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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

DATING VIOLENCE PREVENTION THROUGH A CHANGE IN GENDER NORMS

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

BY

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CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
GLOSSARY	vii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS	28
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS	38
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION	49
REFERENCE LIST	77
VITA	86

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Demographic & School-Level Variables	39
Table 2. Demographic & School-Level Variables: Experimental vs. Wait-List Control	40
Table 3. Attitudes Towards Women Scale Scores at Three Stages, Arranged by Gender	42
Table 4. Attitudes Towards Women Scale Scores at Three Stages: For Those Who Completed the Program	44
Table 5. Scores for ATWS Immediately Following Program: Adjusted and Unadjusted	45
Table 6. Scores for ATWS at 1-Months Post: Adjusted and Unadjusted	46

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Relationship Status of Participants	41
Figure 2. Participants' Ethnicity	41
Figure 3. Average ATWS Scores over Time, Arranged by Gender	43

GLOSSARY

In order in which they appear in the document.

Dating relationship - Frequent, intimate associations primarily characterized by the expectation of affectional or sexual involvement, but does not include a casual relationship or an ordinary association between persons in a business or social context (Nebraska Law, 2013).

Dating violence - A pattern of physical, sexual and/or emotionally abusive behaviors used to exert power and control over a dating partner (Reed, Raj, Miller, Silverman, 2010)

Physical abuse - The use of physical force that is intended to cause harm to the other person. These behaviors include but are not limited to hitting, slapping, punching and choking (Teten et al., 2009; Library of Congress, 2011 & White, 2009).

Psychological or emotional abuse - The use of words to inflict psychological distress on their partner. These behaviors include but are not limited to name-calling, insults, limiting one's partner's time spent with friends and family (isolation) and controlling decision-making (Teten et al., 2009; Library of Congress, 2011 & White, 2009).

Sexual abuse - The use of physical or psychological coercion to control the sexual behaviors of their partner. These include but are not limited to using physical force to penetrate their partner, use of threats or behaviors that cause harm or may cause harm to the other person if they are unable to refuse and use of guilt to achieve intended results (Teten et al., 2009; Library of Congress, 2011 & White, 2009).

Gender norms - Social expectations of appropriate roles and behaviors for males and females (Barker, Ricardo, Nascimento, Olukoyo & Santos, 2010).

Stereotype - "A stereotype is a widely held, simplified, and essentialist belief about a specific group. Gender stereotypes reflect normative notions of femininities and masculinities, women and men.
(<http://genderedinnovations.stanford.edu/terms/stereotypes.html>).

Adolescence - Emerges at different times for different individuals but encompasses the age of 10-24 (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2013). It is the transition from childhood to adulthood through puberty.

Dosage - The amount of exposure of an activity.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Domestic Violence has typically been an issue assumed to be most relevant to adults. However, the percentage of youth involved in violent dating relationships is startling. Nationwide, nine percent of students have been hit or physically hurt on purpose by their boyfriend or girlfriend (Center for Disease Control, 2012). Eight percent of students have ever been physically forced to have sexual intercourse when they did not want to (CDC, 2012). Overall, the prevalence of having been forced to have sexual intercourse was higher among female (11.8%) than male (4.5%) students. Further, 20% of adolescents report having experienced psychological abuse. Between 11% and 41% of adolescents report using physical violence against their dating partner (Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009).

Dating violence rates among youth vary from state to state. However, Nebraska teens experience more dating violence than the national average. While 9 % (9.3% for females and 9.5%for males) of adolescents nationwide had been hit, slapped or physically hurt on purpose by their boyfriend or girlfriend (9th-12th grade), 11% of Nebraskan adolescents had been hit, slapped or physically hurt on purpose by their boyfriend or girlfriend (11.1 for females and 10.7 for males). Nationwide, 8.0% (11.8 for females and 4.5% for males) of students had ever been physically forced to have sexual intercourse when they did not want to while 10% of Nebraskan teens had ever been physically forced to have sexual intercourse when they did not want to (11.1 % of Nebraskan females and

5.3% of males) (CDC, 2012). There are inconsistent statistics concerning dating violence in adolescence due to the various definitions and measures used by researchers to assess violence. Nevertheless, 11% is a substantial number of adolescents experiencing dating violence. Dating violence in this investigation is defined as a pattern of physical, sexual and/or emotionally abusive behaviors used to exert power and control over a dating partner (Reed, Raj, Miller, Silverman, 2010). Further, the terms “adolescent dating violence” and “teen dating violence” are used interchangeably. Teens who are involved in a violent dating relationship in adolescence are more likely to be involved in a subsequent dating violence relationship. Further, experiencing dating violence in adolescence can put female and male teens at an increased risk for low self-esteem, substance abuse, sexual risk behavior, suicide and they are more likely to enter into another abusive relationship (Lewis & Fremouw, 2000). Additionally, victimized girls are more likely to use unhealthy weight control methods (Lewis & Fremouw, 2000). A five- year longitudinal study (Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode & Rothman, 2013), which compared adolescents who experienced dating violence to a comparison group of adolescents who had not experienced dating violence, found that female victims of teen dating violence experienced substance abuse, depressive symptoms and interpersonal violence as adults in greater percentages. The researchers found that males who experienced teen dating violence experienced increased antisocial behavior, suicidal ideation, substance abuse and adult interpersonal violence.

The negative impact of experiencing dating violence in adolescence endures into adulthood. Adolescents who experience dating violence are more likely to experience

partner violence in adulthood. Relational patterns set in adolescence are likely to influence adult relational patterns. Adult interpersonal violence has long been a significant public health problem. One in four women will experience domestic violence in their lifetimes. Eighty-five percent of all domestic violence victims are women. The effects of experiencing domestic violence are vast and include depression, eating disorders, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and suicide. The costs of domestic violence are not limited to the individual who experiences the violence, but to the nation as a whole. In the United States the cost of intimate partner violence exceeds \$5.8 billion each year, \$4.1 billion of which is for direct medical and mental health services. Victims of domestic violence lost 8 million days of paid work each year, because of the violence perpetrated against them by current or former husbands, boyfriends and dates. “This loss is the equivalent of more than 32,000 full-time jobs and almost 5.6 million days of household productivity as a result of violence (National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, 2013, p.1).”

The negative effects of experiencing interpersonal violence are vast. Given that the effects can be lifelong, prevention efforts to ameliorate the number of adolescents experiencing dating violence are crucial. Prevention efforts can reduce the incidences of dating violence and therefore reduce the physical, psychological and financial damage of interpersonal violence (Foshee & McNaughton Reyes, 2009; Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode & Rothman, 2013).

Adolescent/Teen Dating violence prevention programs have varied in length or dosage. Prevention programs have ranged from one session to twenty sessions. There is

little empirical research about the most effective number of sessions for prevention efforts to have the greatest impact, although there is evidence that a one session format does not have a lasting impact on dating violence (Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009). Even given the general consensus of the lack of effectiveness of one-session presentations, 35% of respondents in a survey study by Weisz and Black (2009) carried out their prevention programs in this format. The reason given by these investigators for only conducting one session was the constraints imposed on them by the schools. Schools are pressured to include in as much academic work as possible and to minimize any time considered to be non-academic. Researchers often find it difficult to persuade school administrators and teachers to allow them more than one session to provide programming to students. (Weisz & Black, 2009).

Although a one- session format does not seem to provide lasting effects, there may be some evidence that three sessions of treatment may be associated with positive effects. For example, Jaycox and colleagues (2006) conducted a three-session curriculum and showed changes in altering norms and behaviors regarding dating violence. Lavoie, Vezina, Piche and Boivin (1995) evaluated the effects of short-term (i.e., 2 sessions) versus longer-term (i.e., 4 sessions) dating violence prevention programs. The results showed no differences between the long and short-term programs. Both groups showed improvement from pre -to post-test in their attitudes and knowledge about dating violence.

Along with time constraints, there are many financial constraints on schools and prevention researchers. Long-term prevention programs cost more money than short-term

programs. Many prevention programs are provided by local domestic violence crisis centers. These non-profit agencies have very little resources to spend on prevention. There is a strong need for short-term effective prevention programs. An economic evaluation of a dating violence prevention program's cost-effectiveness is measured per injury prevented or cost per life saved and subsequent cost of dating violence. A few researchers have conducted an economic evaluation of dating violence programs. Life Skills Training (Botvin & Griffin, 2004), a program aimed at preventing youth violence by teaching social and emotional coping skills, saves \$42.13 on future costs of violence for every dollar spent on the prevention program. The Nebraska developed curriculum, Reaching and Teaching Teens, costs twenty dollars. This program has yet to be evaluated for cost-effectiveness (SAMSHA, 2013).

Nebraska schools, as well as many nationwide schools, are not able to provide much time for prevention programs due to the constraints placed on them to limit non-academic time. However, Nebraska is one of the several states that have adopted the Lindsay Ann Burke Act. This law requires Nebraska schools to provide education to teachers and students about dating violence (Nebraska Department of Education, 2010). The Nebraska based curriculum, Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum consists of 5 units. One of these units specifically addresses stereotypical gender norms. This unit's suggested length is from one to three sessions. A three-session format provides a thorough program that focuses on defining, exploring gender norms and preventing violence concerning gender norms (NDVSAC, 2011). The three sessions are formatted for a 40-minute lesson that can be implemented independently or in conjunction with

other lessons (NDVSAC, 2011). Reaching and Teaching Teens has been used widely throughout the state of Nebraska (Zinke personal communication, July 2013) but with little formal evaluation. If shown to be effective, a three session dating violence prevention program would meet the needs of the schools as required by the Lindsay Ann Burke Act. However, determining what content is critical in such a short term prevention approach to dating violence is very important given limited time and resources. Considering past research on the content of existing prevention programs as well as the developmental needs of adolescents related to dating are important considerations related to this issue.

Adolescence is a developmental time during which peers become extremely important and interests in dating relationships emerge. Romantic relationships influence “sexuality, intimacy and identity development; provide social support, influence secure attachment; facilitate partner sorting and selecting and influence transformations in family and peer relationships (Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009, p.141).” Further, during adolescence, gender differences become more pronounced and adolescents rigidly follow gender norms (Alfieri, Ruble, & Higgins, 1996). “Gender norms” are defined as social expectations of appropriate roles and behaviors for males and females (Barker, Ricardo, Nascimento, Olukoyo & Santos, 2010). Gender norms that promote male dominance and control lead to greater violence against females and deleterious health effects for males (Reed, Raj, Miller & Silverman, 2010). A strict adherence to female gender roles is associated with a greater likelihood to be in an abusive relationship and a greater length of time to leave an abusive relationship (Molidar & Tollman, 1998).

