women and men: warmth and expressiveness, thought to be more characteristic of women than men; and competence and rationality believed to be more characteristic of men than women. Although the two theories are presented differently, Deaux and Lewis (1983), and Bem (1993) posit that there is far more to gender than what was postulated in past research.

Drawing upon Bem’s Gender Schema Theory and Deaux’s assessment of stereotypes, the traditional gender-schematic woman is defined as one who is kind, emotional, gentle, does household chores, and cooks the meals. A non-traditional woman was defined as one who stood up under pressure, was competitive, independent, provides financially, and takes the initiative with the opposite sex. Mixed profiles have both traditional and non-traditional characteristics.

Gender stereotypes influenced by traditional and non-traditional characteristics are preconceived generalizations about male and female behavior, e.g., “All females are passive and dependent; all males are aggressive and independent” (Papalia, 2001). Gender roles, influenced by extensive ideologies of gender stereotypes, are significant in the development of gender profiles in American culture.

Gender typing, a by-product of gender stereotypes, is environmentally influenced and accounts for how people acquire the traits, behaviors, attitudes, preferences, and

interests deemed culturally appropriate for a specific gender. This process begins at birth, and is supported by parents, teachers, television, and other influences that play a powerful role in promoting gender typing (Wood & Wood, 1996). Bandura (1969), whose thoughts are judged traditional, attributes gender typing to sex-role differentiation that usually begins immediately after birth. He reported that gender-type conditioning was demonstrated in the selection of children's names, decoration of their nurseries, and the promulgate adorning of children. Differences in play materials, recreational activities, and reactions of parents to play interaction also affect gender typing. Rough play is typed boy behavior and the forming of small groups is typed girl behavior. Such behaviors in both sexes are typically demonstrated in early and middle childhood.

A gender role is usually thought of as the conditioned and learned behaviors a culture associates with being male or female. The idea of masculinity is communicated to males through family, peers, culture, and societal standards. The idea of femininity is communicated to females in like manner. In this sense, gender is not only a function of sex. A person becomes a personality via the complex fusion of nature and nurture. Often this process fuses sex and gender together. Because biological sex converges with gender, it often becomes difficult to disentangle the two. Eckstein (2001) refers to this interaction as achieved sex.

Gender-role typing continues through adolescence. Kissman (1990) reported that the attitudes of teenage mothers on issues of gender-role reflected learned stereotypes. In his study, Kissman found adolescent girls did not think women should be considered as seriously as men for jobs as executives or politicians. They also thought women could

not run their lives the way they wanted. Orenstein (1994) observed girls demonstrating the importance of being “nice,” and reported that being “nice” is hailed above vigor, brightness, self-expression, and honesty. Being perfect meant not having bad thoughts or feelings, and that everyone wanted to partake in your presence. Clearly, these attitudes reflect traditional gender stereotypes.

Perpetrators of abuse are also thought to subscribe to traditional stereotypes and have been mostly characterized as men (Zastrow & Kirt-Ashman, 1997). Issues of abuse are thought to coincide with postulates of the Learning Theory. The child, often assumed the male child, learns abusive behavior by observing behaviors modeled by his parents. Later in life, the behavior is reenacted, only the child is now the adult perpetrator. However, this simple explanation is substantial, but myopic.

It is assumed that violence is learned (Bandura, 1969). Boys observe violent adult models, typically fathers, and are at risk for becoming perpetrators of violence. It is also assumed that girls observe abused adult models, typically their mothers, and are at risk for becoming victims of violence (Bandura, 1969). On the basis of this research, it would appear that boys and girls learn violence from their social models regardless of sex even when the violence is subtle. This is true especially with girls. Girls naturally develop rules when interacting together. Interactions demonstrating these rules are observable as early as 3 years of age (Papalia & Olds, 2001). It is believed that these rules diminish with age. Rather, girls grow into adults, and adult women, unlike men, perpetrate violence in a socially acceptable manner.

This study attempts to examine perceptions of women abusing women by categorizing women into three distinct groups, based on the gender schema theory. The groups are: traditional gender profile group (gender-schematic), non-traditional gender profile group (gender-aschematic), and the mixed traditional gender profile group (displaying both gender-schematic and gender-aschematic perceptions).

The key construct of the study is that women engage in the same type of nonphysical abuse within their subculture as seen in the population at large. It is assumed that men are inclined toward physical violence, and females are inclined toward social violence. Deaux and Lewis's (1983) constructs on personality and behavior help separate what is considered masculine from what is considered feminine. Both personality and behavior are measurable variables in determining gender profile, and, when compared with perceived mistreatment among women may, determine differences between gender subscription and abuse/mistreatment among women. It is conjectured that gender or sex alone may not determine types of aggression as once thought, and that personality and behavior may be better determinants of the types of aggression.

The present study, therefore, sought to determine if there is a relationship between behaviors perceived as abuse/mistreatment among women and gender-role profile, measured by personality and behavior. Severity ranking of abuse/mistreatment often demonstrated as relational aggression among women was investigated.

Definition of Terms

Abuse: To hurt by treating badly. It is used synonymously with mistreatment, which refers to treating poorly or badly. In this dissertation, reference is made to verbal,

emotional, psychological, and relational abuse (*Webster's Ninth New Colligate Dictionary*, 1986)

Attitude: A relatively stable or enduring pattern of responses made by an individual with respect to some psychological object, i.e., toward any symbol, slogan, product, institution, person, group, or issues which a person may face (Bartol, 1973, p. 32).

Emotional abuse: Actions or inactions that may cause behavioral, cognitive, emotional, or mental disorders (Papalia, Olds & Feldman, 1998, p. 306).

Gender identity: Awareness, developed in early childhood, that one is male or female (Papalia et al., 1998, p. 287).

Gender role: Behavior, interests, attitudes, skills, and traits that a culture considers appropriate for males or for females (Papalia et al., 1998, p. 287).

Gender stereotype: Preconceived generalizations about male or female role behavior (Papalia et al., 1998, p. 287).

Gender-typing: Socialization process whereby children, at an early age, learn appropriate gender roles (Papalia, et al., 1998, p. 287).

Hostile aggression: Aggression aimed at hurting its target (Coie & Dodge, 1998).

Indirect aggression: Form of aggression, such as gossip, spreading rumors, rejecting, ignoring, or avoiding the target of aggression (Bjorkqvist et al., 1992).

Mistreatment: Treating poorly or badly. It is used synonymously with abuse, which refers to hurting by treating badly.

Perception: Interpretations from general sensory signals (cues) such as appearance, speech and speech content, scent, mannerisms, eye contact, length of eye contact, and type of eye-contact (Peirce, 2002).

Relational aggression: Aggression aimed at damaging or interfering with another person's relationship, reputation, or psychological well-being (Papalia, 2001, p. 304).

Sex-role stereotype: The assumption that all females or all males, because they share a common gender, also have the same characteristics, such as the same traits, interests, values, and roles (Hansen, 1980, p. 35).

Stereotype: An assumption that because a number of individuals share one attribute (race, sex, etc.), they are similar in many other attributes (Hansen, 1980, p. 36).

Women's consciousness: The awareness of women with respect to their status, role, traits, and identity (Sui, 1975, p. 83).

Delimitations of the Study

This study focused on women over 18 years of age living in Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Utah, Georgia, Florida, North Carolina, and New York. The number of surveys distributed was dependent on the request made by Mary Kay™ directors.

Limitations of the Study

Surveys were accompanied by instructions that half the surveys were to be completed by Mary Kay™ personnel and half were to be completed by non-Mary Kay™ personnel. Given this, there was no means of verifying the distribution between Mary

Kay™ personnel and non-Mary Kay™ personnel. Only surveys that were judged complete were used in this study.

Organization of the Study

Five chapters are included in this dissertation.

Chapter 1 includes the introduction and background, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, the research question and hypotheses, significance of the problem, conceptual framework, definitions, delimitations, limitations, and organization of the study.

Chapter 2 presents a literature review on the topic of research on gender-role and aggression. It includes such topics as gender-role and communication, gender and stereotypes, stereotypes and abuse in American culture, types of abuse, relational aggression in research, and gender profiles and relational aggression.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology applied through the data collection and analysis phases. It includes the research design, the population, sampling procedures, the instruments associated with the design, data collection, hypotheses, and statistical analysis that was used in the study.

Chapter 4 interprets analysis results and discusses the findings of the research.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, discussion of results, conclusions, implications of the findings, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Because gender-roles are thought to be related to types of aggression (Leadbeater & Way, 1996), this chapter begins with a brief discussion of gender issues, and proceeds to topics such as gender-role stereotypes, gender-role and communication, and gender-role and American culture. After the discussion of gender issues, a general overview of the phenomenon of abuse is given. Descriptions of three traditional types of abuse then lay the foundation for challenging existing abuse paradigms. These three types of abuse provide explanation to the dynamics of abuse allowing for comparison to subtle abusive behaviors within the subculture of women. What is considered simple relational aggression in females is questioned. This literature review concludes with an exploration of the personal experiences of victims and perpetrators of relational aggression.

Discussion of Gender Issues

Past research in the United States has produced prolific data on gender-role stereotypes. These stereotypes have evolved from a predominantly male Euro-centric, slave-driven system to that of civil-rights-guaranteed female inclusion (Burgess & Horton, 1993). Men came to the United States with their cattle, women, and thoughts of

gender superiority. Thoughts of gender superiority factored into dismal historical events. History gives account for the extinguishing of witches in Europe and in the United States (Archer, 1990). This extinction served to rid society of unwanted members and maintain gender superiority. Among those who were extinguished or burned at the stake were assertive and aggressive women who were labeled witches (Archer, 1990; Beaver, 2002). Women who fit society's ideas of what women should be, domestic and demure, were spared.

Throughout our history women have been purposefully depicted as providers of meals who were responsible for the bearing and rearing of children (Archer, 1990). Needless to say, womens' traditional existence was supported by the polarity of gender stereotypes in American culture.

The effect of stereotyping is found throughout the American patriarchal society, not just within small groups or organizations. So insidious are its effects that women and men have been found to accept stereotypic views of themselves, even when gender-typing was unfavorable to them (Aries, 1985). Although assumptions or even conflicts appear natural when considering gender, what is often overlooked are the similarities between men and women, and even more, the complex identities of women in our society (Archer, 1990). The complexity of women begins with stereotypes during childhood.

Gender-Role and Stereotypes

Society hails a good and perfect girl as one who is devoid of bad thoughts or feelings. She is an individual whose presence is desired. A perfect girl speaks quietly, calmly, and is always kind and nice. She is never mean or bossy and reminds a young

woman to silence herself rather than to speak her true feelings. Speaking true feelings would be considered “stupid,” “selfish,” “rude,” or simply irrelevant (Orenstein, 1994). These perfect girls are caretakers in training (Brown & Gilligan, 1992). Training of perfect girls takes place in homes across America, in schools, through the media, and in organized religion.

“Daddy’s girl,” “momma’s little helper,” “the girl scout,” “the beauty queen,” “the girls next door,” “the type of girl you take home to mother,” “the young woman who receives the marriage proposal,” “his little lady,” and “faithful women” (who struggle to emulate the biblical heroine Dorcas) are dutifully depicted without displays of anger. Good girls are reared not to experience anger largely because aggression undermines who they are reared to become. Identifying anger in girls would challenge the most basic assumptions we make about “good girls.” In defining “nice,” American culture subliminally defines what girls are not entitled to be: Not aggressive, not angry, not in conflict (Simmons, 2002). The culture scoffs at aggression in females as being unfeminine and refers to such individuals as “bitch,” “lesbian,” “frigid,” or “manly.”

Kirtley and Weaver (1999) argue that the “Marlboro Man” and “Barbie Doll” stereotypes pervade American culture. The “Marlboro Man” is characterized as one who is able to get things done, a leader who is boastful, blunt, militant, aggressive, ambitious, straight to the point, domineering, angry, and independent. The Barbie Doll image characteristically depicts high-pitched, silly, gentle, vague, euphemistic, highly talkative, enthusiastic, self-revealing, and easily influenced women (Ecksein, 2001). Other stereotypes of women include the “June Cleaver” image, created by Hollywood and

displaying a near-perfect middle-class housewife, who cleaned the house while wearing high-heeled shoes and a smile. The “Betty Crocker” image, created by the Washburn Crosby Company, promoted a fictitious kitchen expert. The Quaker Oats Company developed the “Aunt Jemima” image of Nancy Green who was born a slave. It is true that these stereotypes, created by male-dominated industries in the United States, reflect gender and social expectations (Burgess & Horton, 1993).

Many have argued that the patriarchal nature of our society positions women at a distinct disadvantage in the workplace, both in small and large groups. Ghazal (1989) demonstrated that stereotypes were used to keep women in subordinate positions in higher education while their male counterparts were promoted to superior jobs. Patriarchal societies value men more than women, and a man’s contributions more than a woman’s, even if those contributions are equal (Gray, 1992). The value society places on the contributions and communication of men has little to do with communicative or other competencies.

Gender-Role and Communication

Maltz and Borker (1982) attribute the linguistic differences in conversations between women and men to the evolution of two distinct subcultures, and suggest that by the time women and men reach adulthood, they have acquired two different cultural norms of communication. Maccoby (1990) suggests that the developments of gender-based linguistic styles are derivative of voluntary gender segregation of children’s play and friendship during the school years before adolescence. The endpoint to such development has not been determined (Tannen, 1990). However, these behaviors are

comprehensible in light of socialization, a process that entails certain distinct patterns of behavior in males and females of all ages.

It has become almost a truism in our culture that men and women differ greatly in the way they communicate and interact with each other. When communicating, men are believed to value power, competency, and achievement inasmuch as their "sense of self" is defined through their ability to achieve results (Gray, 1992). Women value relational interactions in which they seek to balance personal and mutual interests. The communication of men and women becomes apparent in small-group interactions.

Stone and McKee (1999) summarized the research on small-group interactions by observing that men tend to dominate, and are goal-oriented, competitive, and aggressive. In comparison to women, they are thought to initiate more verbal acts, give a greater number of suggestions, and exhibit stronger displays of their dominance. These masculine behaviors are thought to account for their emerging as leaders more often than women. According to Eckstein (2001), women are usually allowed less territory than men and sexism mitigates against women serving as leaders. Meanwhile, he maintains that women leaders compare favorably with their male counterparts according to objective standards, and yet women leaders are often perceived as less effective than men.

Other researchers suggest women have a perceived lower status than men and take on a more tentative and deferential role in conversations with men (Eckstein, 2001; Kirkley & Weaver, 1999; Shuter & Turner, 1997). Women are more likely to use discourse strategies that reduce inequalities in status and power, strategies that emphasize solidarity. They attenuate criticisms and avoid reproach as well as give compliments and

express appreciation (Troemel-Ploetz, 1991). Evidence of conversational style differences between men and women has proved substantial (Hanna, 1999). Compared with women, men tend to use fewer polite forms of speech, do not apologize as readily, and reportedly are less facilitative conversational partners. It is the tendency of males to handle conflict differently from females.

Unfortunately for females, when anger cannot be voiced, and when skills to handle conflict are absent, core conflict cannot be addressed. When no other tools are accessible to resolving conflict, relationships easily become weapons (Simmons, 2002). Thus used, relationships are rendered vulnerable. The primacy of relationships and attachments in female life shows a different experience with response to loss. More than men do, women view isolation and abandonment in their lives as a danger. The nature of this contrast is thought to demonstrate differences in the history of human attachment, stressing continuity and change instead of replacement and separation (Gilligan, 1982). The primacy of relationships and attachments in female life indicates a different experience with response to loss. Replacement and loss-change easily facilitate depression.

Sarkin (1993) maintains that women score significantly higher than men on Beck's Depression Inventory, and are emotionally expressive on most counts except anger. Women experiencing anger struggle with not only the unacceptability of anger but also their own internal standards, fear (genuine or perceived), and social sanctions for violating societal expectations. Women are socialized not to display anger. However, other means of controlling anger may exist. Halas and Matteson (1978) purport giving

women the power to control and punish is another way that the paradox of psychosomatic affects women's lives. Women who have not resolved the conflicts generated by other paradoxes do not have effective skills with which to communicate and negotiate with others. It stands to reason that women have learned that there are power and control in other forms of communications that do not openly express anger.

Inevitable in interpersonal relationships is the occurrence of conflict. Thus the occurrence basic to and underlying every situation in which human communication and perception occur is simply this: an individual, or more specifically a woman, took something into account, whether that something was an observable event or an internal condition, and whether it was perceived or real (Mehrabian, 1981; O'Hair & Stewart, 1999). Once more, that feeling then became intermingled with some past memory to create what is interpreted as a present reality. Given this, it is postulated that socialization not only affects the way individuals perceive themselves and others, but influences the manner in which one chooses to deal with conflict. Perceptions and the manner of dealing with conflict often differ among races.

Communication styles among women differ with African American women and Caucasian/White women in regard to conflict. This difference as explained by Shuter and Turner (1997) who suggest that the values of African American and Caucasian/White women differ with how they handle conflict in the work setting. African American women attempt to reduce conflict by direct handling of problems, and Caucasian/White women attempt to avoid conflict. Both groups seek the extinction of conflict using different mediums.