Violence prevention programs that have a focus on gender norms have been successful (Foshee, 2005 & Barker et al, 2010) The combination of a strict adherence to gender norms, great likelihood of entering into a dating relationship and high rate of adolescent dating violence make adolescence an ideal time to provide education and prevention. Flexibility in gender norms in adolescence can provide an adolescent with better communication skills, which is essential for healthy relationships (Sullivan et. al, 2010).

Prevention efforts also need to be appropriately timed to take place when the topic is relevant to the population and before the problem sets in. Dating violence peaks at age 16 (Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009). It would be most beneficial to enlist prevention programs before this age. Nebraskan children and teens from ages 11-17 have a higher rate of dating violence than the national average (11% Nebraska vs. 9% national). Ages 11-17 are a crucial time in adolescents' lives where they are developing interests in dating relationships. Dating violence prevention programs need to be implemented to minimize the detrimental effects of abuse. Prevention efforts should be implemented with youth ages 11-17 due to the high prevalence of abuse in this population of Nebraska youth.

Purpose

Short-term gender norm focused prevention programs may hold great promise for Nebraskan youth. These prevention efforts could contribute to the amelioration of the devastating effects of dating violence in adolescence and into adulthood (Foshee, 1996). In this study this researcher attempted to determine if a three session gender norms module which is part of the larger Reaching and Teaching Teens intervention was

capable of modifying gender role beliefs. In particular, the hypothesis was: (a) Participants in a 3-session Toxic Scripts intervention would demonstrate greater average stereotypical gender norms attitude change than participants in a delayed treatment control group, and (b) Differences would be maintained over a one-month post-treatment period.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

“Gender norms or social expectations of appropriate roles and behaviors for males and females” (Barker, Ricardo, Nascimento, Olukoyo & Santos, 2010, p.539) have a strong influence on adolescent risky behavior. Extensive research on adolescent risky behaviors has shown the role that gender role norms play; in particular, attitudes accepting of traditional gender role stereotypes. Conforming to traditional masculine stereotypes, whether one is male or female, is associated with an general increase in risk taking, including driving without a seat belt (Raithal, 2003; Graine, 2009), drinking alcohol (Schulte, Ramo & Brown, 2009), substance abuse (Schulte, Ramo & Brown, 2009; Barker et. al., 2010) and being arrested (Pulwerwitz & Barker, 2008). Further, the adherence to the traditional gender role or stereotype is associated with a higher risk of HIV and other STIs (Pulerwitz, Michaelis Verma & Weiss, 2010). Prevention efforts for adolescent risky behavior have a long history, which began with targeting individual risk factors for these behaviors but progressed to taking a broader approach to prevention incorporating the influences of the cultural and social contexts. Adolescent substance abuse prevention programs have recognized the importance that social norms including gender role norms play in attitudes and behaviors recommending that a change in beliefs about social norms as a crucial element for prevention programs (Flay, 2000; Flay & Allred, 2001).

Prevention efforts for adolescent dating violence are relatively new and behind the trajectory of prevention efforts of other adolescent risk behaviors. The majority of the prevention programs have targeted individual risk factors in order to prevent dating violence (e.g. child abuse, antisocial behavior, delinquency, attitudes accepting of dating violence) (Foshee & McNaughton Reyes, 2009). These prevention efforts were rarely systematically evaluated but rather were evaluated through unstandardized assessments and anecdotal feedback (Weisz & Black, 2009). Currently, only three dating violence prevention programs have been rigorously evaluated; Safe Dates (Foshee, Bauman, et al's, 2006; Foshee et al., 1998, 2000, 2004), The Youth Relationship Project (Wolfe et al., 2003) and Ending Violence (Jaycox, 2006). Results from these evaluations showed "theoretically or empirically based mediators of program effects based on program goals (Foshee & McNaughton Reyes, 2009 p. 153)." Consistent with prevention for other adolescent risky behaviors a theoretically based mediator is the role that attitudes accepting of the traditional or stereotypical gender roles play in dating violence. Males who adhere to stereotypical male gender norms are more likely to use abusive behavior against women (Eisler et al., 2000; Parrot & Zeichner, 2003; Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell, 1998; Robinson & Schwartz, 2004; Schwartz, Merta, Waldo, & Bloom-Langell, 1998). Gender norms that promote male dominance and control lead to greater violence against females and deleterious health effects for males (Reed, Raj, Miller & Silverman, 2010). A strict adherence to female gender roles is associated with a greater likelihood to be in an abusive relationship and a greater length of time to leave an abusive relationship (Molidar & Tollman, 1998.)

The influence of stereotypical gender role norms is consistent with adult research on interpersonal violence (Jewkes, 2002). The role of stereotypical gender role norms in adult interpersonal violence research has been discussed thoroughly. Specific gender role beliefs have found to rationalize abuse against women. Beliefs based on “male privilege and entitlement and the instrumental use of aggression to obtain dominance and control are directly related to intimate violence (Schwartz, Kelley & Kohli, 2012, p. 1963).”

Boys and girls learn these beliefs through the familial and societal messages communicated to them. Boys and girls learn to act in a way that is consistent with their gender. Norms, values and beliefs about what it means to be female or male are communicated to boys and girls through a social structure that reinforces male entitlement and superiority and female subordination (Pleck, Sonenstein & Ku, 1993 & Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Finn, 1986; Schwartz, Kelley & Kohli, 2012).

In adolescence, gender-role norms become increasingly important and rigid. Adolescents are learning appropriate behaviors for developing healthy romantic relationships. These early relationships can influence future ideas of appropriate gendered behavior in romantic relationships. Experiencing dating violence can interfere with developing a healthy view of dating relationships. Therefore, learning to challenge traditional stereotypical gender-role norms can prevent adolescents from entering in or staying in an abusive relationship.

The importance of education about stereotypical gender norms and a need for change in attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms cannot be understated in violence prevention. A few dating violence prevention programs have addressed gender

role norms in their curriculum; Safe Dates (Foshee et al., 2006; Foshee et al., 1998, 2000, 2004), The Youth Relationship Project (Wolfe et al., 2003), Ending Violence (Jaycox et al., 2006) and Reaching and Teaching Teens (NDVSAC, 1996, 2011). The Safe Dates, Ending Violence and Reaching and Teaching Teens prevention programs were school-based and focused on primary prevention. The Youth Relationship Project is a community-based indicated prevention program for youth who are more likely to perpetrate dating violence.) These prevention programs will be discussed in the subsequent sections. For each program, the following will be discussed; the theory and mechanisms through which each program hypothesizes to create outcomes, the participants, the methodology, and how the program addresses gender role norms.

Safe Dates

The Safe Dates program is the most widely disseminated prevention program for dating violence. This program targets behavioral outcomes through theoretically based mediating variables (Foshee et al., 2005). “The Safe Dates program seeks to reduce dating violence among participants by changing attitudes that condone partner violence and promote gender stereotyping, building conflict management skills and increasing knowledge about community resources (Foshee et al., 1998, p. 45).” These outcomes are achieved through a ten-session interactive curriculum. Each session is approximately forty-five minutes. The sessions include information on dating violence, caring relationships, how to help a friend in an abusive relationship, gender stereotypes and recognizing and dealing with feelings. The curriculum also includes a poster contest and a thematic play about dating abuse.

Safe Dates curriculum works through a change in norms and learning conflict management skills. Norms are “instruments of social control and thus have a significant effect on behavior and conformity (Foshee et al., 2005, p.247).” An individual’s likelihood to engage in a behavior is dictated by the perceived consequences of the behavior and what those who are important to them would think of them (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Mizruchi & Perrucci, 1962; Solomon & Harford, 1984).

Norms that are accepting of dating violence and of traditional gender role norms are changed through an increase in awareness of the negative consequences of dating violence and enlisting appropriate peer responses to dating violence. Safe Dates outcomes are also achieved through learning skills. Violence is often used when faulty negotiating techniques are used that leave a conflict unresolved. Through the Safe Dates curriculum, youth learn adaptive conflict management skills to avoid using violence to communicate (Lloyd, 1987). Safe Dates was implemented in North Carolina with 14 public schools. The participants were stratified by grade (8th and 9th grade) and matched on school size. One member of each matched pair was randomly assigned to the program group, which consisted of 955 students, or the control group, which consisted of 1,010 students. The sample consisted of, 77% European Americans and 19% African Americans and 51% were females. Pre-tests were given before the program and again one-month, one year, two years, three years and four years after the program was completed. The measures assessed specific physical, psychological and sexually abusive behaviors. The mediating variables; dating violence norms, gender role norms, conflict management skills and awareness of services were assessed. Dating violence norms and

gender stereotyping were measured through questions that asked how strongly participants agreed or disagreed with certain statements (e.g. “A girl who makes her boyfriend jealous on purpose deserves to be hit”; “In a dating relationship, the boy should be smarter than the girl”). Conflict management skills were assessed by asking how often participants used these skills in the last six months (e.g. “I told the person how I felt”). Belief in the need for help was assessed by how strongly participants agreed or disagreed with statements (e.g. “Teens who are victims of dating violence need to get help from others.”) and asking if participants were aware of services for dating violence (yes or no).

Adolescents in the Safe Dates prevention curriculum group reported less psychological, moderate physical and sexual dating violence perpetrations and less moderate physical dating violence victimization at all four follow-up periods compared with the control group who did not have the Safe Dates curriculum. Further, those participants in the Safe Dates group reported less acceptance of prescribed dating violence norms, less acceptance of traditional gender norms, and greater belief in need for help (Foshee et. al., 2005).

Safe Dates is a well-established prevention program for adolescent dating violence, but the implementation of the program is costly. One of the major obstacles to actually implementing a prevention program is the lack of time in schools and the lack of resources. The Safe Dates program costs two hundred and twenty five dollars for the curriculum. This does not include the cost of training staff and implementing certain components of the program such as a poster contest and theatrical play. The publisher of

Safe Dates, Hazelden, offers a one-day training for staff that costs \$2,200 plus travel expenses (Hazelden, 2013 via web). Thus, for many schools, implementing the program with trained staff can be cost-prohibitive.