Shuter and Turner (1997) also reported that Caucasian/White women found verbally aggressive acts more aggressive than African American women despite the race of the aggressor. These differences in perception were thought to be linked to more general cultural differences in perception (Duncan, 1979) and are assumed to be a by-product of race and gender stereotyping.

Stereotyping and Abuse in American Culture

In the past, American social structure has customarily depicted males as tough, dominant, forward, business-like leaders who were physically aggressive. Females were customarily thought of as manipulative, talkative, wanting to help others, and desiring close friendships. Given this, American culture has often ascribed overtly aggressive behaviors of men toward women as “abusive” (Evans, 1996). In keeping with this stereotype, research has not identified aggressive non-physical behaviors administered by women to other women as abusive.

Stereotypic ideas regarding gender-roles have been commonly accepted in American culture. Systems set up to diagnose non-physical abuse have found the task difficult. Even where distinctions are clearly made, physical abuse and domestic violence are recognized and censured by social institutions. However, other forms of abuse are often discounted. Distinctions in some forms of abuse are clearly made today. Historical progress in the recognition of abuse has been slow.

The Phenomenon of Abuse

In 1870 the states of Alabama and Massachusetts introduced the first laws attempting to protect women against domestic violence/abuse. As a result, “husbands were not able to beat their wives with a stick, pull their hair, choke them, spit in their face, or kick them to the floor (Pagelow, 1984, p. 284).” In the 1960s and 1970s, the first child abuse laws were established, and in the 1980s the first article was published addressing the issue of elder abuse (Baumann, 1989). The understanding of violence or the infliction of hurt onto individuals has taken an arduous course. Fortunately, theoretical stances have been developed to aid in the understanding and resolving of abuse issues. One postulate that aids in the understanding of abuse has come through the guise of the Social Learning Theory surmised by Albert Bandura.

According to Bandura (1986), individuals learn via social models. Humans learn social and cognitive behavior by simply observing and imitating. Learning in observers is strengthened as a result of rewards and punishments dispensed to the model (Bandura, 1986). Application to violence is that a model (the father) slaps his wife while their male child observes the event. The wife then complies with the father’s request, thereby providing reinforcement to the behavior observed by the observing child. The result is, the child is taught to abuse.

Social Learning and Abuse in Children

Assumptions are that if the observer is a male child, the temptation is for this child to perpetuate the same behavior later in life. If the child is a female child, the

assumption is then that the female child may become a victim later in life. It appears that research evidence points to the abysmal influence childhood observation and victimization play in producing the next generation of abusers (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention [OJJDP], 1995).

Thirty-five percent of youth from non-violent families self-report involvement in some type of violence, and 78% of youth exposed to maltreatment, violence by parents, and a general family climate of hostility self-reported participation in violent acts. (OJJDP, Fact Sheet Number 21, 1995)

Two concepts compatible to Social Learning Theory further explain the rise in youth violence. The first is the effects of the modeled media violence, and the second, the potential effects of female models. Comstock and Strasburger (1990) report the existence of over 1,000 written articles supporting hypotheses that exposure to television violence increases the likelihood of subsequent aggressive or antisocial behavior. Zastrow and Kirt-Ashman (1997) also observed the reciprocal relationship between television and violence.

Social Learning and Abuse in Older Females

Females are socialized to place a high value on relationships (Simmons 2002, Wiseman, 2002). Part of female identity hinges on women's ability to make and maintain relationships (Miller, 1976, p. 83). Females in groups often demonstrate the same behavior as their peers or social models.

By the time females reach adolescence, their peer groups are selected. Adolescents who are victims select friends who are victims, and adolescents without experiences of abuse select friends who lack experiences with abuse. Adolescents who

abuse select friends who abuse (Burchky & Reuterman, 1992; Tontodonato & Crew, 1992).

Literature exposing the hidden abusive culture of adolescence is becoming common (Simmons, 2002; Wiseman, 2002). Subcultural violence, as demonstrated in adolescence, consists of norms that vary from society to society and subculture to subculture. Simmons (2002) begins her book acknowledging that most or all females know that mistreatment among females exists. This suggests that cultural acceptance of widespread violence or abuse is the product of widespread modeling. This pattern is clearly demonstrated in the world of professional cat-fighting. Cat-fighting is the newest pay-per-view entertainment (Hedegaard, 2003). Cat-fighting consists of women scratching, pulling each other's hair, and wrestling for sport. Female-on-female abuse whether in media cat-fights or real life is problematic.

Abuse in Elderly Population

Another problem with regard to abuse is abuse among the elderly. Recognition of elder abuse first occurred in the United States and Britain in the 1980s. Elder abuse, one of the newest abuses recognized by researchers, is difficult to detect, partially because of the lack of visibility encountered by aged individuals, the dependency they have on care givers, and the failure of institutions to advocate on their behalf (Eastman & Slater, 1999). Attempts are being made to pinpoint the extent of the problem of elder abuse, including its etiology, societal cost, consequences, identification procedures, prevention and treatment, and legal issues. Woman-on-woman abuse, like elder abuse is, difficult to

detect, difficult to convince others of its existence, and difficult to make judgments regarding severity.

Given these difficulties in detection, the abuses addressed in this literature review are limited to verbal abuse, emotional abuse, psychological abuse, as well as relational aggression. These forms of abuse are defined and described in turn in the paragraphs that follow.

Types of Abuse

Verbal Abuse

Verbal abuse is defined as the use of words to attack, hurt, or injure an individual and is also considered a form of emotional abuse (McChristie, 2002). Verbal abuse involves such behaviors as: (a) yelling, (b) nagging, (c) calling an individual stupid, (d) talking down to an adult person as if they were a child, (e) ridiculing appearance, (f) issuing threats, for instance threatening to take one's children, (g) telling one that they are ugly, stupid, or dumb, (h) public embarrassment, (i) criticizing sexual performance, (j) name calling, (k) racial slurs, (l) telling one that no one else would want them, (m) constant put-downs, (n) threatening murder, (o) belittling important accomplishments, (p) calling a woman an unfit mother, (q) demeaning one's children either in terms of behavior or appearance, (r) undermining, and (s) ordering. Categories of verbal abuse are: (a) withholding, (b) jokes not expressed in jest, (c) trivializing acts or thoughts, (d) judging and criticizing to discount another individual, and (e) blocking and diverting by controlling interpersonal communication. Verbal abuse does not include physical injury.

However, its scars are thought to have greater impact than those of physical abuse (Evans, 1996; Follingstad, Routledge, Berg, Hause, & Ploek, 1990; Hoffmann, 1984; Loring, 1994; Shepard & Campbell, 1992).

Emotional Abuse

The literature describes emotional abuse as the control and subjugation of individuals using fear, humiliation, and verbal or physical assaults (Evans, 1996; Loring, 1994; Murray, 1998). Emotional injury does not necessarily include physical violence, however. Emotional abuse is comparable to brain-washing in that it systematically erodes an individual's self-confidence, sense of self-worth, self-concept, and trust in their own perceptions. Emotional abuse includes aggressing, denying, minimizing, forced confinement, isolation and neglect, and mischief. Canada's National Clearinghouse on Family Violence, Family Violence Division, issued a statement claiming that there is no universally accepted definition of emotional abuse but that rejection, degrading, terrorizing, isolating, corrupting/exploiting, and denying emotional responsiveness are widely recognizable forms.

Emotional abuse can be both direct and obvious, and/or, indirect and disguised. Direct emotional abuse involves name calling, accusing, blaming, threatening, and ordering. Indirect emotional abuse includes pretending to help, criticizing, advising, offering solutions, analyzing, proving, and casting doubt on a sincere attempt to help (Follingstad, Rutledge, Berg, Hause & Polek, 1990; Murray, 1998).

Psychological Abuse

In the past, researchers demonstrated difficulty differentiating psychological, emotional, and verbal abuse. In Follingstad and Dehart's 2000 study, the psychologists rated behaviors considered psychologically abusive. Cluster analysis revealed constructs groups labeled as: (a) threats to physical health, (b) control over physical freedoms, (c) destabilization through intimidation, degradation, isolation, monopolizing, and control, (d) domination or controlling behaviors, and (e) "inept" relationship behaviors (Follingstad et al., 1990). Overall, "inept" relationship behaviors were rarely considered abusive. Threats to physical health, control over physical freedoms, and destabilization were positively identified as psychologically abusive.

Psychological abuse is a phenomenon that occurs with or without physical abuse (Follingstad et al., 1990; Hoffmann, 1984; Loring, 1994; Shepard & Campbell, 1992). It has been concluded that the absence of physical abuse does not minimize the severity of abuse. Subtle abuses are thought to be more effective in controlling the victim than physical violence (Marshall, 1994). Women are thought to be less apt to defend themselves against and to recover from psychological attacks than they are to fend off physical abuse.

Abuse Masked as Relational Aggression

Simmons's extensive research (2002) details three categories of alternative aggression: (a) relational aggression, (b) indirect aggression, and (c) social aggression. Indirect aggressors may inflict pain by starting rumors or using third parties to inflict

pain. The social aggressor's intent is to damage self-esteem or social status within a group (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Coie, Lochman, Terry, & Hyman, 1992; Crick, 1995; Orenstein, 1994; Simmons, 2002; Wiseman, 2002).

The rumor mill is a major vehicle used by social aggressors (Simmons, 2002; Wiseman, 2002). Relational aggression has received a significant amount of attention already. Relational aggressors punish their victims or get their way through ignoring individuals and often exclude them socially to wreak revenge. Negative body language, facial expressions, sabotage of relationships, or threatening to end relationships unless a request is fulfilled are tactics used. Relational aggressors use relationships between them and their victims as a weapon. Indirect aggressors avoid confrontation with their targets and engage in covert behavior. They appear socially gracious, and intentions of harm appear beyond their scope of operation. Teachers of female social aggressors are often deceived because these girls appear to be the type of girl who would not fathom harming her peers. Adult female social aggressors often set social systems into effect while distantly waiting the domino effect. Their craftswomanship is in the use of social vehicles as tools. Thus, social systems and institutional politics are very cleverly manipulated tools.

Relational Aggression and Research

Research exploring relational aggression in girls is currently flourishing (Brown & Gilligan 1992; Coie, et al., 1992; Crick, 1995; Follingstad et al., 1990; Galen & Underwood, 1997; Hoffmann, 1984; Loring, 1994; Magner, 2000; Orenstein, 1994;

Pepler, 1999; Shepard & Campbell, 1992; Simmons, 2002; Slee, 1994; Welsh, 2001; Wiseman, 2002). However, little attention has been given to relational aggression among female adults. Although the purpose of this study addresses mistreatment or abuse among women, it is necessary to investigate relational aggression in girls to understand relational aggression in women.

In 1992, Norwegian researchers embarked upon uncharted territory when they reported that females were not disinclined to aggression. Heretofore, social scientists studied aggression in environments where indirect acts were difficult to detect. The Norwegian researchers suggest that when aggression cannot, for one reason or another, be verbally or physically directed at its target, the perpetrator has to find other channels (Bjoerkqvist & Niemela, 1992). Relational aggression, which is one of these channels, includes behaviors that: (a) harm others through damage or threat of damage to relationships, (b) weaken feelings of acceptance, (c) jeopardize friendship, and (d) endanger group inclusion (Bjoerkqvist et al., 1992).

Both girls (Bjoerkqvist et al., 1992) and women (Bjoerkqvist & Niemela, 1992) were used as subjects in the initial research on relational aggression. The attention of the researchers was drawn toward relational aggression in girls. Relational aggression involved attempts by females to harm others through the manipulation and damage of relationships, and through social exclusion.

It is persuasive to assume that the conclusion reached in this research on relational aggression has general validity for women per se. The findings of Bjoerkqvist et al. (1992) suggest that aggressive behaviors in girls are possibly carried over from

adolescence into womanhood, which seems to be corroborated in the findings of Burgess (1993) cited earlier.

Relational aggression is thought to be a passage through which girls must journey during adolescence (Crick, 1995; Hellmich, 2002). It is thought that when girls reach the end of this passage, they have developed strength of character and authentic friendships. There are mixed conclusions regarding this “passage.” Traditional researchers concluded that girls emerge from it having acquired necessary social skills. Non-traditionalists conclude that girls may emerge bearing irreparable scars.

Historical responses to female aggression have been that “girls will be girls,” and that “women will be women.” Relational aggression is considered a rite-of-passage in girls. There is no doubt that this argument has paralyzed investigations of the effects of culture on the shaping and socializing of girls into women. The rite-of-passage theory, as it pertains to females, posits several disturbing assumptions. Some of them are: (a) relational aggression cannot be prevented, (b) the rite-of-passage prepares girls to become women, (c) meanness among females is universal and instructive, and is a part of female social structure, and (d) that the abuse to which girls subject each other is not abuse at all (Simmons, 2002). Furthermore, the most hideous assumption is that abuse is to be tolerated under the guise of relational aggression.

Nicki Crick, professor of child development at the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis, has observed relational aggression in thousands of people, from preschoolers to adults (Crick, 1995; Hellmich, 2002). Crick maintains that girls and boys are equally capable of being kind or unkind (Crick, 1995; Crick, 1996). However, boys

use physical intimidation and girls use threats of withdrawing friendship or communication. Such withdrawal is common in girls from third grade to seniors in high school when friendships are especially valued. Similarly, Simmons (2002) found that girls would rather endure physical punishment or be screamed at than be severed from a “clique” without warning. For instance, a girl would rather be punished or be screamed at than have a rumor started about her.

Although some girls work out anger by participating in sports, others dare not express their anger or aggression for fear of retaliation. Boys, on the other hand, are thought to retaliate more severely. During adolescence, girls’ interest in boys increases. They evaluate each other according to their perceptions of outward status and by the acquisition of relationships with boys (Chisholm & Harnett, 1997). Girls often turn against each other and compete for boys’ attention (Chisholm & Harnett, 1997; Lamb, 2002). When considering unspoken social rules and biochemical attraction to boys, girls are prone to act out aggressively (Wiseman, 2002). Like women, girls often steal each other’s boyfriends for revenge.

When girls purpose to hurt other girls, they do it in a way that is most hurtful (Galen & Underwood, 1997; Manger, 2001; Pepler, 1999; Shandler, 2000; Slee, 1994; Stanley & Tiny, 1998; Welsh, 2001). Once more, they attack each other at the base of their socialized value, social ties, and relationships. Victims of relational aggression often experience difficulty suppressing anger and are prone to sudden displays of anger. These outbursts of anger are considered “red flags,” signals of past victimization. Relational aggression in adolescence can lead to physical acts of aggression and juvenile

delinquency (Crick, 1995). Parker and Asher (1987) argue that relational aggression in juveniles may translate into adult crimes and antisocial behaviors (Peters, 2001).

The Dynamics of Relational Aggression

The clique plays a significant role in the course of relational aggression. Among girls, relational aggression takes place within this organized structure. According to Wiseman (2002, p. 19), a common definition for “clique” would be: “an exclusive group of girls who are close friends.” However, Wiseman’s experience as a researcher caused her to redefine a “clique” as: a platoon of soldiers who have banded together to navigate the perils and insecurities of adolescence. In observing cliques, she discovered distinguishable roles demonstrated by girls who use relational aggression. The “Queen Bee” reigns supreme over the other girls, weakening their mutual friendships with others, all to strengthen her own power and influence. She possesses a combination of charisma, force, money, looks, social status, and determination, along with seemingly instinctual ability to manipulate. As the center of attention, homage is paid to her. The “Queen Bee” is often not willing to acknowledge the cruelty of her actions.

After the Queen Bee, the “Sidekick” is the lieutenant or second in command. She is closest to the “Queen Bee,” and her function is to back the “Queen Bee.” Being close to the “Queen Bee” allows the “Sidekick” the popularity of the “Queen Bee” while maintaining feelings of inclusion. Unlike the “Queen Bee,” however, the “Sidekick” once separated from the “Queen Bee” is capable of altering her behavior positively.

The “Banker” creates chaos by banking information about girls in her social circle and dispensing it at calculated intervals for her own benefit. When the “Banker” dispenses information, it is casually mentioned in conversation with the hidden agenda to cause conflict and strengthen her status as someone in the know. “Bankers” are exceptionally secretive, versatile, and are rarely excluded from the clique. They are almost never the subject of fights.

The “Floater” is recognizable because she can move freely between different groups. She is attractive but not too attractive. She maintains diplomacy and has higher self-esteem than others in the clique. She attains the respect of other girls by not being governed by meanness. The “Floater” is one of the few girls who will stand up to the “Queen Bee.”

The “Torn Bystander” maintains constant inner conflict between principle and her allegiance to the clique. As a result, she is most likely to be positioned in the middle of conflicts between two girls or groups. “Torn Bystanders” are considered insecure and confused.

The “Wannabee,” also called the “Pleaser” or “Messenger,” is either in the clique or is on the perimeter, trying to get into the clique. Her principles are sacrificed to gain the good graces of the “Queen Bee.” Her quest is to advance on the social totem pole. However, she often finds herself in peculiarly difficult situations due to her wavering position and lack of solid character. She overvalues the opinions of others.

Gender Profile and Relational Aggression

Children who pick on other children demonstrate distinctive cognitive compositions. They display perpetually hostile intentions, paranoid characteristics, and perceive provocations where they do not exist. Bullies, as they are often called, are untroubled by anxiety, have a strong need to dominate, derive satisfaction from injuring others, see themselves positively, and demonstrate a blindness to the feelings of others (Rosenman, 1999).

Recent research differentiates bullies into two categories: “proactive aggressors” and “ineffectual aggressors.” Proactive aggressors are considered covertly aggressive and do not need a precipitous event to prompt them to act aggressively. These bullies are the classic playground bullies and have other bullies as friends. Other bullies are sometimes the aggressor and sometimes the victim. In this case, they are often called “reactive bullies,” “ineffectual aggressors,” or “provocative victims.” There is an intimate and reciprocal dance between the victims, and perpetrators who are also known as classic bullies (Marano, 1995).

Classic bullies lack empathy, cooperation, and prosocial feelings. They demonstrate high thresholds of arousal and need increasing arousal levels to satisfy feelings of power and control. Reactive bullies place immense value on controlling their adversaries. Their emotional composition consists of easy emotional arousal, an inability to handle conflict, and a quickness to become oppositionally defiant (Marano, 1995).

A survey sponsored by Liz Claiborne and the Empower Program questioned 477 14-17-year-old teenage girls and boys for the purposes of understanding of the social

environment in which teenagers in the United States live, and to gauge the extent of teen dating abuse, and violence. The results from the teen survey indicated a clear perception among teenagers of inequity in the social environment at their schools. Seventy-seven percent of the teens surveyed believed that some students are “above the rules” and do not receive punishment for the same actions for which other students are penalized. Eighty-six percent felt that some students have more influence than others with their classmates. Of the students who reported the existence of the previous two phenomena, 83% reported that students who are “above the rules” are the same ones who have more influence with other students. It was concluded that many students leverage their status in school to intimidate or embarrass others (Wiseman, 2002). No information is given to establish biological sex or gender-role profiles of students leveraging status to intimidate or embarrass.

The examination of gender-roles and gender characteristics is a critical aspect of human development because of their association with social behavior and adjustment (Gemmill, & Schaible, 1991). Children typically fall into four groups based on gender-roles: masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated. These groups are defined based on social preferences and behavior, regardless of biological sex. Masculine children are defined as having characteristics associated with externalizing behavior, whereas feminine children are defined as having internalizing traits. Androgynous children are defined as having characteristics traditionally associated with males and females. Undifferentiated children are strong in neither masculine nor feminine traditional traits.

Children with the masculine trait show evidence of behaviors such as openness, outgoingness, high self-esteem, independency, and less self-restraint (Adler et al., 1979). Those with the feminine trait show evidence of behaviors such as low self-esteem and a greater ability to maintain close interpersonal relationships than children in other categories (Alpert-Gillis & Connell, 1998). Children who manifest the androgynous trait show evidence of high self-esteem and are more often accepted by their peers than children in the other gender categories (Massad, 1981). They have better parent-child relationships than children in the other gender categories (Tucker, 1998). Little is known about undifferentiated children other than that they show evidence of very low self-esteem (Alpert-Gillis & Connell, 1998).

When considering relational aggression, determining the social sex or gender-role of children and adults is important. Not all females have feminine gender-role profiles and not all males have masculine gender-role profiles. Clark (2002) conducted a study on 422 lower-middle-class children, Grades 4 through 6, and discovered, by methods of self-report, that masculine children who had the highest amount of physical aggression (38.6%) were least relationally victimized of all gender groups (7.4%) and showed the least level of distress (18.8%). Feminine children reported the least amount of physical aggression (1.8%) and were the most rejected all of other children (40.8%). Feminine boys were reported the least rejected of all other children with 11.1%. Undifferentiated children had the most social adjustment problems and demonstrated high depression levels (40.8%). They were the most distressed (33.3%) and demonstrated the highest loneliness measurement (34.4%) of all other children. Androgynous children

demonstrated the highest acceptance level (45.9%) of all other children and were least depressed (14.3%).

Personal Characteristics of Aggressive Females

Relationally aggressive children were found to engage in highly exclusive, intimate friendships, maintained low levels of self-disclosure, and facilitated the self-disclosure of friends. Overtly aggressive children were thought to maintain low levels of intimacy and valued companionship or spending time with friends. The tendency of overtly aggressive children was to focus on instrumental goals and gain status in the peer-dominance hierarchy. These behaviors were said to transfer over into their friendships (Grotperter & Crick, 1996). Regardless of the age of children, these tendencies were manifest in their daily interactions with others.

Researchers report older girls as demonstrating oppositional/defiant behavior and relational aggression more than younger girls (Hipwell, Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber, White & Leoniek, 2002). Younger children internalized relational aggression using distancing as a coping mechanism, while older children internalized less and used externalizing methods to cope with aggression.

On the contrary, Phelps (2001) found that overt aggression in young children became more covert as children aged. The sophistication in which children interpret and conduct aggressive acts also increases with education. She reported that “as children develop and are better able to understand and negotiate social situations, they could use that knowledge to aggress or retaliate against peers in more subtle ways (Phelps, 2001, p. 249).” The development of communication skills and the ability to mask feelings were

cited as tools that developed with age. What appears clear is that what researchers have defined as relational aggression is also perceived by children as aggressive behavior (Phelps, 2001). Conclusions were that early insults increased the risk for future insults.

Hipwell et al., (2002) cited disadvantaged communities as a factor when reporting a range of disruptive disorders present in subgroups of girls age 5 and age 8. Prinstein, Boergers, and Vernberg (2001) suggest that adolescent girls in Grades 9 through 12 who were victims of overt or relational aggression demonstrated maladaptive psychological adjustment. What is interesting is that the above researchers found no differences in the frequencies of aggression or victimization across ethnic groups (Prinstein et al., 2001). It is assumed that, despite race, relational aggression continues to develop and become refined into and beyond high-school years.

The distress of high-school students makes clear the assumption that the traditional view of female aggression during the last 30 years has changed. While Bandura's (1969) conception of gender-role typing remains evident in our social populace, it appears that the reactions of girls to social mandates are indeed changing. These changes have resulted in the tripling of charges for girls in British Columbia, which is neighbor to the United States. Assault-charge rates for girls in British Columbia alone have more than tripled, rising from 187 to 624 in 1993 alone (Chisholm & Harnett, 1997).

According to Chisholm and Harnett, changes in girls in Canada are thought to be due to twisted profound cultural pressures their parents barely understand. Pressures to be sexy, popular, and powerful are thought to account for these reactions. However,

when conventional methods fail, “more and more girls are turning to violence,” which is increasingly more vicious and random (Chisholm & Harnett, 1997). These changes in violence are not limited to Canada, but are seen in the United States.

The foregoing paragraphs suggest that abusive behavior is not a masculine preserve. It is a function of the individual’s gender type. If this is true, biological girls can be potentially as violent as society allows the typical boy to be, and by the same token, boys can be as nurturing as girls are expected to be. This brings up the question of whether it is legitimate to accept without adequate examination the stereotypical views held about men and women with specific reference to abuse. For instance, is it possible that even though society does not mandate any abuse, it has acted in complicity with female abuse of females by ignoring or even encouraging this abuse?

Summary

Because gender-roles are thought to be related to types of aggression (Leadbeater & Way, 1996), this chapter began with a brief discussion of gender issues, and proceeds to topics such as gender-role stereotypes, gender-role and communication, and gender-role and American culture. Children, more often than not, identify with a specific gender and behave according to the stereotypic standards of their culture. As a result, societal promotion of gender-typing appears to influence the communication of males and females.

Also included in this chapter was an general overview of the phenomenon of abuse. Descriptions of three traditional types of abuse were given that allowed for comparison of the behaviors of females with what was deemed classic behaviors of

abusers. What was considered simple relational aggression in females was challenged by exposing their hidden culture. Conclusions were that females' communication of aggression was as dangerous as other forms of violence or abuse. Still, most of the inferences were drawn from research on girls.

Literature describing relational aggression among girls was easily accessible. However, the literature describing relational aggression in women was not, although initial research included women. Relationships between the experiences of aggression in girls and the experiences of aggression in women were found (Burgess & Horton, 1993). Again, there was a clear lack of information on the role of relational aggression in the mistreatment/abuses women administer to other women. Although non-sex-based gender-roles were thought to be critical in determining social behavior adjustments of girls and boys, there was no mention of non-sex-based gender-roles in determining social behavioral adjustments of women. To date, no evidence was found to substantiate a correlation between gender profile (not determined by sex) and the mistreatment/abuse among women.

This review of literature establishes the need for further investigation and identification of aggression among women. It further seeks to establish the extent of correlation between gender-role profiles and the incidence and magnitude of female-on-female violence.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to explore the phenomenon of women abusing other women (WOWA) by examining behaviors conducted by women that women consider abusive. It was also to examine the extent to which such perceptions or experiences of abuse are related to gender profiles. Personal experiences of women with regard to age, race, and education were also examined. This chapter presents the research design and procedures, description of participants, instrumentation, and statistical analysis used for this investigation.

Research Design

The study utilized the survey research method in collecting data. This method was selected because surveys allow the investigator to “explore relationships between variables” (McMillian & Schumacher, 2001, p. 304). Questionnaires were mailed to selected respondents. These recipients, Mary Kay Cosmetics™ directors, were invited to participate because of convenience, expressed interest, and their exposure to women. They became conduits who invited women associated and not associated with Mary Kay™ to participate in this study. The questionnaire served to measure perceptions among a sampling of women in efforts to secure general inferences regarding women’s

perceptions of the phenomenon WOWA.

Data analysis utilized a bivariate correlational technique to ascertain the relationship between the variable of age and perceived abuse among women. Analysis of variance was used to compare race, education, gender-role profiles with types of perceived abuse, and to compare the personal experiences of women to race, age, and education. The analysis also ranked those behaviors women perceive as mistreatment/abuse.

Population and Sample

The women in this study were adult women who sold and did not sell Mary Kay™ Cosmetics. The sample for this study was selected conveniently in that Mary Kay™ directors and their associates were asked to participate and distribute surveys. Mary Kay™ directors living in Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Utah, Florida, North Carolina, and New York were mailed 1,700 surveys and asked to distribute fifty percent of the surveys to Mary Kay™ personnel and 50% to women who did not sell Mary Kay™. Six-hundred and forty surveys were returned from Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Utah, Florida, New York, Oregon, California, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Pennsylvania. Of the six hundred and forty surveys, 626 were judged complete for analysis.

Procedures

In November 2001, I was invited to speak at the debut for Mary Kay™ National Sales Director Cheryl Steinman. After speaking on the issue of women treating women poorly, more than 100 sales directors returned postcards strategically placed on their

tables. The postcards served as a graphic announcement of the study of “Women on Women Abuse” and invited women to participate in this study. In returning the postcards, these Mary Kay™ directors indicated in writing their interest in this study. Respondents returning postcards during the debut were residents of the following states: Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Utah, Florida, North Carolina, and New York.

In October 2002, each director was sent the number of surveys requested on their returned postcards. Based on written responses, more than 1,700 surveys were distributed to women identified as Mary Kay™ personnel. Although distribution was voluntary, it was recommended that half the number of surveys go to Mary Kay™ personnel and half go to non-Mary Kay™ personnel.

Each Mary Kay™ director who volunteered to participate in this study received a package containing the following: a blank postcard exactly like the postcards filled out by each Mary Kay™ director (see appendix A) and a cover letter serving as a reminder of the survey describing the rationale and instruction for distribution of the questionnaires (see appendix A). Enclosed in the package for each director was the number of questionnaires they volunteered to distribute.

Each questionnaire was enclosed in a self-addressed stamped envelop. The questionnaire itself (see appendix A) consisted of a single page and on the back of the questionnaire was a letter addressing anonymity and instruction for completing and returning the survey. Participants were instructed to complete the survey only once and not to discuss the contents of the survey with other women prior to their completing the questionnaire. A return period of 4 weeks was stipulated in the cover letters.

A note thanking directors for participating was sent by e-mail at the 2 week point. This note also served as a reminder for directors to distribute the surveys if they had not done so. The e-mail requested that directors remind women in their units to return the surveys during regularly scheduled sales meetings. Sixty percent of the e-mails were successfully delivered to the participating directors. After a period of 3 weeks from the initial mailing, postcard reminders were sent to all the Mary Kay™ directors who received surveys.

Of the 1,700 surveys sent, a total of 640 were returned (37%). Of the 640 returned, 626 (36%) were judged complete for the purposes of this study. The other 14 lacked gender profile information and 50% of the items in the section on identifying abusive behavior were not completed. An additional 19 surveys were returned after the cut-off date; however, these surveys were not used. Surveys judged completed were keyed into a single computer system using SPSS and scantron data entry.

Two factors were thought significant in the return response. The first is the length of time between Mary Kay™ directors expressing interest in the study and actually receiving the surveys. Shortening this time period could have resulted in maintaining the director's interest, therefore resulting in more surveys being returned. The second factor, "the dynamics of the group," was expressed by a participant via telephone.

This participant described the dynamics she encountered during a "pamper party" in which the survey was administered. She described two individuals (women) whose presence and criticism of the survey dampened the spirit of the party. Although the literature review addresses the dynamics of the "Queen's Court" (Wiseman, 2002), this

was not considered when deciding to send the surveys to groups of women.

Instrumentation

Because no established instruments were available to assess the relationship between gender role profile and abuse among women, development of a specific instrument was necessary to obtain representative descriptions of how women perceive mistreatment/abuse. An explanation of this process follows.

A focus group was convened to establish a pool of possible perceived types of woman on woman abuses (WOWAs) used in this study. Five adult women, not having previous relationships with one another, volunteered after being informed of a women's abuse focus group in a church bulletin. The group met one evening for a period of an hour. The meeting was recorded, and was transcribed by a linguist. The transcript was checked for accuracy by a speech and language pathologist with experience in analyzing language samples.

The participants in the study reported that in their youth they witnessed discriminatory practices among parents with regard to how girls and boys were socialized. This discrimination made male children less accountable to family governance, while female children were reportedly given more responsibility and held to a stricter standard. Participants also reported that they were not heard when they complained to males, and therefore learned that complaining among themselves and expressing resentment and anger toward other females was easier and more socially acceptable. Consequently, mothers and daughters tended to quarrel among themselves and found it much safer to

assault, insult, and demean each other. The participants agreed that the practices of lashing out at each other carried over through the span of their development and was manifested in outbreaks of anger, jealousy, resentment, insecurity, suppression of the soul, and feelings of emptiness.

Types of abuse gleaned from this focus group were grouped into five categories. The categories were: control abuse, interactive abuse, sexually oriented abuse, covert abuse, and overt abuse. According to the focus group, these categories of abuse emanated from three groups of underpinnings, namely: how one develops, how one is socialized, and how one responds to her environment. The focus group's responses appeared clear, and categories of abuse were readily established.

Women in the focus group agreed that abuse among women starts early in life, particularly with arguments between mothers and daughters. During the focus group session, specific concepts such as relational aggression were implied; however, the term "relational aggression" was not used specifically.

The behaviors described by the focus group were closely related to the "relational aggression" concepts prominent in the literature review (Crick, 1995; Evans, 1996; Simmons, 2002). Relational aggression is the use of a relationship between two individuals to hurt another party in that relationship. It is also aggression aimed at damaging or interfering with another person's reputation or psychological well-being. Women in the focus group accepted the phenomenon of WOVA and questioned the relationship between gender stereotypes, abusive behaviors, and gender-role expectations.

Development of the Instrument

A three-part questionnaire was developed to gather data for the study (see appendix B). The first portion of the instrument was designed to collect demographic and professional data regarding participants. The second portion presented a forced choice designed to group participants into one of the four categories of masculine personality/masculine behavior, masculine personality/feminine behavior, feminine personality/feminine behavior, and feminine personality/masculine behavior. The third portion required participants to rate women's behavior using a 5-point modified Likert scale.

The first part of the survey gathers demographic information such as: age range, yearly income, educational level, employment field, race, and marital status. The second section of the questionnaire reflected the research findings of Deaux and Lewis (1983). Research studies revealed that both bipolar and multidimensional methods of assessing stereotypic behavior exist (Deaux & Lewis, 1983). Brenton (1966) reported that stereotypes of masculinity and femininity, or what is appropriate to men and women, refer to a very wide and very complicated range of acts, gestures, thought processes, and behavior patterns. Given this, both recent and early theories posit that deviations from pure stereotypic gender modes touch almost everyone to some degree.

However, Deaux and Lewis (1983), using the Personal Attributes Questionnaire by Spence and Helmreich, established reliability and validity of categories that can be used for multidimensionality studies. Their study was designed to: (a) assess if

components were separate and identifiable; (b) assess the relationship among components of gender stereotypes; and (c) present normative data on the stereotypes of women and men. Responses were categorized into sets of distinct components: personality, behavior, appearance, sexual orientation, and gender. Of all components assessed, personality and behavior were found to be the strongest determinants of gender stereotypes.