The Youth Relationships Project

Another program that has shown promising results from evaluations is The Youth Relationships Project (YRP). This program is the only program evaluated for effectiveness for at-risk adolescents (Wolfe et. al, 2003). The at-risk adolescents identified for participation in the prevention program were adolescents who had a history of abuse and maltreatment by their caregivers. These adolescents were referred from Canadian Child Protective Services as the study was conducted in Canada. The YRP is based on the theory of intergenerational violence (Cornelius & Resseguie, 2006) in which maltreated children learn this abusive behavior from the behavior of their caregivers. Social learning takes place by children watching the style of relationships their abusive parents have and these representations/models are taken with them and re-played in their dating relationships. The Youth Relationship Project sought to educate adolescents about relationship abuse and power dynamics, build skills and increase social action. The curriculum consisted of eighteen two-hour sessions that were interactive in nature through guest speakers, role-playing and field trips. The education and awareness component focused on the power imbalance in unhealthy relationships and awareness of one's own power. This education is based on the Duluth model of adult domestic violence (Pence & Shepard, 1999), where power and control are seen as the drivers of abuse. The skill-building component aided youth in developing healthy communication

skills such as listening, empathy, and assertiveness. The social action component included education about resources in the community, visiting a local social service agency and fundraising for community needs. The group was co-facilitated by a female and male. This gender dynamic was implemented in order to model healthy effective communication between the two genders to the participants.

The program evaluation research consisted of 158 adolescents who were randomly assigned to either the prevention group (n=96) or a control group (n=62). Data was collected at baseline, four months after the prevention program began, after the program ended and then again every other month for a total of seven data collection periods.

The majority of the participants were Caucasian (85%) while 8% were First Nation, 4% Asian and 4% African Canadian. The program's effectiveness was assessed by contacting the adolescents twice a month. If a participant indicated that he or she was involved in a dating relationship the participant would complete a questionnaire about dating violence. All youth were assessed sixteen months after the program ended. Participants in the prevention program showed significant reduction compared to the control group over time in physical dating abuse perpetration, emotional dating abuse victimization and victimization from threatening behaviors. The prevention group compared to the control group did not show a reduction in emotional abuse perpetration, threatening behaviors toward dates or physical dating abuse victimization. The program was more effective for boys than girls in reducing victimization from physical abuse.

This study was more inclusive in their definition of dating violence, including more than just physical abuse. They included emotional abuse and threatening behaviors as different categories of abuse. Youth Relationships Project was designed to change behavior through mediating variables. However, Wolfe et al. (2003) did not assess many of these mediators in their analysis. The prevention program was hypothesized to “increase knowledge about dating violence, alter attitudes towards dating abuse, increase understanding of power dynamics in relationships, and improve various communication and problem solving skills” (Wolfe et al., 2003, p. 282). Wolfe et al. (2003) only assessed the effects of three of these hypothesized mediators. The prevention program was associated with a reduction in trauma symptoms and had no effect on problem solving skills and hostility. The process through which the intervention is expected to lead to changes in outcomes is not fully known because a thorough analysis of all the mediators was not completed.

This study showed some promising results but limited generalizability because the sample selected were all youth who had been maltreated. These results may not be transferable to youth who have not experienced abuse. The program was also more effective for males than females in reducing victimization from physical abuse. There is disagreement in the dating violence literature about whom experiences dating violence more, males or females (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Reed 2008; White, 2009 & Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009). Some studies estimate that boys and girls experience dating violence equally while other studies have girls perpetrating more abuse and some have boys perpetrating more abuse. The difference in statistics is due to the measurement

used. When the questions are asked within a context of self-defense, more girls state they use violence as a means to defend themselves from abuse. Although researchers cannot agree on the validity of perpetration and victimization statistics, statistics show that girls experience more serious injuries and deaths due to dating violence than boys (Reed 2008; White, 2009). Therefore, programs need to be equally effective program for boys and girls in order to reduce the number of dating violence injuries and deaths (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Reed 2008; White, 2009 & Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009).

The Youth Relationships Project's eighteen-session format for a teen prevention program is an extensive time commitment for the youth, their caregivers and the prevention workers. A longer length of the sessions increases the cost of the prevention program. Nebraska schools only require a few days for dating violence education. An eighteen-session format would be costly and difficult to implement given the length and time commitment. Results from the YRP program show that attending more sessions did not increase the level of change in the participants. Participants who attended more sessions did not differ from participants who did not attend all sessions. The process through which the program is hypothesized to lead to suggested outcomes is through an increase in understanding of power dynamics in relationships and an increased awareness of gender stereotypes. This is consistent with research from the Safe Dates program, where awareness of gender stereotyping was shown to be a mediator between the program and the outcomes. Awareness of power dynamics in a relationship has shown to change intimate partner violence in adults. Gaining awareness of the power and control utilized in abusive relationships has shown to decrease adult intimate partner violence

both on perpetration and victimization (Pence & Shepard, 1999). Wolfe and associates (2003) did not measure participants' attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms; therefore it is impossible to ascertain if education about gender norms produced any of the changes they reported.

The YRP was carried out in the community rather than a school. This is a promising approach because schools are difficult to access and it is difficult to commit students for an extended period of time for non-academic activities. Community centers and domestic violence crisis centers are great places to hold prevention programs because there are fewer restrictions placed on the researchers. Domestic violence crisis centers have the knowledgeable staff and resources that would be able to teach and implement prevention programs effectively (Weisz & Black, 2009).

Ending Violence

The Ending Violence prevention program was developed by the organization, Break the Cycle. Ending Violence focuses on preventing dating violence among Latino teens. This curriculum was created because there is a lack of dating violence prevention programs that focus on ethnic minorities. The program is based on Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1973 & 1977) which theorizes that youth who witness or experience domestic violence in their home will learn that violence is an acceptable way to solve conflicts in their lives and transfer this to dating relationships. Further, media and cultural factors can teach children that violence is an acceptable way to deal with conflict in a relationship (Jaycox et. al., 2006).

The Ending Violence curriculum sought to “alter knowledge and norms about dating abuse, increase favorable attitudes for seeking help for dating violence and decrease dating abuse perpetration and victimization (Jaycox et al., 2006, p.694).” The program was designed to achieve these goals through altering participants’ family, peer and cultural norms by role modeling acceptable alternatives to violence for solving conflict. This was conducted through teacher education and role modeling. The Ending Violence program focused on Latino youths, many who were immigrants. Cultural norms of the United States and the cultural norms from their culture of origin were discussed. Teachers, who are all attorneys, modeled that violence is common but not acceptable. This was done by providing information about individual rights, in particular, laws that punish perpetrators of violence and legal resources and measures victims of dating violence can use to protect and empower themselves. Further, youth act out a court procedure that enables them to gain knowledge of laws in action as well as provide them with assertive help-seeking behavior. Lastly, the program included a peer leadership program where participants were educated and empowered to speak publicly in their high schools and colleges about dating abuse. An aspect of the peer leadership program also included a barter program where youth could volunteer with Break the Cycle agencies for free legal services. (Jaycox et al., 2006).

Bilingual teachers and attorneys administered the program over three sessions. Eleven schools in Los Angeles were randomly assigned to the prevention program group or a standard health curriculum. There were 2540 students who participated with 80% of the students identifying as Latino. A pre- and post-test were given as well as a follow-up

test six months after the program was completed. The results showed that the program had significant effects in increasing student knowledge about laws related to dating violence, decreasing accepting attitudes about female-on-male violence, and increasing the likelihood of seeking help immediately following the program but faded after six months. The only intervention effects that lasted after six months were knowledge about dating violence laws and the usefulness of seeking help from an attorney for dating violence. There was no difference between treatment and control groups in acceptance of male-to-female violence, abusive dating experiences, dating violence perpetration and victimization. An interesting finding in this study was that attitudes accepting of female-on-male violence changed (their attitudes became less accepting of female-on-male violence) due to the program but attitudes accepting of male-on-female violence did not change. The authors stated that the reason for this might be because male-on-female violence was already viewed as strongly negative while female-on-male violence was not viewed as negative (Jaycox et al., 2006).

The results of this evaluation indicate that Ending Violence had limited success. A thorough analysis was not completed on many of the program components that were hypothesized to lead to suggested outcomes. “Only student knowledge about attorneys, proclivity to seek help and perceived helpfulness of these professionals showed lasting changes in this program (Jaycox et al., 2006, p.703).” The program focused a majority of the time on the legal rights of individuals involved in dating violence and resources they could obtain. The program briefly discussed cultural norms that promote violence but did not spend a great deal of time on this issue and did not specify stereotypical gender norms

as one of the factors of dating violence. Attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms have been associated with dating violence (Eisler et al., 2000; Parrot & Zeichner, 2003; Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell, 1998; Robinson & Schwartz, 2004; Schwartz, Merta, Waldo, & Bloom-Langell, 1998). A curriculum, which focuses solely on the consequences of dating violence, does not address the underlying social norms.

Ending Violence curriculum did a good job in enlisting culturally competent professionals for an advisory board. The advisory board consisted of mental health professionals, doctors, social workers and teens, all of who had experience and knowledge working with Latino youth and understood the needs and realities of the culture. Jaycox, Arronoff and Shelley (2006) worked with the advisory board to make the curriculum as culturally appropriate as possible for Latino youth. Many authors of prevention programs are advised to reach out to the needs of the population to which they want to serve, but few do. Enlisting the population that you want to study into the creation of the curriculum allows for greater utilization rates and the likelihood of resonating and changing attitudes (Creswell, 2013).

Reaching and Teaching Teens

Reaching and Teaching Teen curriculum was developed by the Nebraska Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Coalition (NDVSAC, 2011) in response to the higher than national rate of dating violence in Nebraska youth. This program was developed using a combination of the Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) Feminist Theory (Walker, 1990) and Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1973) (Zinke personal communication, July, 2012).

Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), states that an individual does not exist in isolation but rather is influenced by the systems in one's environment. These include familial, cultural, societal, economic and political systems. An individual is influenced by one's environment and influences one's environment. The curriculum addresses the many systems that influence and contribute to dating violence. These include family history of domestic violence, cultural norms, societal norms laws and policies protecting adolescent victims of dating violence (NDVSAC, 2011). Social Learning Theory is demonstrated in the curriculum by addressing the influence that society, family and peers have on an adolescent's behavior. Social Learning Theory, (Bandura, 1973) when used to describe violence, describes the process of learning violent attitudes and behaviors. Children who witness violence learn that this is the acceptable way to solve conflicts. Children learn the functional nature of violence as an acceptable way to express themselves, to solve and to control and dominate another person. Images of violent relationships in the media) are frequent in society and desensitize individuals to violence, especially children who have been victims or have witnessed relationship violent at home. These children learn the violent behaviors in their homes and then it is reinforced by the violent images they see in the media. The violent sexual relationships portrayed are very appealing to youth who know little about relationships and see this violence as normative behavior in a relationship. The violent behavior becomes a means to solve conflict and meet the adolescent's need to be accepted. (Werkerle & Wolfe, 1999).

Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum also incorporates Feminist Theory. Feminist theory of violence views the social context within which individual acts of violence occur. Violence against women occurs within patriarchal societies. Patriarchal societies reinforce male entitlement and superiority. Violence is used to maintain power and control over another person. Intimate partner violence is patterned along gendered lines where females are the majority of the victims. Feminist efforts to combat violence against women are aimed at awareness of the social environment that reinforces male entitlement and superiority and women's oppression. This awareness and knowledge is transferred to empowerment of women. Empowerment is used to take back control of one's environment and to advocate for change (Hunnicutt, 2009).

The authors' goals for the Reaching and Teaching Teens program are to increase awareness about dating violence, increase knowledge about the effects of dating violence, increase knowledge of the services for victims of dating violence, decrease attitudes accepting of dating abuse, decrease dating abuse, change attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms and empower youth to speak out against abuse (NDVSAC, 2011). The curriculum includes information about knowledge, attitudes and behaviors. The authors included all three variables due to the complex relationship between knowledge and attitudes with actual behavior (Weisz & Black, 2001). Knowledge, attitudes and social norms all influence behavior. The rationale for changing attitudes is that it sheds light onto likely future behavior (Kahle, 1984). In particular, changing attitudes about stereotypical gender norms can influence dating violence behavior (NDVSAC, 2011).

Reaching and Teaching Teens is designed for youth in grades 6-12. The curriculum consists of 5 units; Sticks and Stones: Sexual Harassment; Every 8 Seconds: Sexual Assault, When Flowers Don't Fix It: Dating Relationships and Toxic Scripts: Gender Violence. The curriculum combines lesson plans, activities, role-plays, teen survivors' experiences and suggested resources. The curriculum units can be presented individually or in combination with any unit. Each unit contains goals and objectives and sample lesson plans for various time amounts.

The unit that specifically addresses stereotypical gender norms is Unit 5: Toxic Scripts. This unit's suggested length is from one to three sessions. A three-session format provides a thorough program that focuses on defining, exploring gender norms and preventing violence concerning gender norms (NDVSAC, 2011). The three sessions are formatted for a 40-minute lesson that can be implemented independently or in conjunction with other lessons (NDVSAC, 2011). The goals of this unit are to increase awareness of gender norms, knowledge of gender norms and decrease attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms and increase gender flexibility.

Reaching and Teaching Teens has been used widely throughout the state of Nebraska (Zinke personal communication, July 2013) but with little evaluation. To date there is only one published evaluation of the curriculum. This was completed in a predominantly African American (99%) middle school population in Detroit Michigan. Weisz & Black (2001) chose the curriculum for its thorough attention to dating violence, gender norms and the culture sensitivity of the program. The curriculum was conducted in twelve, one and one half hour sessions over a six-week time period. Two hundred and

fifty students participated in the study; half to the intervention and the other half was used as a wait-list control group. The program was conducted after school by facilitators from the local sexual assault and domestic violence crisis center. Participants were given questionnaires at the start of the intervention; right after the intervention was completed and six-months after the intervention had ended. The questionnaires were used to measure participants' knowledge, attitudes and behaviors. Knowledge of sexual assault and dating violence increased at the end of the program and was maintained at six-month follow-up as well as an improvement in attitudes of sexual assault and dating violence (decreased acceptance of dating violence and sexual assault). Actual behavioral data were not collected. A limited amount of feedback was received from the participants about what aspects of the program were most helpful. The authors of the evaluation did not conduct a mediation analysis to see what aspects of the program may have led to a lasting change in the participants (Weisz & Black, 2001).

The Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum is unique in its theoretical basis. Feminist theory is one of the central theories used in the creation of the curriculum. Prevention programs for adolescent dating violence have largely ignored the gendered nature of violence. Many adolescent dating violence prevention programs report that girls and boys use violence at equal rates. This belief comes from the use of no contextual measures where "respondents are asked to report on violence that ranges from slapping each other to using a lethal weapon." (Hunicutt, 2009, p. 557) The weaknesses of these measures are that do not take into account the social environment within which these acts occur. When the social context is taken into account, women often report using violence

in self-defense and men use more lethal methods of violence (Dobash & Dobash, 1992; Dobash & Dobash 2004).

A weakness of the Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum is that it has not been extensively evaluated even though it is used widely throughout the state of Nebraska. Further research needs to be completed on the effectiveness of the curriculum.

Limits of Prevention Programs

The four programs aforementioned have shown some promising results for the prevention of adolescent dating violence but further research needs to be completed. Attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender role norms are associated with many adolescent risky behaviors including dating violence. Gender norms should be viewed through a Feminist lens. Feminist theories have explained violence against women for many years (Hunnicutt, 2009). Violence occurs along gendered lines and ignoring this reality is ignoring that “acts of violence against women are embedded in a larger social organization (Hunnicutt, 2009, p. 556).” This is underscored in an article by Barker, Ricardo, Nascimento, Olukoya and Santos (2010) in which they reviewed 54 evaluation studies of programs with men and boys for prevention and interventions in reducing violence against women and HIV. Barker et al. (2010) found that programs that use a gendered framework in their programs are more effective in producing behavior change.

Further evaluation studies of the programs in existence need to be conducted. Safe Dates is the only program in which the authors conducted a mediation analysis to find the process through which the program worked. One of the mediators was through a change in attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms. The Youth Relationship Project

prevention program suggested that education about stereotypical gender norms would lead to a change in dating violence behavior but the authors did not conduct a mediation analysis to test their hypothesis. The Ending Violence program hypothesized that one way through which their program would work was through a change in cultural and societal norms accepting of violence. The authors did not conduct a mediation analysis of their hypothesis and the education about cultural and societal norms accepting of violence did not specifically include information about stereotypical gender norms (Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009). The Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum uses a Feminist framework for prevention efforts including education about gender norms. There has been only one program evaluation completed in which participants' attitudes about stereotypical gender roles were not assessed. Further research concerning the effectiveness of addressing gender role norms in dating violence prevention needs to be completed.

Prevention programs need to be short term in order to encourage schools and community centers to use the program. Nebraska schools are required by the Lindsay Ann Burke Act (Nebraska Department of Education 2010) to provide dating violence education, but this education usually comes in the format of a one to three day informative session by a staff of the local domestic violence shelter. A study by Weisz and Black (2009) indicated that 35% of participants carried out their prevention programs in a one-session format. The main reason for this chosen format was due to schools placing constraints on time spent with students. The No Child Left Behind Act (2002) stressed the importance of academic performance. Although, this is no longer the law of

the land, schools still implement and emphasize yearly testing of student knowledge. This attention to testing is often to the detriment of attending to social and emotional needs. When budgets are squeezed the first thing to go is counselors and interventionists. Legislators fail to make the connection between emotional health and academic success (Weir, 2012). Further, a longer length of a prevention program is not essential for change. Short-term programs have showed promising results (Jaycox et. al., 2006; Lavoie, Vezina, Piche & Boivin, 1995). Further research is needed to find the optimal amount of sessions or the least number of sessions needed to produce change that cannot be furthered by more sessions.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to add to the dating violence prevention program field by implementing a dating violence prevention program that addresses stereotypical gender norms, that is appropriate for Nebraska youth and is short term. Specifically, the study addresses the following questions: (a) Do participants in a 3-session Toxic Scripts intervention demonstrate greater average stereotypical gender norms attitude change than participants in a delayed treatment control group, and (b) are differences maintained over a one-month post-treatment period.

Participants

A group of adolescents in grades 9-12 were recruited for this study. This grade range was selected because Nebraska has a higher than national rate of males and females in 9th through 12th grade who report experiencing dating violence within the last twelve months (CDC, 2012). Participants were adolescent at the Lighthouse, an after-school program in Lincoln, Nebraska.

Of importance in this study is the effectiveness of the Toxic Script lesson with adolescents in Nebraska. Nebraska is a conservative mostly rural state in the Midwest. Of the nearly 1.7 million individuals in Nebraska, 90% are White, 5.5% are Hispanic, 2% Asian 4% are African American, 1% are Native American and those reporting two or more races is 2% (Nebraska Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). This

researcher attempted to enlist a similar demographic makeup for the sample in this study. Among the entire sample, the participants were 34.8% Black/African/American, 26.1% more than one ethnicity, 17.4% White/Caucasian, 8.7% Asian/Pacific Islander, 4.3% Puerto Rican and 8.7% not reporting their ethnicity. The experimental group had 38.5% Black/African-American, 23.1% more than one ethnicity, 15.4% White/Caucasian, 7.7% Puerto Rican, 0% Asian/Pacific Islander and 15.4 did not report. The wait-list control group had 30% Black/African American, 30% more than one ethnicity, 20% White/Caucasian, 20% Asian/Pacific Islander, 0% Puerto Rican and 0% did not report.

The participants were originally planned to be matched in pairs based on age and then randomly assigned to either the treatment or wait-list control group. Dating violence increases with age and peaks at age 16 (Foshee, McNaughton-Reyes & Wyckoff, 2008). Matching the participants based on age would ensure that there were equal numbers of participants within each age range. This would control for the likelihood that this variable would affect the outcome measure. This could not be done due to the low sample size. This researcher had to place the participants in the group that fit best with their schedule.

A child assent form was used in order to explain the study to the participant and ensure that participants were willingly participating. This form stated that the adolescent's parents or legal guardian said that they could participate in the research project but the researcher would like the adolescent to also make the decision. The child could say yes or no. This helped control for the influence from the parent and/or legal guardian that the child may feel to complete the program.

Eligibility

The guidelines that were implemented in this study included any youth in 9th-12th grades.

Sample Size

In a meta-analysis of dating violence prevention programs among middle and high school students, the overall effect size for changing attitudes was .325 ($r = .325$) (Ting, S.R, 2009). This researcher expected a greater change among the treatment versus comparison participants therefore; this researcher used a directional, one-tail, t-test. This researcher set the alpha level at .05 ($p < 0.05$). To obtain an effect size of this magnitude, this researcher needed 60 participants total, 30 in each group, to obtain medium effect (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). This was likely unrealistic because of limited resources of this researcher. This researcher attempted to recruit as many participants as possible.

Recruitment

Fliers including information about the dating violence prevention program were posted around the Lighthouse. This researcher met with the Lighthouse staff many times to enlist their support for the study.

Design of Study

It is important for a clinical trial to have a control group to achieve increased internal validity so that causal inferences can be drawn about the effects of the program. This researcher attempted to recruit enough participants for both groups and use a random number table to assign participants to either treatment or wait-list control group

after matching participants by age. This could not be done due to the low sample size. This researcher had to place the participants in what group fit best with their schedule.

This researcher had a wait-list comparison group. The wait-list group and the treatment group were both assessed at the same time: pre-treatment, post-treatment and follow-up at one month. Dating violence prevention treatment effects usually are present at the end of the program, but sometimes fade at the follow-up assessment.

Wait-list control groups allowed this researcher to assure that the two groups were similar in regard to developmental changes and exposure to specific events. Further, it increased the likelihood of having changes in gender norms that are due to the Toxic Scripts lesson, rather than due to common threats to internal validity like history, maturation, testing, regression to the mean, and selection factors (e.g., age). The wait-list control group is ethical in this study because withholding treatment would be to the detriment of that group due to the high chances of participants in this age group who may have experienced dating violence.

Treatment Protocol

The Reaching and Teaching Teens protocol was written and developed by the Nebraska Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Coalition. The Toxic Script lesson was written to be anywhere from one to three sessions long. The program is somewhat flexible because it was developed to be used in both community centers and in schools. This researcher conducted the prevention lessons at the Lighthouse, which allowed for flexibility to make the lesson three sessions in length. In a school setting it is harder due to academic and regulation constraints in the local schools. Originally, an objective

observer was planned to be used to measure how well this researcher adhered to the treatment protocol (treatment fidelity). This data would have allowed this researcher to analyze the results to see if a difference in this researcher's level of adherence to the lesson affected the participant outcomes (e.g. lower scores on fidelity checklist could be associated with smaller changes in gender norm attitudes).

The program was three sessions long. Effective short-term (three sessions) dating violence prevention programs have been implemented by Jaycox and colleagues (2006). Due to developmental changes adolescents' attention span is relatively short (average middle school students attention span is 10-12 minutes (Strauch, 2003). A short program would more likely keep the participants' attention than a longer prevention lesson.

Measures

This researcher had participants fill out a demographic questionnaire. This questionnaire included questions regarding age, gender, ethnicity, school, grade level, family composition and sports/afterschool activities.

Among the adolescent dating violence prevention literature there is little consistency in what measures are used and what is actually being measured. Many of the programs simply use a few homemade questions to assess attitudes and behaviors. Other authors use instruments that only measure physical dating violence failing to account for emotional and sexual violence. Based on the recommendation from the Center for Disease Control Compendium of assessment tools for measuring violence-related attitudes, behaviors, and influences among youth, this researcher selected to use the instrument discussed below (Dahlberg, Toal, Swahn, & Behrens, 2005).

In order to measure the stereotypical gender norms the *Attitudes Towards Women Scale-Adolescent* was administered (Galambos, Petersen, Richards, & Gitelson, 1985; Dahlberg, L.L., Toal, S.B., Swahn, M., & Behrens, C.B., 2005). This instrument is used to measure gender stereotyping in 11-18 year olds. It was normed on adolescents in grades 6-12 from various geographic locations and socioeconomic backgrounds in the United States. Each question has four response options, ranging from "agree strongly" to "disagree strongly." The Cronbach alpha of the 15-item form has been found to be 0.89. According the Galambos (personal communication, December 1, 2012), caution should be taken in using this measure because girls are more sensitive to questions on these measures than boys.

This measure is suitable for use with ethnic minority participants because it has been used before in studies with diverse populations. Thomas and Hersen (2011) suggest that when choosing a measure for one's study one should make sure it is standardized and normed on the particular ethnic group in one's study. Further, participants were selected that are fluent in the English language to eliminate any wrong measurement due to the assessment not being linguistically appropriate. Great care was taken in interpreting the results because the definition of stereotypical gender norms may be Eurocentric. Different cultures may view gender norms differently than European Americans. For example, Hispanics are more likely to adhere to traditional gender roles. The adherence to these traditional gender roles should be interpreted through the lens of the Hispanic culture. Further, African American women tend to have less stereotypical gender role norms. These differences should be interpreted through a cultural lens and not viewed as

deficient because it differs from the European American view on gender roles (Sue & Sue, 2011).

Anticipated Ethical Issues

To minimize the general ethical concerns for research with this sensitive and vulnerable population, this researcher followed general regulations determined by the Institutional Review Board of Loyola University Chicago and the American Psychological Association. The participants were especially vulnerable populations because they are children. The legal age of consent in Nebraska is 19 years old. Anyone younger than that age must have their parents give consent in order for them to participate. What the child may want and what the parents may want may differ. Abiding by the ethical principal of autonomy, participants signed a written assent form agreement in order to participate (Thomas & Hersen, 2011). A child assent form is recommended for children age seven and above. A child assent form allowed the child to determine if they wanted to participate. If a child did not sign the assent form, this researcher did not include the child as a participant.

Confidentiality was discussed and reinforced throughout the research process with the participants and their parents. Participants were given alias names in order to protect their information. Additionally, all study material was seen only by myself and was kept locked in a private filing cabinet. Information concerning the limits of confidentiality was addressed with participants and their guardians. Participants were aware that confidentiality cannot be maintained if a child stated that they are a threat to themselves or others and/or if a participant disclosed that an adult is abusing them. This did not

occur in the study. If these circumstances, did occur this researcher would report it to Child Protective Services of Nebraska in abidance by the mandatory reporting law. Further, this researcher met with the participants and their guardians to stress that the prevention program will be most helpful if guardians allowed their children to participate with minimal interruptions (e.g. asking about specific information a child provides in the group). This researcher ensured that participants understood the limits of confidentiality by discussing this during the first session.

Participants received informed consents that were discussed with the participants on all pertinent information points as well as benefits and risks or discomforts one may encounter with participation in this study. There is much concern about participants' negative emotional reactions to participating in dating violence research. While this concern is warranted, studies have shown that participants report positive benefits from contributing to dating violence research including insight into one's life and personal relationships (Shorey, Cornelius Bell, 2011). The benefits of participating in dating violence research may outweigh the risks (Shorey, Cornelius Bell, 2011; Newman, Willard, Sinclair, and Kaloupek, 2001).

Although risks or discomforts appeared to be minimal, there were two considerations this researcher strived to be aware of and attempted to minimize while working with this population. These considerations were: 1) on occasion participants may experience temporary distress when discussing gender stereotypes and violence 2) due to the inevitable power differential between participant and researcher, the participant may have felt pressured to answer all assessment questions and disclose information they are

uncomfortable sharing. Specific ways used to counter these risks were; if a participant felt distressed at any time during the study, they had the right to skip the question or session, were encouraged to let this researcher know in order to provide them with resource information for their community's mental health clinic, or they could withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. Ultimately, this researcher attempted to utilize caution at all stages of the study to ensure the participants felt comfortable/safe and non-coerced.

Planned Data Collection

As suggested by Thomas and Hersen (2011) one should plan the organization of their data collection through a work plan. Adhering to this advice, this researcher had a three ring binder that was separated into sections of the study. Some of these sections included; a description of the study, a copy of the instruments, a codebook and a copy of the raw data (Thomas & Hersen, 2011). The codebook contained information about decisions to be made. For example, a protocol for when a participant skipped a question on the assessment or circled two responses.

This researcher verified the data entry for accuracy. To manage for mistakes that may be made, a sample of the participants' data was checked. This included the first two assessments, the middle two assessments and the last two assessments.

This researcher included in the data, participants who have completed the pre-test and post-test measures as well as having attended every prevention program session. This researcher tested whether attrition created a bias in the findings by conducting

independent *t*-tests comparing participants who completed the entire program and those participants that did not.

Plan of Data Analysis

The means and standard deviation, of the wait list control group and the treatment group on the pre-test, post-test and one-month after the prevention program (*Acceptance of Couple Violence Scale* and *Attitudes Towards Women Scale*) was analyzed via a one-tailed *t*-test. Further, post-hoc analyses were conducted to determine the influence of certain demographic variables.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter describes and summarizes the statistical analyses used to evaluate the research question and hypothesis established in the previous chapters. For review my research question is, if a three session gender norms module which is part of the larger Reaching and Teaching Teens (NDVSAC, 2011) intervention is capable of modifying gender role beliefs. My hypothesis is: (a) Participants in a 3-session Toxic Scripts intervention demonstrate greater average stereotypical gender norms attitude change than participants in a delayed treatment control group, and (b) Differences are maintained over a one-month post-treatment period.

Subsequent to the data screening process, this chapter reports the descriptive statistics for demographic variables, data preparation methods, and inferential tests conducted to test the hypothesis proposed above.

Descriptive Statistics

The preliminary dataset included 23 participants. A total of 14 (66.7%) were female and 7 (33.3%) were male; two participants did not complete the gender question on the demographics form. Ages ranged from 14-18 and the average age of participants was 15.4 years. Table 1 presents an overview of the key demographic and school-related variables. Missing items for these descriptive statistics are not included and as such, numbers do not always add to 23 due to not all participants completing the Attitudes Towards Women Scale (ATWS) at all data points (pre, post and 1-month follow-up).

Table 2 presents a summary of descriptive statistics, arranged by waitlist and experimental groups.