When selecting gender dimensions for the present study, I drew from both the masculine and feminine dimensions used by Deaux and Lewis (1983). The items selected were determined by first comparing feminine to masculine mean scores for each dimension. Then, I chose the dimension with the highest mean score and a low contrasting counter-score. Five items were selected to represent the feminine personality dimension and five to represent the masculine personality dimension. All 10 items were drastically far apart to maximize differences, except for "kind" and "cooks the meals." For instance, the following mean scores were considered for the masculine personality dimensions: "standing up under pressure," 74.5; "competitive," 81.8; and "independent," 77.6. Counter-scores for the masculine personality dimensions were: "kind," 68.6; "emotional," 55.6; and "gentle," 59.2. Items selected to profile feminine dimensions of personality and mean scores were: "kind," 76.5; "emotional," 83.5; and "gentle," 80.6. Counter-scores for the feminine personality dimensions were: "standing up under pressure," 58.6; "competitive," 63.6; and "independent," 58.1.

Mean scores selected to profile masculine behavior dimension were: "financial provider," 83.46; and "takes initiative with opposite sex," 81.6. Counter-scores for the

masculine behavior dimensions were: “does household chores,” 48.4; and “cooks the meals,” 41.6. Items selected to profile feminine behavior dimensions were: “does household chores,” 83.6; and “cooks the meals,” 82.7. Counter-scores for the feminine behavior dimensions were: “financial provider,” 46.7; and “takes initiative with the opposite sex,” 54.2. Table 1 summarizes the items from Deaux and Lewis (1983) used to develop the gender profile clusters.

Table 2 summarizes the gender profile dimensions. The possible profiles are: feminine personality/feminine behavior, feminine personality/masculine behavior, masculine personality/feminine behavior, and masculine personality/masculine behavior.

Table 1

Deaux and Lewis's Personality Traits and Role behavior

PERSONALITY TRAIT	Male <i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Female <i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Stand up under pressure	74.5	13.5	58.6	18.7
Competitive	81.8	11.6	63.6	16.4
Independent	77.6	14.9	58.1	16.8
Kind	68.6	11.8	76.5	13.3
Emotional	55.6	22.3	83.5	12.3
Gentle	59.2	17.2	80.6	12.3
ROLE BEHAVIOR	Mean <i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Female <i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Does household chores	48.4	23.5	83.6	15.2
Cooks the meals	41.6	11.8	46.7	21.0
Financial provider	83.4	11.8	46.7	21.0
Takes initiative with the opposite sex	81.6	14.5	54.2	23.2

Table 2

Personality and Behavior Clusters Used in Instrument

Personality Traits	Behaviors
<i>Masculine</i>	
Stand up under pressure Competitive Independent (Section A- 1)	Financial provider Takes initiative with the opposite sex (Section B-4)
<i>Feminine</i>	
Kind Emotional Gentle (Section A-2)	Does household chores Cooks the meals (Section B-3)

The third portion of the instrument requires participants to rate 20 alleged abuses using a 5-point modified Likert scale. The numbers indicated the following ratings: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no. During the pilot study, respondents were asked: Which of these behaviors do you consider mistreatment or abuse if done by a woman to another woman? However, the final questionnaire asked: "Do you believe that if a woman does any of the following to another woman it is considered abuse?"

To assess effectiveness of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted. Forty surveys (see appendix C) were distributed with a 52% response rate. Two percent of the respondents failed to fully complete their survey, resulting in their survey being

eliminated from the sample. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine if the questions on the instrument were understandable, the instructions clear, and if there was significant information from the focus group to proceed with the study.

The directions were retained, the instrument was understandable, and information obtained from the focus group appeared sufficient; however, the instrument was redesigned. All 20 behaviors were considered abuse when done from one woman to another. Because of this, the 20 behaviors were not changed. Findings also supported differences among gender profiles as they relate to the perception of WOWA.

Table 2 summarizes the gender profile dimensions. The possible profiles are: feminine personality/feminine behavior, feminine personality/masculine behavior, masculine personality/feminine behavior, and masculine personality/masculine behavior.

Content Validity

The third portion of the instrument was designed to elicit responses that rate perceived types of abuse among women using a 5-point modified Likert scale. A team of judges, consisting of one professor of psychology specializing in women's studies, three mental health professionals, a professor of research and evaluation, and one linguist, were asked to judge a pool of items elicited from the focus group which were thought to be abuses.

These judges were asked to determine the reasonableness of each item as a measure of woman-on-woman abuse. The results yielded 20 items with 100% agreement as to what constituted reasonable measures of woman-on-woman abuse. The 20 items

were placed on the questionnaire scaled along a 5-point modified Likert scale used by respondents to indicate their agreement or disagreement with each statement.

The numbers indicate the following ratings: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no. Initially, respondents were asked: Which of these behaviors do you consider mistreatment or abuse if done by a woman to another woman? Pilot study participants then rated their perceptions of the following 20 behaviors:

1. *Not allowing her to be herself*
2. *Manipulating easy-going women*
3. *Refusing to acknowledge her presence*
4. *Disliking her for being confident*
5. *Sleeping with her significant other*
6. *Sleeping with her significant other to hurt her*
7. *Ignoring her because of her appearance*
8. *Gossiping to ruin her reputation*
9. *Not associating with her because of social status*
10. *Betraying her*
11. *Withdrawing affection from her*
12. *Humiliating her*
13. *Giving her unsolicited opinions*
14. *Giving her hurtful messages*
15. *Destroying her self-esteem*

16. *Keeping her at a distance*
17. *Interfering with or destroying her work*
18. *Failing to support her efforts*
19. *Avoiding her because of her friends*
20. *Interfering with her spiritual growth*

These 20 behaviors were then divided into five categories. The categories were control abuse, interactive abuse, sexually oriented abuse, covert abuse, and overt abuse.

Three of the 20 behavior items were considered control abuse items.

1. *Manipulating easy going women*
11. *Withdrawing affection from her*
20. *Interfering with her spiritual growth*

Six of the 20 behavior items were considered interactive abuse items.

2. *Refusing to acknowledge her presence*
4. *Disliking her for being confident*
1. *Ignoring her because of her appearance*
10. *Not associating with her because of social status*
18. *Avoiding her because of her friends*
19. *Interfering with her spiritual growth*

Three of the 20 behavior items were considered sexually oriented abuse items.

6. *Sleeping with her husband to hurt her*
13. *Humiliating her*
14. *Giving her hurtful messages*

Six of the 20 behavior items were considered covert abuse items.

9. *Gossiping to ruin her reputation*
11. *Betraying her*
13. *Humiliating her*
3. *Giving her unsolicited opinions*
19. *Interfering with or destroying her work*
1. *Failing to support her efforts*

Six of 20 behavior items were considered overt abuse items.

11. *Betraying her*
14. *Giving her hurtful messages*
15. *Destroying her self-esteem*
7. *Keeping her at a distance*
16. *Interfering with or destroying her work*
17. *Failing to support her efforts.*

Construct Validity

To determine the underlying constructs defined by the 20-item measure of woman-on-woman abuse (WOWA), principal-components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was performed. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), principal-component analysis is “the solution of choice for researchers who are primarily interested in reducing a large number of variables down to a smaller number of components” (p. 664). Furthermore, it is “also a recommended first step in factor analysis where it reveals a

great deal about probable number and nature of factors” (p. 664). Varimax rotation was used because it “offers ease of interpretation, describing, and reporting results” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 666). This is the most commonly used rotation and seeks to minimize the complexity of factors by maximizing variance of loadings on each factor. However, it does assume that the factors are somewhat uncorrelated or independent. Nevertheless, with a large sample size, a fairly clear pattern of correlation should emerge, and therefore, a stable solution tends to appear regardless of the rotation technique used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Exploratory principal-component factor analysis was conducted on the 20-item measure of WOWA using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 2001). The number of factors extracted was guided by using only components that have eigenvalues of 1 or greater and by examining the scree plot (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Rotated factors were interpreted by considering only the items with loading of 0.32 or higher and by giving items with the highest loading the greatest weight in factor interpretation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). For the purpose of this study, two conditions had to be met for factor interpretations. First, there had to be factorial evidence in the form of factor loading of 0.32 or higher. Second, the item had to appear logically congruent with interpreted meaning of the scale.

Using the criteria presented earlier, a two-factor solution with varimax rotation was deemed adequate to capture the underlying constructs being measured by the 20-item measure of woman-on-woman abuse (WOWA). With a value of 0.93 for the Kaiser-

Myer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy, the factoriability of these data is considered more than adequate (see Tabachnick & Fidel, 1996).

Table 3 gives the results of the Factor Analysis Test and the rotated loadings of the 20-item measure of woman-on-woman abuse (WOWA).

Factor 1 appears to be defined by behaviors such as gossiping, giving hurtful messages, betraying, sleeping with her husband, sleeping with her husband to hurt her, yelling at her, humiliating her, interfering with or destroying her work, destroying her self esteem, and manipulating easy-going women. These behaviors seem to be intentional and somewhat obvious. These actions were overt and will, therefore, be labeled as Overt Behavior.

Factor 2 is defined by such actions as keeping at a distance, giving unsolicited opinions, ignoring her, refusing to acknowledge her presence, withdrawing affection, avoiding her because of her friends, failing to support her efforts, disliking her for being confident, interfering with her spiritual growth, and not associating with her because of social status. These actions are less open, quite subtle, though intentional. This factor was labeled Covert Behavior. Both these factors account for 52.4% of the variance. The correlation between the two factors is 0.65, suggesting that each factor is somewhat independent of the other.

Table 3

Rotated Factor Matrix

Questionnaire Items by Number	Component	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
13 Humiliating her	.814	
16 Interfering with or destroying her work	.806	
6 Sleeping with her husband to hurt her	.785	
9 Gossiping to ruin her reputation	.782	
15 Destroying her self-esteem	.775	
14 Giving her hurtful messages	.707	
11 Betraying her	.689	
5 Sleeping with her husband	.578	
1 Manipulating easy-going women	.378	
20 Yelling at her	.375	
18 Avoiding her because of her friends		.786
7 Keeping her at a distance		.779
17 Failing to support her efforts		.745
8 Ignoring her because of her appearance		.711
12 Withdrawing affection from her		.654
4 Disliking her for being confident		.654
3 Giving her unsolicited opinions		.615
10 Not associating with her because of social status		.613
2 Refusing to acknowledge her presence		.585
19 Interfering with her spiritual growth		.494
Total Variance	40.56	11.81

Reliability of Scales

Table 4 shows the item-total correlation for the overt behavior items and gives the alpha if one or any of the items is deleted. All the item-total correlations are above 0.4 with reliabilities in the .80s when any specific item is deleted. Consequently, the reliability on the overt scale was strong (0.886). Table 5 show the item-total correlation for the covert scale and the alphas if one or any of the items is deleted. All the item-total correlations are also above 0.4 with reliabilities in the .80s when any specific item is deleted. Consequently the reliability on the covert scale was strong (0.886).

Table 6 gives a summary of the reliability estimate for overt and covert scaled scores. Alpha levels were .8856 for overt behavior and .8859 for covert behavior. Reliability analysis summarized in table 6 indicates a strong reliability for both overt and covert behavior. Measures from both overt and covert scales are internally consistent.

Research Questions

The major questions this research seeks to answer are:

1. What acts or behaviors conducted by women do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?
2. Are these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?
3. What is the relationship between a woman's personal experience as both victims and perpetrators of abuse and race, age and education?

Table 4

Reliability Of Overt Scale

Item	Scale Mean	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if item deleted
13.	40.33	.7605	.8662
16.	40.33	.7179	.8685
6.	40.20	.7138	.8696
9.	40.29	.6874	.8707
15.	40.27	.7392	.8671
14.	40.48	.6899	.8694
11.	40.50	.6689	.8707
5.	40.48	.5584	.8803
1.	40.99	.4233	.8911
20.	40.71	.4300	.8907

Table 5

Reliability Of Covert Scale

Item	Scale Mean	Corrected Item- Total correlation	Alpha if item deleted
18.	31.04	.6936	.8695
7.	31.04	.6581	.8719
17.	30.63	.6851	.8703
8.	30.31	.7036	.8687
12.	30.44	.6344	.8740
4.	30.76	.6053	.8766
3.	31.13	.5021	.8829
10.	30.33	.6253	.8743
2.	30.33	.5529	.8798
19.	30.04	.5487	.8796

Table 6

Reliability Analysis Overt--Covert Scales

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of Items	Alpha
Overt	571	48.95	6.5905	10	.8856
Covert	573	34.01	9.5293	10	.8859

Null Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between race and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between age and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between education and the perceived types of abuse/ mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 4. There is no relationship between gender profiles and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.

Hypothesis 5. There is no relationship between perceived victims's personal experiences and race, age, and education.

Hypothesis 6. There is no relationship between perceived perpetrators personal experiences and race, age, and education.

Statistical Analysis

The data for this study were analyzed using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 2001). The first of these was by description of the data according to demographic analysis of the respondents. These categories were: (a) age, (b) income, (c) employment field, (d) race, and (e) marital status.

The five hypotheses in this study correspond to the three research questions. Hypotheses 1 through 3 correspond to research question number 1. Hypothesis 4 corresponds to research question 2, and hypotheses 5 and 6 correspond to

research question 3.

Research question 1 asked, “What acts or behaviors conducted by women do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?” To determine which behaviors women consider abuse, item means, standard deviations, and percentages were calculated. For the purposes of this study, items or behaviors with a mean of 4 or higher (on a scale of 1 to 5) were considered abusive behavior. Items with a mean below 3.9 were not considered abuse. Items with a mean score of 3.9 to 3.99 were considered borderline abuse items.

Hypothesis 1 stated, “There is no relationship between race and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women,” and was tested by the one-way ANOVA test. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure that determines the proportion of variability attributed to each of several components and is one of the most useful and adaptable statistical techniques available (Cronk, 1999, p. 62). The ANOVA uses the variances of the group and not the means to calculate a value that reflects the degree of differences in the means (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 373). Because there are two or more means, the ANOVA was used in rejecting or accepting the null hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2 stated, “There is no relationship between age and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women,” and was tested using Spearman’s Rho. Because age is ordinal, the Spearman Rho Correlation Coefficient was used.

Hypothesis 3 stated, “There is no relationship between education and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women,” and was tested using the Analysis of

Variance.

Research question 2: “Are these perceptions or experiences of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?” The related hypothesis for this question is hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 4 stated: “There is no relationship between gender profiles and the perceived types of mistreatment or abuse among women,” and was tested using one-way ANOVA tests.

Research question number 3: “What is the relationship between a woman’s personal experience as both victims and perpetrators of abuse and race, age and education?” was answered by hypotheses 5 and 6.

Hypothesis 5 stated: “There is no relationship between perceived victims’s personal experiences and race, age, and education,” was tested using one-way ANOVA tests. Hypothesis 6 stated: “There is no relationship between perceived perpetrators personal experiences and race, age, and education,” was tested using one-way ANOVA tests. All hypothesis in this study were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

Summary

This chapter summarizes the methodology used in this research study and consists of several sections. The sections discussed were purpose and research design, population and sample, procedures, instrument, research question, and hypothesis and statistical analysis.

Investigating behaviors women consider abusive when conducted by other women was the primary purpose of this study. The selection of the participants was discussed, including the method for recruiting participants. The population consisted of women associated with and women not associated with Mary Kay™ Cosmetics.

The design selected was survey research utilizing a questionnaire developed specifically to assess the perception of women regarding gender profile, behavior, and personal experience. Methods of survey administration that detailed the manner of delivery and return procedures of the questionnaire were also given.

A description of the “Women’s Abuse Survey,” the questionnaire used in this study, is given, including its rationale and development. Tests establishing the validity and reliability of the Women’s Abuse Survey were discussed. Also given were criteria for determining if behaviors were considered abuse.

This study centered on three research questions, which were given in this chapter. Six hypotheses were presented, along with the statistical methods used in analyzing them. These six hypotheses were developed to answer the three research questions in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate what behaviors women consider abuse and the extent to which such perceptions of abuse were related to gender profiles. This chapter presents the results of the survey and the statistical analyses of the data, including the relationship between gender profiles, age, race, education, and the perceived types of mistreatment among women.

Description of the Sample

Seventeen hundred Women's Abuse Surveys were mailed to Mary Kay™ directors. The Mary Kay™ directors then distributed the surveys to clients, relatives, friends, neighbors, and associates. Six-hundred and forty surveys were returned. Of the 640 returned surveys, 626 were judged complete for the purposes of analysis. Thus the effective sample, 626 women in this study were Mary Kay™ personnel, clients, relatives, friends, neighbors, and associates. Respondents to the Women's Abuse Survey were adult women living in Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Utah, Florida, New York, Oregon, California, Tennessee, Minnesota, and Pennsylvania. The Women's Abuse Survey, as developed for this study, is a self-report survey designed to measure 20 types

of alleged abuse administered from one woman to another woman. The survey asked women to share their personal experience with abuse.