Table 1. Demographic & School-Level Variables

Demographic Variable	Response Categories	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Gender	Male	7	33.3
	Female	14	66.7
Grade in School	Ninth	11	52.4
	Tenth	6	28.6
	Eleventh	3	14.3
	Twelve	1	4.8
Family Composition	Live with both parents	6	28.6
	Live with one parent	14	66.7
	Live with other family members	1	4.8
Engagement in Afterschool Activities (can select more than one)	Sports	10	43.5
	Clubs	3	14.3
	Council	1	4.8
	Other	6	28.6
Relationship Status	In a relationship	5	23.8
	Have been in a relationship in past 6 months	2	9.5
	Have ever been in a relationship	9	42.9
	Never been in a relationship	5	23.8
Guardian(s) employment	Full-time	10	47.6
	Part-time	1	4.8
	Out of work < 1 Year	4	19.0
	Out of work > 1 Year	3	14.3
	Unable to work	4	19.0
Ethnicity	Black / African-American	8	34.8
	White / Caucasian	4	17.4
	More than one ethnicity	6	26.1
	Asian / Pacific Islander	2	8.7
	Puerto Rican	1	4.3
	Not reported	2	8.7
Experimental / Wait List	Experimental	13	56.5
	Wait List	10	43.5

Program engagement	Completed program	11	52.2
	Did not complete program	12	47.8

Table 2. Demographic & School-Level Variables: Experimental vs. Wait-List Control

Demographic Variable	Response Categories	Experimental (N, valid %)	Wait List Control (N, valid %)
Gender	Male	4 (36.4)	3 (30.0)
	Female	7 (63.6)	7 (70.0)
Grade in School	Ninth	3 (23.1)	8 (80.0)
	Tenth	4 (36.4)	2 (20.0)
	Eleventh	3 (23.1)	0 (0%)
	Twelve	1 (7.7)	0 (0%)
Family Composition	Live with both parents	4 (33.3)	3 (30.0)
	Live with one parent	7 (58.3)	7 (70.0)
	Live with other family members	1 (8.3)	0 (0.0)
Engagement in Afterschool Activities (can select more than one)	Sports	7 (53.8)	3 (30.0)
	Clubs	1 (7.7)	2 (20.0)
	Council	1 (7.7)	0 (0.0)
	Other	3 (23.1)	3 (30.0)
Relationship Status	In a relationship	2 (18.2)	3 (30.0)
	Have been in a relationship in past 6 months	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)
	Have ever been in a relationship	4 (36.4)	5 (50.0)
	Never been in a relationship	3 (27.3)	2 (20.0)
Guardian(s) employment	Full-time	6 (54.4)	4 (40.0)
	Part-time	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)
	Out of work < 1 Year	2 (18.2)	1 (10.0)
	Out of work > 1 Year	2 (18.2)	2 (20.0)
	Unable to work	2 (18.2)	2 (20.0)
Ethnicity	Black / African-American	5 (38.5)	3 (30.0)
	White / Caucasian	2 (15.4)	2 (20.0)
	More than one ethnicity	3 (23.1)	3 (30.0)
	Asian / Pacific Islander	0 (0.0)	2 (20.0)
	Puerto Rican	1 (7.7)	0 (0.0)
	Not reported	2 (15.4)	0 (0.0)
Program engagement	Completed program	8 (61.5)	3 (30.0)
	Did not complete program	5 (38.5)	7 (70.0)

To demonstrate some of the demographic variables visually, graphs are included below in figures one and two. Figure one presents the relationship status of participants in the study and figure two presents the ethnicity of participants.

Figure 1. Relationship Status of Participants

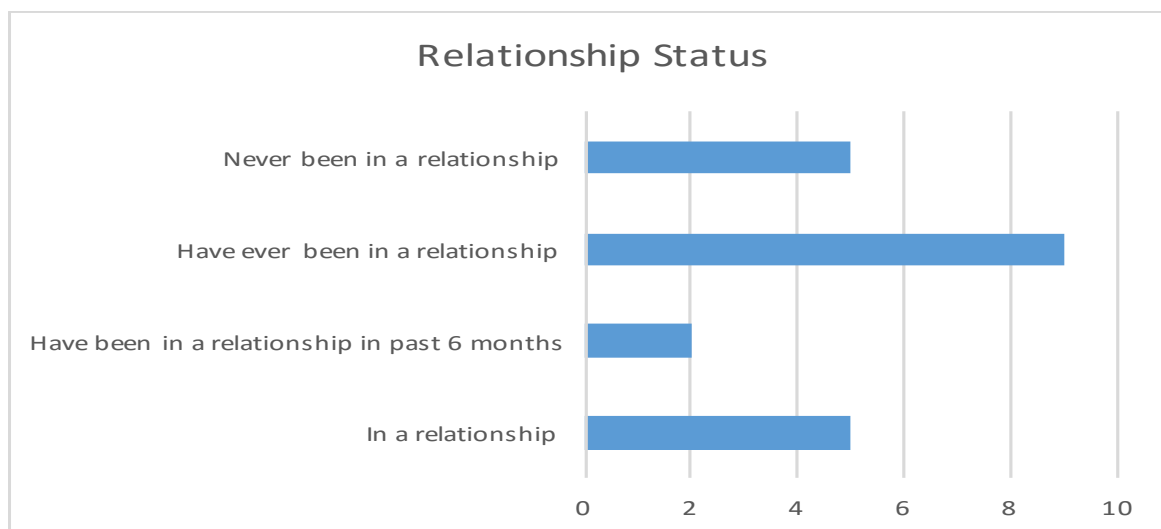
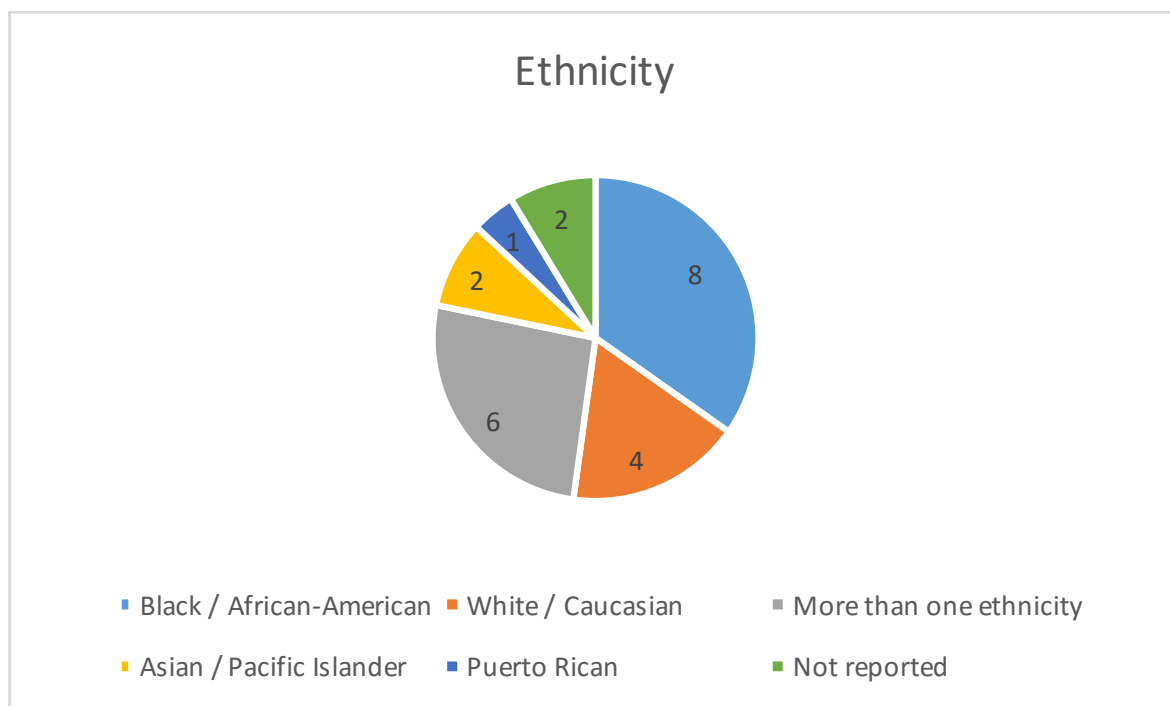


Figure 2: Participants' Ethnicity



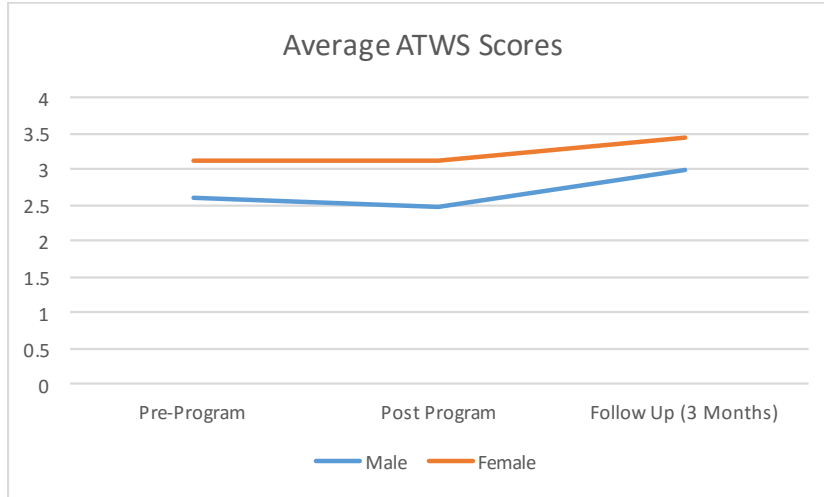
Scale Preparation

The ATWS consists of 12 Likert scale items, with scores ranging from 1-4. In order to prepare items for analyses, the scale items were summed and averaged to create a mean score for each participant. Participants with missing responses to items on the scale were removed from analyses. This resulted in a lower sample size for scale analyses, which will be reflected in the inferential tests in the section below. Table 3 and Figure 3 presents the mean ATWS scores at all three data collection points, arranged by gender. (Thomas & Hersen, 2011).

Table 3: Attitudes Towards Women Scale Scores at Three Stages, Arranged by Gender

ATWSA Score	Male (M, SD, n)	Female (M, SD)
Pre-Program	2.61 (.26) n=7	3.13 (.29) n=13
Post Program	2.48 (.36) n=4	3.13 (.57) n=6
Follow-Up (1 Month)	2.98 (.21) n=4	3.45 (.25) n=5

Figure 3. Average ATWS Scores Over Time, Arranged by Gender



Inferential Tests

First, independent *t*-tests were conducted to compare ATWS scores of participants in the experimental and wait-list groups at three data collection points: pre-treatment, post-treatment, and one month follow up. At the pre-treatment stage, ATWS scores were nearly identical between the experimental group ($M=2.94$, $SD=.43$, $n=12$) and the wait-list group ($M=2.95$, $SD=.31$, $n=10$) and there were no significant differences between the two ($t(20)=.33$, $p=.58$). Immediately post-treatment, ATWS scores were slightly higher among the wait list control group ($M=3.22$, $SD=.79$, $n=3$) than the experimental group ($M=2.74$, $SD=.43$, $n=8$) but this difference was not statistically significant ($t(9)=2.24$, $p=.17$). Finally, an independent *t*-test was run to test for differences between groups at a follow-up point one month after the treatment program. At this stage, ATWS scores from the experimental group ($M=3.36$, $SD=.27$, $n=3$) were slightly higher than the wait list group ($M=3.18$, $SD=.37$, $n=6$) but this difference was not statistically significant ($t(7)=.60$, $p=.47$). (Thomas & Hersen, 2011).