Demographic characteristics of the respondents are described in Tables 7 through

12. Table 7 presents a description of the respondents by age.

Table 7

Respondents by Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18-20	92	14.7
21-29	95	15.2
30-39	116	18.5
40-49	149	23.8
50-59	122	19.5
60+	42	6.7
Missing	10	1.6
Total	626	100.0

Five hundred and seventy-four respondents (91.7%) were under the age of 60.

The largest single age group of respondents (23.8%) was women in the age range of 40-49. From Table 7, it can be seen that 33.7% of the respondents are considered young adults and 43.3% of respondents are considered to be in middle adulthood.

Table 8 presents a description of the respondents by income. Five hundred and two respondents (80.2%) made less than \$61,000 a year. One third of respondents made less than \$19,000 per year. Approximately 7% made over \$80,000.

Table 9 presents a description of the respondents by highest level of education.

Two hundred and seventy-four (43.8%) respondents' highest educational levels were high

school, vocational school, or other. However, most of the respondents reported receiving varying levels of college education (50.8%). Over one-third of respondents had at least a bachelor's degree.

Table 10 presents a description of the respondents by employment field. One hundred and thirty-one respondents (20.9%) reported "other" as their employment status.

Table 8

Respondents by Income per Year

Income	Frequency	Percentage
0-19,000	208	33.2
20,000 -40,000	181	28.9
41,000-60,000	113	18.1
61,000-80,000	55	8.8
81,000+	44	7.0
Missing	25	4.0
Total	626	100.0

Table 9

Respondents by Highest Level of Education

Highest Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
High School	237	37.9
Vocational/Other	37	5.9
Associate's Degree	91	14.5
Bachelor's Degree	112	17.9
Graduate Degree	115	18.4
Missing	34	5.4
Total	626	100.0

Written explanations of “other” consisted of the following fields: Law, Government, Student, Retail, Psychology, Public Safety, Cosmetology, Social Work, Human Services, Truck Driving, Public Health, Banking, and Retired. Respondents in both Business (15.2%) and Education (16%) were represented similarly. Respondents in home-based businesses represented 12.9% of the sample. Clerical (8.5%) and Services (7.7%) were also represented similarly, as was Medicine (6.1%) and unemployed (6.2%). Technology (1.4%) was the least represented.

Table 10

Respondents by Employment Field

Employment	Frequency	Percentage
Business	95	15.2
Clerical	53	8.5
Education	100	16.0
Home based business	81	12.9
Medicine	38	6.1
Service	48	7.7
Technology	9	1.4
Unemployed	39	6.2
Other	131	20.9
Missing	32	5.1
Total	626	100.0

Table 11 presents a description of the respondents by race. Most of the respondents were African American (45%) followed closely by Caucasian/White (39.1%). Other (13.1%) consisted of West Indian, Hispanic, Mixed Race, Asian Pacific

Islander, and Jewish.

Table 12 presents a description of the respondents by marital status. From Table 12 it can be observed that the majority of respondents were married women (45.7%) followed by single women (33.7%). Divorced women, women living with a partner and widowed women were the minority (17.2%).

From Table 13, it can be seen that 59.6 % of the respondents report being abused by other women and 35% of the respondents report abusing other women.

Table 11

Respondents by Race

Race	Frequency	Percentage
African American	282	45.0
Caucasian/White	245	39.1
Other	82	13.1
Missing	17	2.7
Total	626	100.0

Table 12

Respondents by Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	286	45.7
Living Together	23	3.7
Single	211	33.7
Divorced	63	10.1
Widowed	21	3.4
Missing	22	3.5
Total	626	100.0

Table 13

Respondents by Personal Experience-Victimization and Perpetration

Personal Experience	Frequency	Percentage
Was Abused	373	59.6
Abused Other Women	219	35.0

Archetypical Respondent

The average African American woman in this study was between the ages of 18-20 and 50-59. She was a high-school graduate, worked in the "Other" employment field, was single, and had a yearly income less than \$19,000. The average Caucasian/White woman in this study was between 40-49 years of age. She was a high-school graduate, worked in a home-based business, was married, and had a yearly income between \$20,000 and \$40,000. The average "Other" race woman in this study was between the ages of 21-29 and 40-49. She was a high-school graduate, worked in the "Other" employment field, was single, and had a yearly income less than \$19,000.

When considering all races, the average woman was: married, African American or Caucasian/White, between 40-49 years of age, had some college education, worked in the "Other" employment field, and made less than \$19,000 a year.

Results of Statistical Analysis

The analysis of these data is done in three sections. Section A addresses the types of behaviors when conducted by women that women considered abuse. These behaviors are examined independently and then in conjunction with the personal characteristics of race, age, and education. Section A answers research question 1. Section B addresses

whether or not gender profile is related to the types of behaviors women consider abuse. Section B addresses research question 2. Finally, in section C, women's race, age, and education are compared to their personal perceptions of victimization and perpetration of abuse. Section C addresses research question 3.

Types of Behaviors

Section A

Research question 1 asked: "What acts or behaviors conducted by women do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?"

Table 14 gives the item number, behavior, mean score, and percentage of all responses in the category of overt behavior. A total of 10 items with percentages of "yes" responses ranging from 76.6% to 94% were in the overt category. For the purpose of this study, items with mean scores of 4.0 and over were considered as acts of abuse, whereas items with mean scores of 3.9 to 3.99 were considered borderline abuse behavior.

Scale scores for overt behavior range from 10 to 50. Similarly, the scale score for covert behavior also ranged from 10 to 50. Given the modified Likert scale used in this study where 1 represents "definitely no," 2 represents "maybe no," 3 represents "I don't know," 4 represents "maybe yes," and 5 represents "definitely yes," this range of scale scores would correspond to the following: 10 = "definitely no," 20 = "maybe no," 30 = "I don't know," 40 = "maybe yes," and 50 = "definitely yes." Using the criteria stated in the previous paragraph, scale scores below 39 would not indicate abusive behavior.

Table 14 shows the means and standard deviations for items designed to measure overt behaviors. Using the above criteria, all overt behaviors are considered to be

perceived abusive actions. These actions include, “Manipulating easy-going women,” “Sleeping with another woman’s husband,” “Sleeping with another woman’s husband to hurt her,” “Gossiping to ruin her reputation,” “Betraying her,” “Humiliating her,” “Giving her hurtful messages,” “Destroying her self-esteem,” “Interfering with or destroying her work,” and “Yelling at her.”

Table 15 gives the number, means, standard deviations, and percentages of all responses in the category of covert behavior. A total of 10 items with percentages of “yes” responses ranged from 38.1% to 72.1%. Item means ranged from 2.87 for “Giving her unsolicited opinions,” to 3.97 for “Interfering with her spiritual growth.” Using the criteria presented earlier, “Interfering with spiritual growth” would be the only covert behavior in this study that could possibly be considered abusive. All other covert acts were not considered as abusive.

Testing the Hypotheses

Hypotheses testing was further used to answer the research questions. Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, and 5 were tested using ANOVA. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure that determines the proportion of variability attributed to each of several components and is one of the most useful and adaptable statistical techniques available (Cronk, 1999, p. 62). The ANOVA uses the variances of the group and not the means to calculate a value that reflects the degree of differences in the means (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 373). The ANOVA will be used to reject or accept the null hypotheses. The Spearman Rho correlational technique was used to accept or reject hypotheses 2. The Spearman correlation coefficient functions on the basis of ranked data

Table 14

Responses to Overt Behavior Items

Overt Items by Number		Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage of "Yes" Response
6.	Sleeping with her husband to hurt her	606	4.73	.82	94.1
13.	Humiliating her	616	4.59	.85	94.0
15.	Destroying her self-esteem	620	4.65	.88	92.9
9.	Gossiping to ruin her reputation	612	4.63	.85	92.7
16.	Interfering with or destroying her work	615	4.59	.88	92.3
14.	Giving hurtful messages	616	4.47	.93	90.8
11.	Betraying her	617	4.42	1.05	87.8
5.	Sleeping with her husband	615	4.47	.93	87.0
20.	Yelling at her	618	4.22	1.11	82.4
1.	Manipulating easy-going women	615	3.92	1.12	76.6

Note: Response Scale: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no.

Table 15

Responses to Covert Behavior Items

Covert Items by Number		Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage of "Yes" Responses
19.	Interfering with spiritual growth	615	3.97	1.25	72.1
8.	Ignoring her because of her appearance	614	3.69	1.36	66.6
10.	Not associating with her because of social status	610	3.68	1.38	65.9
2.	Refusing to acknowledge her presence	617	3.61	1.42	62.9
12.	Withdrawing affection from her	615	3.56	1.25	58.1
17.	Failing to support her efforts	614	3.37	2.30	53.7
4.	Disliking her for being confident	611	3.24	1.57	52.9
7.	Keeping her at a distance	611	2.96	1.36	42.4
18.	Avoiding her because of her friends	613	2.96	1.33	39.8
3.	Giving her unsolicited opinions	614	2.87	1.43	38.1

Note: Response Scale: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no.

(Cronk, 1999, p. 41).

Hypothesis 1. “There is no relationship between race and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.” To test this hypothesis, one-way ANOVAs were performed on race and overt abuse scale, and race and covert behavior scale.

Table 16 shows the group means, standard deviations, and number for each racial group for overt behavior. The group means range from 47.38 for African American, to 49.28 for Caucasian. Given the measurement scale used in this study (see p. 73), all racial groups considered overt behaviors abusive.

Table 17 gives the results of a one-way ANOVA in order to examine whether overt behavior, which has been considered as abusive (see Table 15), is related to race. This analysis suggests that there were significant differences among the three racial groups in the levels of perceived abuse with respect to overt behaviors ($F_{(2,605)}=4.056$, $p = 0.018$).

Because the ANOVA test showed significant differences among the three racial groups in overt behavior (at the .05 alpha level), further investigation was made. Bonferroni Post Hoc test procedures indicated that Caucasian/White women ($M=49.28$, $SD=5.90$) viewed overt behavior as being significantly more abusive than do African-American ($M=47.38$, $SD=8.95$) or “Other” women ($M=47.72$, $SD=7.85$). Item mean and standard deviations by racial group are shown in Table 18.

Table 16

Group Means, Race, and Overt Scale

Race	Mean	SD	Number
African American	47.38	8.95	282
Caucasian/White	49.28	5.90	245
Other	47.72	8.64	81
Total	48.19	7.86	608

Table 17

One-Way ANOVA--Race and Overt Behavior Scale

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	495.991	2	247.996	4.056	.018
Within Groups	36995.107	605	61.149		
Total	37491.099	607			

Table 18 gives item means for Caucasians, which are generally higher than for both African Americans or the "Other" racial groups. Of all the overt behaviors, "Manipulating easy-going women" was the behavior least likely to be judged abusive. These results are consistent with the analysis of variance results (see Table 17).

Table 19 shows the group means, standard deviations, and number of cases for each racial group for covert behavior. Given the measurement scale used in this study

(see p. 73), none of the racial groups considered covert behavior as abusive.

Table 20 gives the results of a one-way ANOVA in order to examine whether or not covert behavior is related to race. As Table 20 suggests, no significant difference among the three racial groups was found for covert behavior ($F_{(2,605)} = .126, p = .882$); therefore, no further test was performed.

Table 18

Differences Among Race and Types of Abuse

Questions by Number	African American		Caucasian/ White		Other	
	<i>N</i> =282		<i>N</i> =245		<i>N</i> =81	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1 Manipulating easy-going women	3.88	1.18	3.96	1.05	3.94	1.15
5 Sleeping with her husband	4.52	1.08	4.51	1.04	4.15	1.40
6 Sleeping with her husband to hurt her	4.68	.91	4.85	.53	4.73	1.11
9 Gossiping to ruin her reputation	4.52	1.00	4.77	.57	4.60	.90
11 Betraying her	4.32	1.13	4.59	.84	4.33	1.23
13 Humiliating her	4.48	.97	4.71	.66	4.60	.83
14 Giving hurtful messages	4.32	1.09	4.62	.70	4.59	.77
15 Destroying her self-esteem	4.56	.98	4.77	.68	4.59	.97
16 Interfering with or destroying her work	4.45	1.04	4.77	.57	4.56	.94
20 Yelling at her	4.13	1.17	4.35	1.00	4.16	1.21

Note: Response Scale: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no.

Table 19

Group Means, Race, and Covert Scale

Race	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number
African American	33.22	9.53	282
Caucasian/White	33.63	9.84	245
Other	33.54	9.74	81

Table 20

One-Way ANOVA--Race and Covert Behavior Scale

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23.553	2	11.776	.126	.882
Within Groups	56741.406	605	93.787		
Total	56764.959	607			

Summary. Caucasian/White women perceived overt behaviors as more abusive than African American or "Other" race groups. All three racial groups did not consider covert behavior as abusive acts. Covert behaviors were not related to race.

Hypothesis 2. "There is no relationship between age and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women." To test this hypothesis, Spearman's Rho Correlation analysis was performed.

Table 21 gives the group means and standard deviations for overt behavior scale by age group. The mean ranged from 47.37 for ages 30-39, to 49.05 for ages 40-49. Given the measurement scale used in this study (see p. 75), overt behaviors were considered abusive by all age groups. Women in the age range of 40-49 identified abusive behaviors more than other women. However, this difference was negligible.

To determine if a relationship between age and overt behavior exists, a Spearman Rho correlation was performed. A weak but significant positive correlation was found between age and overt behavior ($\rho(614) = .116, p < .05$).

Table 21

Group Means, Age, and Overt Behavior Scale

Age	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number
18-20	47.6957	6.6856	92
21-29	48.5158	6.6730	95
30-39	47.3707	8.4478	116
40-49	49.0541	7.3889	114
50-59	48.3554	8.9488	121
60+	48.2857	8.8215	42

Table 22 shows the Spearman Rho correlation between age and each item designed to measure overt behavior. Seven of the 10 overt behaviors were significantly related to age. However, these correlations are negligible. Three behaviors did not correlate significantly with age. They were "Sleeping with her husband to hurt her,"

“Destroying her self-esteem,” and “Yelling at her.”

Table 23 gives the group means and standard deviations for the covert behavior scale by age group. The mean ranged from 32.9 for ages 18-20, to 34.4 for ages 60-69. Given the measurement scale used in this study (see p. 73), covert behaviors were not considered abusive by all age groups.

Table 22

Spearman-rho Correlation Between Age and Overt Behavior

Question	Abuse Behavior	Alpha rho
1	Manipulating easy-going women	.101*
5	Sleeping with her husband	.080*
6	Sleeping with her husband to hurt her	.029
9	Gossiping to run her reputation	.083*
11	Betraying her	.080*
13	Humiliating her	.110**
14	Giving her hurtful messages	.086*
15	Destroying her self-esteem	.024
16	Interfering with or destroying work	.119**
20	Yelling at her	.070

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 23

Group Means, Age, and Covert Behavior Scale

Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
18-20	32.9674	8.7987	92
21-29	33.1053	9.3028	95
30-39	32.9741	9.0932	116
40-49	33.7973	9.9823	114
50-59	34.1818	10.6348	121
60+	34.4762	10.0322	42

To determine if a relationship between age and covert behavior exists, a Spearman Rho correlation was performed. No significant relationship was found between age and covert behavior ($\rho(614) = .073, p > .05$). Because there was no significant relationship, no further testing was performed.

Summary. A weak and significant positive correlation was found between age and overt behavior. Specifically, age was significantly related to “Manipulating easy-going women,” “Sleeping with her husband,” “Gossiping to ruin her reputation,” “Betraying her,” “Humiliating her,” “Giving her hurtful messages,” and “Interfering with her work.”

Hypothesis 3. “There is no relationship between education and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women.” To test this hypothesis, a one-way ANOVA test was performed to test the relationship between education and overt abuse items.

Table 24 gives the group means, standard deviations, and number of participants by education level for the overt behavior scale. The mean ranged from 46.86 for women with Associate degrees, to 49.59 for women with Graduate degrees. Given the measurement scale used in this study (see p. 73), overt behavior was considered abusive by all education groups. However, perceptions of abuse seem highest among women with 4-year college degrees or higher.

Table 25 shows the results of the one-way ANOVA between education and overt behaviors. The analysis suggests that there was no significant relationship between education and overt behavior ($F_{(4,586)} = 2.276, p = .060$).

Table 26 gives the group means, standard deviations, and level of education for the covert behavior scale. The mean ranged from 31.76 for “Other,” to 34.28 for High School. Given the measurement scale used in this study (see p. 73), women from all educational levels considered covert behavior as not being abusive.

Table 27 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA between education and covert behavior scale. No significant relationships were found between covert behavior and education. Because no significant relationship between covert behavior and education was found, further testing was not performed.

Summary. Both overt and covert behaviors were not significantly related to levels of education.

Table 24

Group Means, Education, and Overt Behavior Scale

Education	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number
High School	47.92	8.3571	237
Associate's Degree	46.86	9.0450	91
Bachelor's Degree	49.07	7.1505	112
Graduate Degree	49.59	5.8002	114
Vocational/Other	46.97	6.5213	37
Total	48.24	7.7455	591

Table 25

One-way Anova—Education and Overt Behavior Scale

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	541.560	4	135.390	2.276	.060
Within Groups	34853.800	586	59.477		
Total	35395.360	590			

Table 26

Group Means, Education, and Covert Behavior Scale

Education	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number
High School	34.28	9.7076	237
Associate's Degree	32.47	9.5410	91
Bachelor's Degree	32.61	9.6183	112
Graduate Degree	33.77	9.1565	114
Vocational/Other	31.76	10.8740	37
Total	33.43	9.6446	591

Table 27

One-way ANOVA--Education and Covert Behavior Scale

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	448.500	4	112.125	1.207	.307
Within Groups	54432.336	586	92.888		
Total	54880.836	590			

Gender Profiles

Section B

Research question 2 asked: "Are these perceptions of abuse related to gender profiles?" To answer this question, two things were done. First a section of the questionnaire was designed to group women into one of four categories of gender profiles. Based on responses to part 2 of the survey, subjects were categorized into four gender profiles: feminine personality/feminine behavior, feminine personality/masculine behavior, masculine personality/feminine behavior, and masculine personality/masculine behavior. Second, hypothesis 4, "There is no relationship between gender profiles and perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women" was stated.

Table 28 gives the gender profile distribution of the sample. Of the 626 respondents, 583 (93.1%) successfully completed the gender coding section of the survey. All four gender profiles were selected by participants. Approximately 34% of the respondents reported to have masculine personality/feminine behavior. The feminine personality/masculine behavior gender profile was selected only by 12.9% of the respondents.

Table 28

Gender Profile Distribution

Gender Profile	Number	Percentage
Masculine personality/feminine behavior	200	34.3
Masculine personality/masculine behavior	132	22.6
Feminine personality/feminine behavior	176	30.2
Feminine personality/masculine behavior	75	12.9
TOTAL	583	100.0

Hypothesis 4. There is no relationship between gender profiles and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women. To test this hypothesis, one-way ANOVAs were performed.

Table 29 presents the group mean of each profile on the overt behavior scale. Also presented are the standard deviation and percentage of each group represented. The group mean ranges from 46.67 for “feminine personality/masculine behavior,” to 49.10 for “masculine personality/masculine behavior.” Given the measurement scale used in this study, overt behaviors were considered abusive by all gender profiles. There appears to be little difference in the mean scores of each gender profile group on the overt item scale (see Table 31).

Table 29

Gender Profile and Group Means of Overt Scale

Gender Profile/Overt Abuse	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage
Masculine personality/feminine behavior	200	47.72	8.2623	34.3
Masculine personality/masculine behavior	132	49.10	7.9559	22.6
Feminine personality/feminine behavior	176	49.09	6.1172	30.2
Feminine personality/masculine behavior	75	46.67	9.9013	12.9
TOTAL	583	48.31	7.8804	100

Table 30 gives the results of a one-way ANOVA in order to examine whether or not overt behavior was related to gender profile. As Table 30 suggests, no significant relationship was found ($F_{(3,579)} = 2.503, p > .05$) between gender profile groups and overt abuse. Women from the four different gender profiles did not differ significantly in their perceptions of overt behaviors as abuse.

Table 31 presents the group mean of each profile on the covert behavior scale. Also presented are the standard deviation and percentage of each group represented. The group mean ranges from 32.96 for "feminine personality/feminine behavior," to 34.30 for "masculine personality/feminine behavior." Given the measurement scale used in this study, covert behaviors were not considered as abusive by all gender profiles. Little difference, seems to exist in the mean scores of each gender profile group on the covert

Table 30

One-Way ANOVA-Gender Profile and Overt Behavior Scale

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	F	Sig.
Between Groups	462.739	3	154.246	2.503	.058
Within Groups	35679.687	579	61.623		
Total	36142.425	582			

item scale.

Table 32 gives the results of a one-way ANOVA test performed to examine whether or not gender profile was related to covert behavior. No significant relationship was found ($F(3,579) = .384, p > .05$) between gender profile groups and covert behavior.

Summary. Two one-way ANOVAs were performed to determine whether or not there was a relationship between gender profile and the two behavior scales (overt and covert). No relationship existed between gender profiles and overt behavior and gender profiles and covert behavior.

Personal Experiences With Abuse

Section C

Research question 3 asked: "What is the relationship between a woman's personal experiences of abuse and race, age, and education?" To answer this question hypotheses 5a and 5b were developed in order to distinguish between women who perceived

Table 31

Gender Profile and Group Means of Covert Scale

Gender Profile/Covert Items	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage
Masculine personality/ feminine behavior	200	33.36	9.8123	34.3
Masculine personality/ masculine behavior	132	34.30	9.8453	22.6
Feminine personality/ feminine behavior	176	33.53	9.5540	30.2
Feminine personality/ masculine behavior	75	32.96	9.3251	12.9

Table 32

One-Way ANOVA--Gender Profile and Covert Behavior Scale

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	107.870	3	35.957	.384	.765
Within Groups	54266.634	579	93.725		
Total	54374.504	582			

themselves to be victims of abuse, from women who considered themselves to have perpetrated abuse.

Hypothesis 5. "There is no significant relationship between the perceived victim's personal experience and race, age, and education." To test this hypothesis, an ANOVA was performed to establish whether there was a relationship between the

perceived victim's race, age, and education.

Table 33 presents perceived victim's group means, standard deviations and number of cases by race, age, and education. Indications were that African American women experienced abuse less than any other racial group. Caucasian/White and "Other" racial groups viewed abuse similarly. Women between the ages of 18-20 perceived abuse less than any other age group. In contrast, women ages 40-49 perceived abuse more than other age group. Respondents with high school as their highest level of education perceived abused less than other women of other educational levels. Women with graduate degrees perceived abuse more than women of other educational levels.

Table 34 gives the results of one-way ANOVA between victims report of abuse and race, age, and education. A significant relationship between perceived abuse and race ($F_{(2,601)} = 3.481, p = .031$), age ($F_{(5,604)} = 5.685, p < .000$), and education ($F_{(4,582)} = 6.518, p < .000$) was found. To further clarify the results, a Bonferroni post hoc test were performed.

Bonferroni post hoc procedure indicated that both Caucasian/White women ($M = 3.51, SD = 1.60$) and women in the "Other" racial group ($M = 3.50, SD = 1.58$) perceived abuse more than African American women. Women with high-school as their highest level of education reported less victimization than ($M = 2.95, SD = 1.66$) women with college education (Associate degrees [$M = 3.54, SD = 1.66$], Bachelor degrees [$M = 3.41, SD = 1.61$] or Graduate degrees [$M = 3.85, SD = 1.54$]). Women 18-20 years of age reported less victimization than women in all other age ranges (21-29 [$M = 3.32, SD$

Table 33

Victims' Group Means--Race, Age, and Education

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
Race			
Caucasian/White	3.51	1.60	244
African American	3.15	1.72	280
Other	3.50	1.58	80
Total	3.34	1.66	604
Age			
18-20	2.65	1.59	92
21-29	3.32	1.63	94
30-39	3.33	1.73	115
40-49	3.73	1.55	147
50-59	3.57	1.62	120
60+	3.10	1.68	42
Total	3.35	1.66	610
Education			
High School	2.95	1.66	233
Vocational/Other	3.54	1.62	37
Associate's Degree	3.41	1.66	91
Bachelor's Degree	3.41	1.61	112
Graduate Degree	3.85	1.54	114

Note: Response Scale: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no.

Table 34

One-Way ANOVA--Victims' Experience and Race, Age, and Education

Victim		SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Race	Between Groups	19.011	2	9.506	3.481	.031 *
	Within Groups	1641.360	601	2.731		
	Total	1660.371	603			
Age	Between Groups	75.037	5	15.007	5.685	.000 **
	Within Groups	1594.477	604	2.640		
	Total	1669.515	609			
Education	Between Groups	68.968	4	17.242	6.518	.000 **
	Within Groups	1539.587	582	2.645		
	Total	1608.555	586			

* Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

=1.63], 30-39 [$M = 3.33$, $SD = 1.73$], 40-49 [$M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.53$], 50-59 [$M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.62$] and 60+ years of age [$M = 3.10$, $SD = 1.68$]).

Summary 5. “There is no significant relationship between the perceived victim’s personal experience and race, age, and education.” One-way ANOVA found relationships between victims of abuse, and age, ($F_{(4,599)} = 2.658$, $p < .05$), education ($F_{(4,582)} = 4.522$, $p < .001$), and race ($F_{(4,605)} = 4.864$, $p < .001$). The relationship between the perceived victim’s race, age, and education was found to be statistically significant, therefore answering research question 3. Because of this finding, the hypothesis, “There is no significant relationship between perceived victim’s personal experience with abuse and race, age, and education,” was rejected.

Hypothesis 6. “There is no significant relationship between the perceived perpetrator’s personal experience, and race, age, and education.” To test this hypothesis a ANOVA was performed to establish whether there was a relationship between the perceived perpetrator’s race, age, and education.

Table 35 presents the perceived perpetrator’s group means, standard deviations and number of cases by race, age, and education. From Table 35 it can be seen that all group means fell in the “maybe no” to the “I do not know” ranges. Most respondents did not consider themselves perpetrators of abuse/mistreatment to other women.

Table 36 gives the results of the one-way ANOVA between perpetrators and race, age, and education. No statistically significant relationship was found between perceived perpetrator’s race, age, or education.

Summary 6. “There is no significant relationship between perceived perpetrator’s personal experience and race, age, and education.” No statistical relationship was found between women who perceived themselves as perpetrators and race, age, and education.

Table 35

Perpetrators' Group Means--Race, Age, and Education

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number
Race			
Caucasian/White	2.55	1.45	244
African American	2.51	1.54	280
Other	2.73	1.41	79
Total	2.56	1.49	603
Age			
18-20	2.40	1.43	92
21-29	2.76	1.54	93
30-39	2.65	1.49	115
40-49	2.55	1.50	148
50-59	2.50	1.48	119
60+	2.48	1.55	42
Total	2.56	1.49	609
Education			
High School	2.48	1.46	234
Vocational/Other	2.86	1.48	36
Associate's degree	2.54	1.52	91
Bachelor's Degree	2.59	1.49	111
Graduate Degree	2.62	1.53	114
Total	2.56	1.49	586

Note: Response Scale: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no.

Table 36

One-Way ANOVA--Perpetrators' Experience and Race, Age, and Education

Perpetrator		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race	Between Groups	2.992	2	1.496	.676	.509
	Within Groups	1327.668	600	2.213		
	Total	1330.660	602			
Age	Between Groups	7.894	5	1.579	.711	.616
	Within Groups	1339.794	603	2.222		
	Total	1347.688	608			
Education	Between Groups	5.274	4	1.318	.593	.668
	Within Groups	1290.890	581	2.222		
	Total	1296.164	585			

Summary

This chapter dealt with the findings of the women's abuse research study. In the beginning of this chapter, demographic characteristics for the study's population were given, including age, yearly income, education, employment, race, and marital status. Descriptive results, including the frequency and percentage of respondents, were included. Of these characteristics, only race, age, and education were further analyzed.

The analysis of these data was done in three sections corresponding to the study's three research questions. Section A addressed the types of behaviors conducted by women that women considered abuse. This section addressed the question: "What acts or behaviors conducted by women do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?" These behaviors were examined independently and then in conjunction with the personal

characteristics of race, age, and education in hypotheses 1 through 3.

Section A, Hypotheses 1-3. Items on the overt behavior scale were consistently considered abusive when done by one woman to another, regardless of race or age. However, education was not significant in the perception of overt behavior. Items on the covert behavior scale were not considered abusive when done by one woman to another.

Section B, Hypothesis 4. "Are these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?" Results indicate that gender profile was not related to women's perceptions of abuse/mistreatment.

Finally, in Section C, Hypotheses 5 and 6. Womens' race, age, and education were compared with the personal experiences of perceived victims and perpetrators of abuse. Section C addressed research question 3: "What is the relationship between a woman's personal experiences of abuse and race, age, and education?"

To answer this question, two separate hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 5 stated that "there is no relationship between the perceived victim's personal experience with abuse, race, age, and education." Significant relationships were found between the perceived victim's personal experience, age, race, and educational level. Hypothesis 6 stated that "there is no relationship between the perceived perpetrator's personal experience and race, age, and education." No significant relationship between the perceived perpetrator's age, race, and educational level was found.

Conclusions

This chapter sought to answer three major research questions.

Question 1: "What behaviors do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?"

1. Seventy-five to 95 % of the respondents reported overt acts as abusive.
2. Covert acts were not considered abusive.
3. Perception of overt acts as abuse was related to race.
4. There was a weak, but significant, positive correlation between age and perceived abuse of overt acts.

Question 2: "Are these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?"

1. Gender profile was not related to perceived abuse of overt or covert acts.

Question 3: "What is the relationship between a woman's personal experience as both victims and perpetrators of abuse and race, age, and education?"

1. Approximately 60% of the respondents in this study reported being abused by other women.
2. Thirty-five percent of the respondents admitted to being perpetrators of abuse.
3. The degree to which women felt victimized by abuse from other women is relate to race, age and education. The following are least likely to report being abused: African-American, women ages 18-20, and those with only high school diplomas.
4. Being perpetrators of abuse is not related to age, race or education.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter contains a summary of the study, including the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and overview of the literature. The methodology and analysis of the results are given, followed by a discussion of the results. Conclusions and recommendations for further study are based on the results.

Summary

Statement of the Problem

The majority of the extant studies from which conclusions about female-on-female aggression are based from studies conducted on children or on males. Few studies have focused on women as primary research subjects. Consequently, little information is available that reports perceptions of female relational aggression in adulthood.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the behaviors exhibited by women that women consider abuse/mistreatment. It was also to examine the extent to which such perceptions or experiences of abuse/mistreatment were related to gender profiles. The

relationship between a woman's personal experience as both victims and perpetrators of abuse and age, race, and education were also examined.

Overview of the Literature

Over the years, females have been portrayed as jealous, underhanded, prone to betrayal, disobedient, and secretive. They were thought to lack public identity and language and engage in non-physical aggression described as "catty," "crafty," "evil," and "cunning" (Simmons, 2002). Such behaviors are believed to be characteristic of female development, making such conflicts a rite-of-passage (Simmons, 2002).

Jones (1990) posits that dynamics adhered to when women congregate in their private domains often exclude the public sector. Their talk serves not only to provide comfort and mutual support within the group, but it may also offer opportunity to protest and inflict oppression (Wiseman, 2002). While some theorists maintain the supportive nature of female interaction, others report indirect forms of aggression (Bjoerkqvist et al., 1992) and discuss the guilt and anxiety experienced due to engaging in such aggressive behavior. Some researchers found female behavior was often driven by fear of being the target of retaliation from other females (Eagly & Steffens, 1986). These retaliations were manifested as aggression.

Aggression was hailed as a hallmark of male behavior. Males were expected to engage in aggressive behavior, while females were expected to use intimacy to manipulate and overpower others. Female aggressive behaviors were seldom the object of any significant contemplation, and to date, little research can be found on the

types of abuse/mistreatment women administer to other women.

In Evans's (1996) work, the espoused types of abuse were clearly categorized as verbal. Although Evans's work encompasses verbal abuse administered by men to women, similar behaviors were noted between the men in Evans's study and the behaviors reported by women in the focus group (see chapter 2 of this dissertation). These aggressive behaviors were labeled as abuses when perpetrated by men (Evans, 1996); however, no such label has been applied when the same behavior was done by women to women.

The traditional types of violence cited earlier in the literature review, namely verbal abuse, emotional abuse, and psychological abuse (see chapter 2), consisted of distinct behaviors. It is interesting to note that abuse as outlined in each major category was possible without physical violence. These behaviors include manipulation, non-acknowledgment, opinion giving, humiliation, exclusion, giving hurtful comments, yelling, avoidance, public embarrassment, and more. Similar behaviors were reported by participants in this study as abuse/mistreatment when conducted by one woman on another (see chapter 2 and chapter 4). Reference of such behaviors is simply to draw parallel to the behaviors tested in this study and behaviors commonly defined as abuse/mistreatment.

Definitions of abuse were found in reviewing the literature; however, the literature did not reveal distinct speculations of the social pathogenesis of violence between women. Although distinct speculations were not found, inferences were noted. These inferences go back to socialization during childhood. It appears that girls in American

society are socialized away from physical aggression. Boys are considered more physically aggressive than girls; however, boys and girls are equally aggressive verbally (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961). These differences were observable in both overt and covert communication. Unfortunately, when anger cannot be voiced, and when skills to handle conflict are absent, core conflict cannot be addressed. When no other tools are accessible to resolving conflict, relationships easily become weapons (Simmons, 2002). Girls learn to act out aggression in more sophisticated and acceptable ways. These socially acceptable ways consist of verbal and nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication, as subtle as it may be, is thought to make up 93% of perception (Mehrabian, 1981). As girls mature, their ability to personify subtle aggression increases (Phelps, 2001).