Table 4. Attitudes Towards Women Scale Scores at Three Stages, for those who Completed the Program

ATWSA Score	Exp.Group (M, SD) n=8	Wait-List (M, SD) n=3
Pre-Program	2.82(.38)	3.11(.42)
Post Program	2.75 (.43)	3.22(.79)
Follow-Up (1 Month)	3.02 (.47)	3.36 (.42)

An independent *t*-test was conducted to compare ATWS scores of participants in the experimental and wait-list groups who completed the program (defined as those who completed the pre-test, post-test and one-month follow-up) at three data collection points: pre-treatment, post-treatment, and one month follow up. At the pre-treatment stage, ATWS scores were $M=2.82$, $SD=.38$, $n=8$ for the experimental group and $M=3.11$, $SD=.42$, $n=3$ for the wait-list group and there were no significant differences between the two ($t(9) = -1.09$, $p=.94$). Immediately post-treatment, ATWS scores for the experimental group were $M=2.75$, $SD=.43$, $n=8$ and the wait-list control group was $M=3.22$, $SD=.79$, $n=3$ but this difference was not statistically significant ($t(9) = -1.31$, $p=.18$). Finally, an independent *t*-test was run to test for differences between groups at a one-month after the treatment program. At this stage, ATWS scores from the experimental group were $M=3.02$, $SD=.47$, $n=8$ and the wait list group scores were $M=3.36$, $SD=.42$, $n=3$) but this difference was not statistically significant ($t(9)=-1.09$, $p=.78$). (Thomas & Hersen, 2011).

Post-Hoc Analyses

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to determine if there was a difference in scores on the ATWS between the group of students who had completed the prevention program ($n=8$) and those who did not ($n=3$). Completion of the program was defined as completing the ATWS at all three data points (pre, post and 1-month follow-up). The benefit of ANCOVA testing is that it allows for an explanation of variation along with possible confounding (covariate) variable to be entered into the equation as a control, permitting the evaluation of change over time. The ANCOVA examines unexplained variance and attempts to explain it with the covariate in the model. A total of two ANCOVAs were performed to assess the level of change immediately following the prevention program as well as any lasting change at one month. (Thomas & Hersen, 2011).

In the first analysis, the covariate was a participant's score on the ATWS prior to the engagement with the prevention program. The dependent variable for the ANCOVA was the ATWS score immediately after the treatment program. The independent variable was whether participants were in the experimental group or the waitlist group. Table 4 presents the unadjusted mean scores and the adjusted mean scores (including the covariate) on the ATWS for both treatment groups.

Table 5. Scores for ATWS Immediately Following Program: Adjusted and Unadjusted

	<i>M</i>
Unadjusted Means	
<i>Experimental</i>	2.74
<i>Waitlist</i>	3.22

Adjusted Means

<i>Experimental</i>	2.83
<i>Waitlist</i>	3.00

The ANCOVA was not significant ($F(1,9) = .46, p = .52$) demonstrating that there was no significant difference between mean scores on the ATWS between the groups immediately after the program.

An additional ANCOVA was run to determine if there was a lasting difference in scores on the ATWS at one month post treatment between those who completed training ($n=2$) and those who did not ($n=6$). In this analysis, the covariate remained a participant's score on the ATWS prior to the engagement with the prevention program. The dependent variable for the ANCOVA was the ATWS score one month later. The independent variable was whether or not the student had completed the prevention program. Table 5 presents the unadjusted mean scores and the adjusted mean scores (including the covariate) on the ATWS for both treatment groups.

Table 6: Scores for ATWS at 1-Months Post: Adjusted and Unadjusted

	<i>M</i>
Unadjusted Means	
<i>Experimental</i>	3.21
<i>Wait list</i>	3.18
Adjusted Means	
<i>Experimental</i>	3.22
<i>Wait list</i>	3.18

The ANCOVA was not significant, $F(1,6) = .10, p = .77$, demonstrating that there was no significant difference between mean scores on the ATWS between treatment groups one month post prevention program.

Finally, a dependent sample t -test was run to determine if there was a difference between individual mean scores among the experimental group pre-treatment and at 1 month post-treatment. While the mean score at 1-month post was slightly higher ($M=3.17, SD=.48$) than pre-treatment ($M=2.94, SD=.45$), this difference was not statistically significant ($t(9)=-1.80, p=.11$).

Additional t -tests were run post hoc to determine what association key demographic variables (gender, grade, ethnicity), family level factors, and school-level variables may have with ATWS scores. Gender was proven to be significantly associated with ATWS scores at pre-test stage ($t(18)=4.12, p=.001$) with females having a significantly higher scores ($M=3.13, SD=.29$) than their male counterparts ($M=2.61, SD=.26$). Immediately following the treatment, female scores remained higher ($M=3.13, SD=.57$) than males' ($M=2.48, SD=.36$) but the difference was not statistically significant ($t(8)=1.99, p=.60$).

An independent sample t -test was conducted to determine if family composition was associated with ATWS scores. However, there was no significant difference in mean scores between students who resided in single parent ($N=14$) and those in two parent homes ($N=6$) at pre-treatment ($t(18)=-.84, p=.42$) and post-treatment ($t(8)=-.26, p=.80$).

An independent sample t -test was conducted to determine if participation in afterschool activities was associated with ATWS scores. There was a significant

difference in mean scores between students who engaged in afterschool activities ($N=7$) and those who did not ($N=1$) at pre-treatment ($t(6)=2.54, p=.05$) but there was no significant difference post-treatment ($t(7)=-.03, p=.98$). This finding is tentative given the small comparison group ($N=1$).

The potential relationship between age and ATWS scores was explored using a non-parametric Spearman's correlation test. Spearman's tests were selected for this analysis due to the small sample size and the non-normative distribution of the ATWS variable (Thomas & Hersen, 2011). The analysis determined that there was no significant correlation between age and ATWS scores pre-treatment ($r=-.01, n=20, p=.98$) but a slightly significant correlation emerged immediately following the treatment ($r=-.65, n=10, p=.04$).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This chapter will discuss the implications of the results presented in the previous chapter (Chapter 4: Results). First, the findings of the main and post-hoc analyses will be discussed along with the possible explanations of the results and how they are related to the existing literature. Next the study's limitations will be discussed along with implications for future prevention work and research.

Main Findings

This study's hypothesis was that participants in a 3-session Toxic Scripts intervention would demonstrate greater average stereotypical gender norms attitude change than participants in a delayed treatment control group and that these differences would be maintained over a one-month post-treatment period. Independent *t*-tests were conducted to compare ATWS scores of participants in the experimental and wait-list groups at three data collection points: pre-treatment, post-treatment, and one month follow up. Further, ANCOVA's were conducted to allow for an explanation of variation along with possible confounding (covariate) variable to be entered into the equation. There were mixed findings in this study, some significant and some non-significant.

At the pre-treatment stage, ATWS scores were nearly identical between the experimental group and the wait-list group and there were no significant differences between the two. Immediately post-treatment, ATWS scores were slightly higher among

the wait list control group than the experimental group but this difference was not statistically significant. Finally, at one-month follow-up ATWS scores from the experimental group were slightly higher than the wait list group but this difference was not statistically significant. Both groups started out with essentially the same scores on but failed to make statistically significant changes in their ATWS scores after going through the prevention program. These results are contrary to the successful results from other violence prevention programs that have a focus on gender norms Foshee , Bauman, et al., 2006;Foshee et al., 1998, 2000, 2004, 2005; Weisz & Black, 2001;Wolfe et al., 2003; Jaycox et al., 2006, & Barker et al, 2010)

Post-Hoc Analyses

Further analyses were conducted to allow for an explanation of variation along with possible confounding (covariate) variable to be entered into the equation. In the first analysis, the covariate was a participant's score on the ATWS prior to the engagement with the prevention program. The dependent variable for the ANCOVA was the ATWS score immediately after the treatment program. The independent variable was whether participants were in the experimental group or the waitlist group. The ANCOVA was not significant demonstrating that there was no significant difference between mean scores on the ATWS between the groups immediately after the program.

An additional ANCOVA was run to determine if there was a lasting difference in scores on the ATWS at one-month post treatment between those who completed training and those who did not. In this analysis, the covariate remained a participant's score on the ATWS prior to the engagement with the prevention program. The dependent variable for

the ANCOVA was the ATWS score one month later. The independent variable was whether or not the student had completed the prevention program. The ANCOVA was not significant, demonstrating that there was no significant difference between mean scores on the ATWS between treatment groups one-month post prevention program. It appears that subtracting the variance attributable to participants' ATWS score at pre-test and whether or not they completed the program or not did not lead to statistically significant findings. Again, this finding is inconsistent with the successful results from other violence prevention programs that have a focus on gender norms (Foshee , Bauman, et al., 2006;Foshee et al., 1998, 2000, 2004, 2005; Weisz & Black, 2001;Wolfe et al., 2003; Jaycox et al., 2006, & Barker et al, 2010)

Key Demographic Variables

Gender

Post-hoc analyses were run to determine what association key demographic variables (gender, grade, parents), family level factors, and school-level variables may have with ATWS scores. Gender was proven to be significantly associated with ATWS scores at pre-test stage with females having significantly higher scores than their male counterparts. Immediately following the treatment, female scores remained higher than males' but the difference was not statistically significant. Girls began the program with less stereotypical gender norm attitudes than boys. Weisz and Black (2001) in their study using the Reaching and Teaching Teens Curriculum found that girls in their study did had less violence-supportive attitudes than their male counterparts. This finding was consistent with other studies that also found that girls had less accepting attitudes of

violence than boys (Jaffee et al., 1992 & Krajewski et al., 1996). In contrast, Wolfe et al. (2009) found in their study, reductions in dating violence for boys but not for girls. Further, Foshee et al. (2009) and Taylor, Mumford and Stein (2014) found the Safe Dates and Shifting Boundaries programs respectively found both programs to be equally effective for boys and girls in reducing dating violence behavior. The differing results for the effectiveness of dating violence prevention programs for boys and girls may be due to the program content and what exactly the authors were measuring. There is little consistency in the measures used for attitudes and behaviors in the dating violence literature, which makes it difficult to have a consistent finding among researchers.