Phelps (2001) also found that overt aggression in young children became more covert as children aged. The sophistication in which children interpret and conduct aggressive acts also increased with education. She reported that "as children develop and are better able to understand and negotiate social situations, they could use that knowledge to aggress or retaliate against peers in more subtle ways (Phelps, 2001, p. 249)." The development of communication skills and the ability to mask feelings were cited as tools that developed with age. What appears clear is that what researchers have defined as relational aggression is also perceived by children as aggressive behavior (Phelps, 2001). If this is true, children observing adult models can discern aggressive behavior.

Hipwell et al, (2002) cited disadvantaged communities as a factor when reporting a range of disruptive disorders present in subgroups of girls ages 5 and 8. Prinstein, et al. (2001) suggest that adolescent girls in Grades 9 through 12 who were victims of overt or relational aggression demonstrated maladaptive psychological adjustment. What is interesting is that these researchers found no differences in the frequencies of aggression or victimization across ethnic groups (Prinstein et al., 2001). It is assumed that regardless of race, relational aggression continues to develop and become refined into and beyond high-school years.

The distress of high-school students makes clear the assumption that traditional views of female aggression during the last 30 years has changed. Whereas Bandura's (1969) conception of gender-role typing remains evident in social society, it appears that the reactions of girls to social mandates are indeed changing. This change suggests that abusive behavior is not a masculine preserve. Although most research focuses on relational aggression in children, this research questioned aggression in females 18 years and older.

Methodology

Respondents

The respondents in this study were 626 African American, Caucasian/White, and "Other" race women. Women selecting "Other" reported they were Hispanic, West Indian, African, Asian, Native American, and Jewish. Some were Mary Kay personnel and some were not. All respondents were 18 years of age or older.

Instrumentation

Demographic information was gathered on each respondent. This included age, yearly income, education level, employment field, race, and marital status.

The instrument used was the Women's Abuse Survey. This survey consisted of two main sections. In the first section, the personality and behavior boxes were used to code and create gender profile clusters. The possible profiles in the gender cluster section were: feminine personality/feminine behavior, feminine personality/masculine behavior, masculine personality/feminine behavior, and masculine personality/masculine behavior.

The second section was designed to gather information pertaining to women's perception of abuse. The second section asks, "Do you believe that if a woman does any of the following to another woman, it is considered abuse?" Subjects responded to the types of behavior on a questionnaire consisting of 10 overt behaviors and 10 covert behaviors. To do so, a 5-point modified Likert scale to indicate respondents, agreement or disagreement with each of the 20 behaviors was used. Numbers on the modified Likert scale indicated the following ratings: 5 - definitely yes; 4 - maybe yes; 3 - I do not know; 2 - maybe no; 1 - definitely no. Analysis was performed on each of the 626 surveys that were judged complete.

Both content and construct validity were established for the instrument consisting of the overt abuse scale and covert abuse scale. Content validity was established by inter-rater agreement. Construct validity was established through factor analysis.

Reliability analysis was performed on the twenty items listed as possible abuses. Exploratory Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation resulted in a two factor solution. These two factors were identified as overt and covert categories or scales. Both overt and covert scales demonstrated high reliability estimates of .8856 for the overt abuse scale and .8859 for the covert behavior scale.

Analysis of Data

Three research questions were examined in determining the perception of abuse and gender among women. These questions were:

1. What acts or behaviors conducted by women do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?
2. Are these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?
3. What is the relationship between a woman's personal experience as both victims and perpetrators of abuse and race, age, and education?

These questions led to the analysis of five null hypotheses. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were tested using Spearman Rho's correlational test, and hypotheses 1, 4 and 5 were tested using one-way ANOVAs.

Hypothesis 1. There is no relationship between race and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women. This was tested by one-way ANOVAs.

Hypothesis 2. There is no relationship between age and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women. This was tested by Spearman rho tests.

Hypothesis 3. There is no relationship between education and the perceived types

of abuse/mistreatment among women. This was tested by Spearman rho tests.

Hypothesis 4. There is no relationship between gender profile and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women. This was tested by one-way ANOVAs.

Hypothesis 5. There is no relationship between the perceived victim's personal experience and race, age, and education. This was tested by one-way ANOVAs.

Hypothesis 6. There is no relationship between the perceived perpetrator's personal experience and race, age, and education. This was tested by one-way ANOVAs.

Summary of Significant Findings

The analysis of data was done in three sections (Sections A, B, and C) corresponding to the study's three research questions. Section A addressed the "types of behaviors" when conducted by women that women considered abuse. This section addressed the research question 1: "What acts or behaviors conducted by women do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?" These behaviors were examined independently and then in conjunction with the personal characteristics of race, age, and education in hypotheses 1 through 3. Section B addressed research question 2: "Are these perceptions of abuse/mistreatment related to gender profile?" Hypothesis 4 was addressed in section B. The last research question, "What is the relationship between a woman's personal experiences of abuse and race, age, and education?" was addressed in section C. Section C focused on two hypotheses, 5 and 6.

Section A addressed research question 1: "What acts or behaviors do women perceive as abuse/mistreatment?" Items on the overt behavior scale were consistently considered abusive behaviors when performed by one woman on another, regardless of race or age. These overt actions included, "Manipulating easy-going women," "Sleeping with another woman's husband," "Sleeping with another woman's husband to hurt her," "Gossiping to ruin her reputation," "Betraying her," "Humiliating her," "Giving her hurtful messages," "Destroying her self-esteem," "Destroying her work," and "Yelling at her."

Items on the covert behavior scale were not considered abusive when conducted by one woman on another. Covert actions included, "Refusing to acknowledge her presence," "Giving her unsolicited opinions," "Disliking her for being confident," "Keeping her at a distance," "Ignoring her because of her appearance," "Not associating with her because of social status," "Withdrawing affection from her," "Failing to support her efforts," "Avoiding her because of her friends," and "Interfering with her spiritual growth."

Hypothesis 1, "There is no relationship between race and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment," was rejected. Even though all considered overt behaviors abusive, tests to hypothesis 1 revealed that Caucasian/White women scored higher than African American and "Other" racial groups. Therefore it was assumed that Caucasian/White women perceived abuses more than women in the other racial groups.

Hypothesis 2, "There is no relationship between age and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment," was rejected. Tests to hypothesis 2 revealed a relationship between

age and perceived types of abuse/mistreatment. The perception of abuse appeared to increase with age with the following behaviors: (a) "Manipulating easy-going women," (b) "Sleeping with her husband," (c) "Gossiping to ruin her reputation," (d) "Betraying her," (e) "Giving her hurtful messages," (f) "Humiliating her," and (g) "Interfering with or destroying her work." Perceptions of abuse seemed to increase up to 50 years of age.

Hypothesis 3, "There is no relationship between education and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment," was retained. There was no statistical relationship between the perception of abuse and education.

Section B addressed research question 4: "Are these perceptions related to gender profile?"

Hypothesis 4, "There is no relationship between gender profiles and the perceived types of abuse/mistreatment among women," was retained. Gender profile was not statistically related to women's perceptions of abuse/mistreatment.

Section C addressed research question 3: "What is the relationship between a woman's personal experience as both victim and perpetrator of abuse and race, age, and education" To answer this question, two separate hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis 5, "There is no relationship between the perceived victim's personal experience with abuse, race, age, and education, " was rejected. Findings were that there was a significant relationship between the perceived victim's personal experience and age, race, and educational level.

Women who reported being abused more were of three distinct characteristics: (a) women who were Caucasian/White, (b) women between the ages of 40-49, and (c)

women who had Graduate degrees. Women who reported being abused least were also of three distinct characteristics: (a) women who were African American, (b) women who were between the ages of 18-20, and (c) women who had high-school diplomas.

Hypothesis 6, "There is no relationship between the perceived perpetrator's personal experience and race, age, and education," was retained. No significant relationship between the perceived perpetrator's age, race, and educational level was found. There was no characteristic pattern established for perpetrators of woman-on-woman abuse.

Discussion of Findings

Abuse is a known phenomenon in American society; however, whether one sees oneself as a recipient of abuse is another issue. Physical abuse is easily identifiable; however, the more subtle the abuse, the harder it is to distinguish. These subtle and difficult-to-perceive abuses are thought to have a greater impact than those of physical abuse (Evans, 1996; Follingstad et al Routledge, Berg, Hause, & Ploek, 1990; Hoffmann, 1984; Loring, 1994; Shepard & Campbell, 1992). WOVA is non-physical.

The section presents discussion on the phenomenon of woman-on-woman abuse. It begins with discussion on the types of behavior (overt) reported as abuse. Race, age, and education are discussed in relation to perceptions of abuse. After the discussion of overt behaviors, a review of the findings regarding gender is given. Findings regarding education and victimization are reportedly different from race and the perception of abuse. Victimization is then followed with brief statements about perpetration of abuse.

Discussions end with the postulates of this researcher as they pertain to the phenomenon of WOVA.

**Research Question 1: What Behaviors Do Women
Perceive as Abuse/Mistreatment?**

In the present study, 75% to 95% of respondents reported overt acts as abusive. Nine out of 10 of the overt behaviors (receiving a mean score of 4 or higher) tested abusive. These behaviors were: "Sleeping with another woman's husband," "Sleeping with another woman's husband to hurt her," "Gossiping to ruin her reputation," "Betraying her," "Humiliating her," "Giving her hurtful messages," "Destroying her self-esteem," "Destroying her work," and "Yelling at her."

Covert or subtle acts, receiving a mean score below 3.9, were not considered abusive. However, behaviors that were borderline (3.9 to 3.99) on both the overt ("Manipulating easy-going women") and covert ("Interfering with her spiritual growth") scales received mean scores that met the criteria for abuse. A probable reason for these behaviors meeting the abuse criteria, is that a borderline behavior incorporates both obvious and subtle practices.

Overt and covert behavior categories were tested against the variables race, age, and education. Caucasian/white women viewed overt acts as more abusive than African-American or other racial groups. Respondents of all races reported overt behaviors as abusive. However, when comparing racial groups, Caucasian/White and women in the other racial groups received higher mean scores. It is therefore assumed that Caucasian/White and women in the "Other" racial group perceive abuse more than

African American women. African American women scored lowest of all the racial groups in the perception of abuse/mistreatment. A possible explanation for the differences in racial groups is that historically African American have endured desensitizing abusive treatment, and may have been socialized to overlook all but the most blatant mistreatment.

A weak, but significant positive correlation between age and perceived abuse of overt acts were found. Older women, ages 40-49, were more likely to perceive overt behavior as abusive, while younger women, ages 18-20, were more likely to report covert behaviors as abusive. Phelps (2001) found that the younger the respondent, the more likely they were to consider subtle behaviors abusive. This study cites similar findings; the older the respondents, the less likely covert behaviors were considered abusive.

Perceptions of abuse increased with age, reaching a pinnacle at 49 years of age. Women ages 40-49 perceived themselves as victims more than women from other adult age groups. Older women have had greater opportunities to observe the behaviors described in this study and to formulate what behaviors fit into their personal abuse paradigms. However, declines were noted to begin around age 50, right in the middle of what Erikson refers to as middle adulthood. At that age, women's priorities shift and they are less concerned with what other women think, say, or do. They are more concerned with health issues, menopause, sexual desirability, quality of life, and guiding the next generation (Papalia, 1998). In exploring WOVA dynamics across the life span, considerations must be given to the developmental implications.

Although education occurs across the life span, it was not found to be significant as it relates to the perception of abusive acts. Education was thought not to contribute to the perception of abusive behavior because aggression and mistreatment begins early in the female subculture. As young children, all women have been either party to, or observers of abuse. This study indicated that, women from all educational levels perceived abuse/mistreatment among women. Inferred from the results is the suggestion that perception of abuse and identifying oneself as victim to abuse is independent.

Research Question 2: Are These Perceptions of Abuse/Mistreatment Related to Gender Profile?

The results of this study suggest that gender profile is not related to perceptions of overt or covert acts. Researchers at one time considered aggression a masculine preserve. Applying this school of thought would have meant that the more feminine the profile, the greater the perception of abuse. However, thoughts on aggression and gender are changing (Bem, 1993; Boyle, 1999; Brumberg, 2000; Coie et al., 1992; Crick, 1996; Deaux & Lewis, 1983; Hanna, 1999; Lamb, 1997; Phelps Simmons, 2002; Phelps, 2001; Wiseman, 2002). Levinson (1986) attributes this change to the effect of the "gender revolution" on our culture, and theorizes that the lives and personalities of women and men are becoming similar. Inherent to females are both masculine and feminine characteristics as demonstrated in the results of the gender profiling in this study.

Although Levinson's (1986) postulate hinges on the gender revolution, masculine personality characteristics were exhibited long before the gender revolution was thought to begin. We need only look at the stories passed to us through biblical folklore. Two

such stories portray adversarial and aggressive relationships between Sarah and Hagar, and Rachel and Leah (Archer, 1990). These stories suggest women have always exhibited masculine characteristics free from time and culture. These and other ancient stories suggest woman-on-woman abuse has always existed.

Conjecture is that effects of gender stereotyping, preconceived generalizations about male or female role behavior, has become far more reaching than ever imagined. And, that gender stereotyping has little to do with the multidimensional gender-role of individuals. Shift in development from outward displays of overt aggression to covert aggression, may be attributed to gender typing and little else. Such gender typing is evident in communicative process of females.

**Research question 3: What Is the Relationship Between
a Woman's Personal Experience as Both
Victim and Perpetrator of Abuse
and Race, Age, and Education?**

Women reported being abused by other women and in varying degrees related it to race, age, and education. Perception of abuse and identifying oneself as victim of abuse were independent. Approximately 60% of the women in this study reported being abused by other women. However, only 35% of the women reported abusing other women. Results suggest that the perception of abuse is pervasive.

Even though reports of victimization among women was widespread, African American women perceived themselves to be victims of abuse less than any other racial group. Women ages 18-20 also perceived themselves to be victims of abuse less than women of other age groups. Both African American and young women are less likely to

have earned a graduate degree.

Women with graduate degrees not only distinguished abuse/mistreatment, but perceived themselves to be victims of abuse more than women at any other educational level. This is particularly interesting because it summons the question, "What, other than education, do advance graduates have that other women do not?" Suspicions are that women with advanced degrees have spent time developing self, general knowledge, and advance knowledge-bases of their choosing. Perhaps they are to some degree actualized. Whatever the case, alternatives should be available for women who do not follow the same course. In other words, females would benefit from curricula that addresses a variety of interests and the "self."

Although approximately 60% of respondents reported being victims of abuse by other women, only 35% reported perpetrating abuse. However, no relationship was found between perpetrators of woman-on-woman abuse and age, race, and education. Woman-on-woman abuse has not been formally identified. Most of the women in this study could readily identify the WOWA phenomenon when supplied descriptions, however, this knowledge is in large part dismissed in the greater society. Postulated from these findings, is that: (a) WOWA exists, (b) WOWA has an impact on society, and (c) establishing a clear description of the WOWA phenomenon is a necessary precursor to the identification of its victims and perpetrators.

Conclusions

Personal observation is that there appears to be a triangular conundrum when examining the concept of WOVA. This conundrum asks the question, "Which came first: (a) abuse that occurs as a result of both-gender children observing their mother's victimization, (b) abuse that occurs as a result of both-gender children observing their father's perpetration, or (c) abuse that occurs as a result of both-gender children observing interactions between older female models?"

Based on the posits of the Social Learning theory, it is safe to say that abusive-behavior repertoires of girls have been tainted from observing adult womens' interactions. Suspicions are that boys' behavioral repertoires, especially toward females, have also been tainted from observing the interactions of women. The difference, if there is any, would be that boys, in compliance with personality characteristics, act out their repertoires through socially deemed vehicles. In this case, the vehicle is openly more aggressive. Thus, WOVA becomes a foundation of abuse in both sexes. If not the case, how do we account for the behavior of victims and perpetrators who grew up in households where domestic aggression between parents was nonexistent? WOVA satisfies this explanation throughout the ages.

When anger cannot be voiced, and when skills to handle conflict are absent, core conflict cannot be addressed. Simmons's (2002) postulate, that when no other tools are accessible to resolving conflict, relationships easily become weapons, must be true. Aggression does not go away. It surfaces as relational and social violence among

women.

The reputation of women as jealous, underhanded, prone to betray, disobedient, and secretive has become their public identity (Simmons, 2002). This catty identity of women gives cloak to woman-on-woman abuse (WOWA), and often serves as entertainment among both sexes, and pillar to the homeostasis of our social system. While the acceptance of WOWA seems sure, it is dangerous in that it facilitates the retardation of the personal development of its victims, perpetrators, and social system. Victims and perpetrators of woman-on-woman abuse, along with our society at large, stand to benefit from heightened awareness into the phenomenon of WOWA. Awareness is thought to be possible through the following recommendations for practice.

Recommendations for Practice

Mental Health Services

Leaders in the mental health field are positioned to study and make known the devastation made by abusive behavior, no matter how overt or covert the abuse. Although all 20 items on the Women's Abuse Survey were validated as abuse, only 9 items and 2 borderline items were judged by the public as abuse behavior. Ten of the 11 items (meeting the established criteria) were on the overt behavior scale in this study. What is interesting is that the remaining covert behaviors not judged as abuse by women in this study were judged as abusive by expert judges. Ironically, subtle nonphysical violence often has the most profound effects on human welfare. Like elder abuse, WOWA often goes unnoticed.

However, when human welfare is at stake, it becomes the responsibility of mental health policymakers to enact criteria that would help in the identification and treatment of whatever form of violence threatens the mental stability of humankind. To do so, such actions as adopting WOVA as a condition recognized by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (APA, 2000), and training therapists to identify and treat victims and perpetrators of WOVA become necessary.

Allied Health and Medical Services

Professionals in the allied health and medical service fields stand to benefit from in-services explaining the phenomenon of WOVA. Such in-services would raise awareness of workers in two respects. First, allied health and medical workers are in key positions to identify individuals who are victims and perpetrators of WOVA. Second, in-services in WOVA can help by equipping human service workers to function as conduits to public awareness on WOVA.

Education

Education was not significant in the perception of WOVA. However, women with the highest levels of education are more aware of abusive behavior and victimization. Proposals are that issues of self, others, and awareness of WOVA are developed in educational curriculums.

It stands to reason that increasing the awareness of female-on-female aggression should be facilitated through embedment of its concepts through educational curriculum. Students should possess the ability to recognize overt and covert aggression in literature,

in everyday events, and should be able to verbally express its dynamics. It therefore becomes the responsibility of administrators to promote curriculum development to teach staff and students of the dynamics of WOWA on the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels.

Teaching girls and women to identify and become non-tolerant of WOWA could also help females generalize non-tolerance of any form of abuse. Another reason to teach the dynamics of WOWA is to extinguish its effects. In doing so, it becomes necessary to combat WOWA with mentoring, understanding one's purpose and understanding one's self.

Criminal Justice System

Aggression and violence among females are on the rise (Chisholm & Harnett, 1997). Prinstein, et al., (2001) suggest that adolescent girls in Grades 9 through 12 who were victims of overt or relational aggression demonstrated maladaptive psychological adjustment. Despite race, relational aggression continues to develop and become refined into and beyond high-school years. Programs to help females understand aggression and to express their anger in appropriate ways are recommended. The development of communication skills and the ability to mask feelings were cited as tools that developed with age. When anger cannot be voiced, and when skills to handle conflict are absent, core conflict cannot be addressed (Simmons, 2001). Aggression does not go away. It surfaces as relational aggression, and more than ever, violence among women.

Leadership and Church Organization

Church administrators should consider the phenomenon of WOVA within their membership. The attrition rate among long-standing members and new members could be affected. Women play a strong role in welcoming, strengthening, and developing female members, and promoting, not interfering with, spiritual growth. One such role can be that of mentoring.

Mentoring new members and understanding the spiritual gifts of all members can make positive advances in church growth. Understanding spiritual gifts and purpose could possibly decrease comparative and competitive discourse, and contribute to feminine harmony.

Leadership and Women

This study evidences the multidimensional aspects of women. Its contents speak to the diverse perceptions of what women find abusive or not, and can help managers of people in their approach to women. For example, a high-school-educated woman might be less sensitive to WOVA than a woman who has a graduate degree. Or, a woman with vocational-level education may easily, or without knowing, offend her administrator who has a graduate degree.

Another example is that a Caucasian/White woman with a Bachelor's degree making a yearly income of \$60,000 would more than likely be more sensitive to WOVA than her African American counterpart. However, when the behavior in question is

"Interfering with her work," the sensitivity or perception between these two counterparts (African American and Caucasian/White) might be similar. Whether counterparts, administrators, or subordinates, the dimensionality of women continues to expand.

Women in managerial, leadership and political positions are in key positions to act as advocates helping society better understand the phenomenon of WOWA, and its devastating effects in the workplace, in homes and in society at large. These women, and other women, can learn of the dynamics of WOWA through literature, lectures, consultations and leadership symposiums.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study on woman-on-woman abuse was conducted with a moderate sample size of 626 women. Women from 12 of the 50 states in the USA were the participants. Indications were that there is information to be learned from studies on woman-on-woman abuse. To facilitate the understanding of woman-on-woman abuse, the following are recommended.

1. Research should be conducted on women abusing other women with larger sample sizes. These samples should include women from varying cultures and societies. Samples should compare women from matriarchal and patriarchal societies, and Eastern and Western societies. These studies should expand the behaviors of what women consider abusive behavior.

2. Variables of internal and external loci of control should be added to studies on WOWA. Studies should be conducted to help determine the etiology of WOWA.

3. Longitudinal studies should be conducted to examine the progression of covert aggression in females from early in life until later in adulthood. These studies should address if, and, or how covert behavior becomes a part of the communication of adult women. They may also address if adult women lose their ability to distinguish covertly aggressive behavior.

4. Studies should be conducted to examine the degree to which women victims of WOVA also accept abuse from men.

5. Studies should be conducted to determine the perceptions of men regarding WOVA. These studies should ascertain how knowledgeable men are about the subculture of women.

6. Studies should be conducted to examine the long-term effects of aggressive adult female models on children. These studies should then be compared with the long-term effects of aggressive adult male models on children.

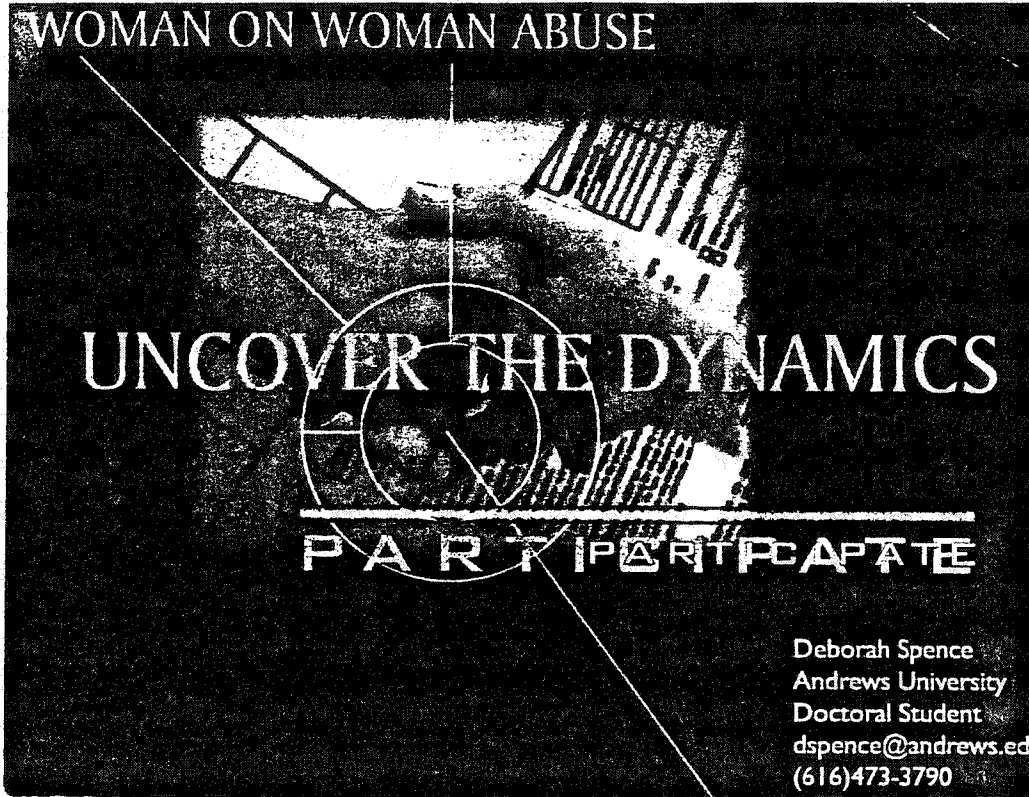
8. Studies should be conducted to examine why women with graduate degrees more often see themselves as victims of abuse than women without graduate degrees.

9. Studies should be conducted that examine the role of WOVA in the attrition rate of faith-base organization.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A
CORRESPONDENCE

WOMAN ON WOMAN ABUSE



UNCOVER THE DYNAMICS

PARTICIPATE

Deborah Spence
Andrews University
Doctoral Student
dspence@andrews.edu
(616)473-3790

Yes, I would like to uncover the dynamics of woman on woman abuse by participating in this survey. Please send me _____ surveys at:

Name _____
Address _____
City _____ State _____ Zip _____
email _____

Place
Stamp
Here

Deborah Spence

Detroit, MI 48219

October 20, 2002

Dear Mary Kay Directors,

Last year at Sheryl Steinman's National Debut, you completed cards expressing an interest in participating in the Woman's Abuse Survey. After months of research, the surveys are now ready for completion. Please allow me the opportunity to thank you for your patience and for consenting to participate in the Woman's Abuse Study.

Enclosed please find:

- (1) Post card like the one you completed
- (2) Stamped/self-addressed returned envelopes
- (3) Survey introductory letters for participants (opposite side of the survey)
- (4) Surveys (opposite side of introductory letters)

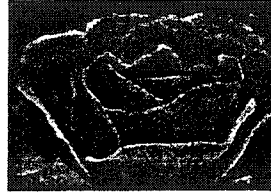
Surveys may be completed by Mary Kay personnel and non-Mary Kay personnel. We do recommend that half the surveys go to Mark Kay personnel and half to women associated with Mary Kay personnel.

It is my hope that your efforts will contribute to the wellness of women. Please distribute the surveys as quickly as possible, so that participants may return the surveys by the deadline of November 27, 2002.

Again, I thank you from the bottom of my heart.

Sincerely,

Deborah Spence



October 21, 2002

To My Beautiful Sisters:

My name is Deborah Spence and I am a former Mary Kay Consultant. Like other Consultants, I learned the importance of helping customers make positive changes in their lives. Still I wanted to contribute more to the wellness of women. Given this, I became a student at Andrews University and studied Counseling and Leadership.

As a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership, I am conducting research aimed at identifying special factors that contribute to the dynamics of how women treat other women. The purpose of this research is to foster wellness among women. In order to do this, your help is very much needed by filling out and returning the Woman's Abuse Survey.

This survey is located on the opposite side of this page and is for women over eighteen years of age. It takes approximately 15 minutes to complete and requires that you use a dark pencil. In order to ensure anonymity we ask that you do not include your name anywhere on this survey. A self-addressed stamped envelope has been provided for the return of this survey. We are asking that all surveys be returned by November 27, 2002. The completion of this survey is voluntary and is not intended to cause distress, discomfort, or invasion of privacy. By completing this survey, you are consenting that this information may be used for research purposes.

Dr. Elsie P. Jackson, Professor of Psychology and Leadership at Andrews University is supervisor of this study. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact her at the address below. You may also contact me at (269) 473-3790. This research is extremely important and your efforts will be worthwhile. Please receive my heartfelt thank you for your assistance and best wishes to you and your family.

Sincerely,

Deborah Spence, M.A. Ph.D. Candidate
Women's Abuse Study
Andrews University/Bell Hall # 176
Berrien Springs, MI 49104-0104 (616) 471-7771

APPENDIX B
WOMAN'S ABUSE SURVEY

Women's Abuse Survey

Please read the letter on the other side of this page before completing this survey.
 Do not write your name anywhere on the survey. Use a No. 2 (dark) pencil to fully darken circles. → ●

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION: Please provide the following for demographic purposes.

Age range:

18-20	30-39	50-59	70-79
21-29	40-49	60-69	80+

My yearly income level:

0-19,000	61,000-80,000	201,000+	
20,000-40,000	81,000-100,000		
41,000-60,000	101,000-200,000		

Education level (choose the highest level completed):

Vocational school	Bachelor's	Doctorate	
High school	Master's	Other _____	
Associate degree	Specialist degree		

Employment field (choose one):

Business	Home-based	Technology	
Clerical	Medicine	Unemployed	
Education	Service	Other _____	

Race (choose one):

African-American	Caucasian/White	West Indian	Other _____
Asian	Hispanic	Mixed race	

Marital status (choose one):

Married	Single	Widowed	
Living together	Divorced		

The next section contains two personality and two behavior clusters. Choose only one cluster from Section A and only one cluster from section B. Choose the cluster that best describes you.

Section A (choose one):

<u>Cluster 1</u>	<u>Cluster 2</u>
Stand up under pressure	Kind
Competitive	Emotional
Independent	Gentle

Section B (choose one):

<u>Cluster 1</u>	<u>Cluster 2</u>
Does household chores	Financial provider
Cooks the meals	Takes initiatives with opposite sex

Do you believe that if a woman does any of the following to another woman it is considered abuse?

1. Manipulating easy-going women
2. Refusing to acknowledge her presence
3. Giving her unsolicited opinions
4. Disliking her for being confident
5. Sleeping with her husband
6. Sleeping with her husband to hurt her
7. Keeping her at a distance
8. Ignoring her because of her appearance
9. Gossiping to ruin her reputation
10. Not associating with her because of social status
11. Betraying her
12. Withdrawing affection from her
13. Humiliating her
14. Giving her hurtful messages
15. Destroying her self esteem
16. Interfering with or destroying her work
17. Failing to support her efforts
18. Avoiding her because of her friends
19. Interfering with her spiritual growth
20. Yelling at her

Definitely No Maybe No I Do Not Know Maybe Yes Definitely Yes

Do you believe that any of the following causes a woman to abuse another woman?

21. Anger
22. Jealousy
23. Control
24. Insecurity

Definitely No Maybe No I Do Not Know Maybe Yes Definitely Yes

Please share your personal experience with abuse.

25. Have you ever been abused by a woman?
26. Have you ever abused another woman?

Definitely No Maybe No I Do Not Know Maybe Yes Definitely Yes

You may include any comment you have in the space below or on the back of this sheet.



APPENDIX C

PILOT STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Gender Role Profile as Correlates of Abuse: The Phenomenon of Women Abusing Women Survey Instrument
--

DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ANYWHERE ON THIS SURVEY. TAKE THIS SURVEY ONLY ONCE.

DEMOGRAPHIC: Please provide the following information for demographic purposes.

I am a Mary Kay Consultant I am not a Mary Kay consultant

AGE RANGE

18 - 20 21 - 29 30 - 39 40 - 49 50 - 59 60 - 69 70 - 79 80+

MY YEARLY INCOME LEVEL

0 - 19,000 20,000 - 40,000 41,000 - 60,000 61,000 - 80,000
 81,000 - 100,000 101,000 - 200,000 Over 201,000

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (CHOOSE THE HIGHEST LEVEL COMPLETED)

Vocational School High School Associates Degree Bachelor
 Masters Specialist Degree Doctorate Other (specify) _____

EMPLOYMENT FIELD (CHOOSE ONE)

Technology Education Service Business Clerical Home-Based Medicine
 Unemployed Other (specify) _____

RACE (CHOOSE ONE)

European Hispanic Caucasian Asian West Indian African American
 Other (specify) _____

MARITAL STATUS (CHOOSE ONE)

Married Living Together Single Widowed Divorced

The next section contains two personality and two behavior clusters. Choose by circling **only one cluster** from section A and **only one cluster** from section B. Circle the cluster that best describes you.

Section A (Circle only one cluster from section A)	(1) Stand up under pressure Competitive Independent	(2) Kind Emotional Gentle
Section B (Circle only one cluster from section B)	(3) Does household chores Cooks the meals	(4) Financial provider Takes initiatives with opposite sex

TYPES OF WOMAN ON WOMAN ABUSE/MISTREATMENT					
Do you believe that if a woman does any of the following to another woman it is considered abuse?					
Use this key to complete all the sections on this page. =>				1 = definitely no 2 = maybe no 3 = I do not know 4 = maybe yes 5 = definitely yes	
1. Manipulating easy going women	1	2	3	4	5
2. Refusing to acknowledge her presence	1	2	3	4	5
3. Disliking her for being confident	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sleeping with her husband	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sleeping with her husband to hurt her	1	2	3	4	5
6. Ignoring her because of her appearance	1	2	3	4	5
7. Gossiping to ruin her reputation	1	2	3	4	5
8. Not associating with her because of social status	1	2	3	4	5
9. Betraying her	1	2	3	4	5
10. Withdrawing affection from her	1	2	3	4	5
11. Humiliating her	1	2	3	4	5
12. Giving her unsolicited opinions	1	2	3	4	5
13. Giving her hurtful messages	1	2	3	4	5
14. Destroying her self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5
15. Keeping her at a distance	1	2	3	4	5
16. Interfering with or destroying her work	1	2	3	4	5
17. Failing to support her efforts	1	2	3	4	5
18. Avoiding her because of her friends	1	2	3	4	5
19. Interfering with her spiritual growth	1	2	3	4	5
20. Yelling at her	1	2	3	4	5
Do you believe that any of the following causes a woman to abuse another woman? Use the above scale.					
21. Anger	1	2	3	4	5
22. Jealousy	1	2	3	4	5
23. Control	1	2	3	4	5
24. Insecurity	1	2	3	4	5
Please share your personal experience with abuse. Use the above scale.					
25. Have you ever been abused by a woman?	1	2	3	4	5
26. Have you ever abused another woman?	1	2	3	4	5
You may include any comment you have in this space here.					

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REFERENCE LIST

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