Afterschool Activities

Participation in afterschool activities was associated with ATWS scores. There was a significant difference in mean scores between students who engaged in afterschool activities (N=7) and those who did not (N=1) at pre-treatment but there was no significant difference post-treatment. This is a tentative finding due to the comparison group's sample size of 1. Such a small comparison group makes it difficult to make a decisive statement regarding such results (Thomas & Hersen, 2011). The studies discussed in chapter 2 of this proposal did not take into consideration the effects of afterschool activities or extracurricular activities on adolescent's attitudes or behavior (Wolfe et. al, 2003; Foshee et al., 1998; Foshee et al., 2005; Jaycox et. al. 2006 & Weisz & Black, 2001). Other studies beyond the dating violence literature have indicated that afterschool activities or extracurricular activities are associated with improved academic outcomes (higher attendance rates, reduced suspensions, higher grades, and lower drop-

out rates); “better social/emotional outcomes (decreased behavioral problems, improved social and communication skills, increased self-confidence and self-efficacy and lower levels of depression and anxiety) (Harvard Family Research Project, 2008, p.5);” better prevention outcomes (reduction in drug and alcohol use, decreases in violent behavior and increased knowledge of safe sex) and better health and wellness outcomes (increased physical activity, healthier eating and improved body image). Therefore, it is possible with a larger sample size, one would obtain a greater difference on the ATWS between those who engaged in afterschool activities and those who did not engage in such activities. It is possible that those who engaged in afterschool activities would have attitudes less accepting of stereotypical gender norms (Harvard Family Research Project, 2008).

Age/Grade Level

The potential relationship between age and ATWS scores was explored using a non-parametric Spearman’s correlation test. Spearman’s tests were selected for this analysis due to the small sample size and the non-normative distribution of the ATWS variable. The analysis determined that there was no significant correlation between age and ATWS scores pre-treatment but a slightly significant correlation emerged immediately following the treatment. This is an interesting finding which is consistent with the literature that shows that dating violence peaks around age 16 or about 10th grade and subsequently declines (Foshee et al. 2009; Reyes et al. 2011). With a decline in dating violence, as one gets older, it is also likely that they subscribe to less stereotypical gender norms. This also follows the developmental trajectory in which early adolescence

is marked by sex segregated play and more rigid gender norms attitudes in which younger adolescents rely more on gender information than individual information while older adolescents are able to take into account exceptions to these stereotypes (Biernat, 1991). As adolescents developmentally progress they become less rigid in their gender norm attitudes and are able to demonstrate a flexible application of gender stereotypes (Biernat, 1991).

Limitations

Despite the importance of prevention programs, there are many challenges to implementation, some of which were relevant for the current project. Some of these hurdles to implementation include: small sample size, difficulty with recruitment, attrition, dosage, and possible ineffectiveness of the program. These obstacles will be discussed in the following sections.

Small Sample Size

In this study this researcher was only able to recruit 23 participants in total for both conditions. There were 13 participants in the experimental group and 10 in the wait-list control group. Of these participants, only 8 participants in the experimental group completed the program (completed assessments at all three data points) and only 5 participants completed the program in the wait-list control group. This left only 13 participants ATWS scales for analysis. This was far short of this researcher's desire for 60 or more participants to obtain a medium effect size (Ting, 2009 & Thomas & Hersen, 2011). The difficulties of recruiting participants and minimizing attrition will be discussed in the following paragraphs. These difficulties directly affect the sample size,

which consequently may have affected the ability to find statistically significant differences between the two groups.

Participants were not able to be matched in pairs based on age or grade level and then randomly assigned to either the treatment or wait-list control group due to the low sample size. Due to the low level of participation, this researcher had to place participants in the group that best fit their schedules. Therefore, this researcher was not able control for individual differences between participants which may have effected the outcomes (Thomas & Hersen, 2011).

The difficulties with a small sample are widely found in the dating violence prevention literature (Foshee & McNaughton Reyes, 2009). Many studies are underpowered due to the difficulty of recruiting and retaining participants for this type of research. The evaluation of prevention programs is necessary to determine program effectiveness. “Otherwise, practitioners may assume that a program is effective on the basis of anecdotal or case study evidence. As evaluation has become more common, the results indicate that many programs that are anecdotally believed to be successful may actually not be effective (Nation et al., 2003 p.458).”

Recruitment

In this study there was a lack of adequate participation. This researcher was only able to recruit 23 participants for the study. This was short of the 60 participant recruitment goal. Other studies conducted on youth prevention programming have highlighted the difficulty of recruitment. “Rates for youth-only programs targeting risk behaviors, such as smoking or drug use, have been reported at 50% acceptance rates, with

short- term retention in intervention studies at 50 to 80% (Hooven, Walsh, Willgerodt & Salazar, 2011 p. 138). Some of the reasons for the low acceptance or recruitment rates, which will be discussed in the following paragraphs, are a lack of support from schools and community agencies, competing after-school activities, lack of clear communication and length of recruitment.

Lack of Support from School and Community Agencies

A recruiting challenge found in this study, which is also echoed in the prevention literature, is the lack of support from schools and the community (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014, Whitaker & Lutzker, 2009 & Weisz & Black, 2009). Schools and community agencies are limited on time and finances. The focus of the schools and agencies is on academic performance and current problem behaviors. This attention is given to the detriment of attending to social and emotional needs and prevention. Many agencies fail to make the connection between emotional health and academic success (Weir, 2012). Although, Nebraska schools are required by the Lindsay Ann Burke Act (Nebraska Department of Education 2010) to provide dating violence education, this usually occurs in the format of a one-day informative session by a staff of the local domestic violence shelter and is not specific to prevention.

Even with community and school support, researchers have found it difficult to recruit participants for dating violence prevention programs. Although, researchers for the Ending Violence prevention program had support from many of the local schools and recruited 55 classes in 10 schools for participation in the program, the researchers lost a total of 3 schools from the program due to logistical problems (Jaycox et al., 2006). The

evaluation on the Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum (Weisz & Black, 2003) had support from a local school that was affiliated with the researchers' university. Even with this support, the researchers were only able to recruit 46 students in the intervention group and 20 students in the comparison group of the 250 students who were eligible to participate (Weisz & Black, 2003). Unfortunately, for this study, this researcher was not able to obtain the support from the school system to implement the Reaching and Teaching Teens Curriculum. This researcher had to recruit community centers and organizations that were not school-affiliated. The school system in Lincoln, Nebraska has a rigorous review board designed for deciding which research projects should be allowed into the schools. Research projects outside of teacher and student academic education have limited success in entering the school system. The Lighthouse was the only community organization, of the many this researcher met with, that was excited and willing to bring a dating violence prevention program into their center. A major theme in the dating violence prevention literature is the importance of building a relationship with the agency for a significant period of time and enlisting their input on the curriculum (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014; Vera & Speight, 2003; Whitaker & Lutzker, 2009, Weisz & Black, 2009, Vera, 2013). Although, this researcher met with staff from the Lighthouse numerous times prior to and during the prevention program, there was not a significant relationship with the agency prior to implementing the prevention program. In the future, this researcher and other researchers should spend more time developing the relationship with the agency they will conduct prevention work in before the program begins.

Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez (2014) used specific effective strategies that would provide more support from agencies. These included attending functions at the school or agency, having meetings with staff to educate them about the program, providing informational sessions with incentives and enlisting staff to provide suggestions and recommendations. Some similar recruitment practices were used in this study. In particular, this researcher met with staff numerous times and with the Lighthouse Director. This researcher enlisted their insight on the curriculum. These efforts may have helped with some of the participation recruitment, but not to the level expected. In the future, this researcher will use the tactics described above to enlist more participants.

Competing After-School Activities

Another recruiting challenge found in this study, which is also found in the prevention literature, was difficulty with competing after-school activities (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014, Whitaker & Lutzker, 2009 & Weisz & Black, 2009). One study by Hayes, Chapple and Ramirez (2014) discussed the difficulties with recruiting adolescents due to many competing after-school activities. These after-school activities may not need participants to receive parental consent or fill out assessments prior to participation (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014). Some popular after-school activities include athletics, clubs, jobs, and leisure activities. Besides not needing parental consent to join these activities, for many youth they are more appealing than attending prevention programs. Attendance has shown to be directly correlated with incentives (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014; Weisz & Black, 2009 & Jaycox et al., 2006). One study found that when they offered pizza the attendance was higher and when they stopped offering

pizza the attendance went down. Further, when students were more likely to receive an incentive (the odds are in their favor) then attendance was higher. In particular, Hayes, Chapple and Ramirez (2014) compared size of schools, the average attendance rate for the two largest schools was 51%; whereas, for the two smallest schools it was 70%. Weisz & Black (2003) offered gift cards to youth who participated which increased participation rates. In this study incentives were offered. All participants were entered into a drawing for a chance to win an iPod. Further, candy bars were given to those who brought back consents and participants were provided with food and beverages at each prevention session. These incentive efforts may have helped in some participation recruitment, but not to the level expected.

Hooven, Walsh, Willgerodt and Salazar (2011) suggested offering not only incentives for participants but to also provide incentives for the community agency staff. These incentives could improve the staff's view of the program and may make them more likely to promote the program to the youth. In the future, this researcher will use more incentives for youth as well as provide incentives to the agency staff, to increase participation rates.

Communication Difficulties

Another recruiting challenge found in this study and consistent with the dating violence prevention literature, was difficulty in communication with agency staff (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014; Whitaker & Lutzker, 2009; Weisz & Black, 2009; Wolfe et. al, 2003; Foshee et al., 1998; Foshee et al., 2005; Jaycox et. al. 2006 & Weisz & Black, 2001). Jaycox et al. (2006) had difficulties with their prevention program due to high

staff turnover and miscommunication between researchers and staff. The staff liaison for this study often miscommunicated dates and times of when the prevention program could begin and days to recruit students. This possibly led to participants who were initially interested in the program but may have lost interest. This loss of interest could be due to the continual rescheduling of the prevention program to a later start date by staff.

Research has shown that once a participant has consented to participate in a program, the program should begin not long after. This is due to a loss of interest and other competing activities and life events that may occur from the time a participant consents and actually participates (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014 & Weisz & Black, 2009). A way to improve communication between researchers and agency staff is the researcher to provide all staff at the agency with the same information by many different mediums; email, phone calls and printed information. Meetings with staff, informational brochures and staff bulletins were also used by researchers to improve communication (Hooven, Walsh, Willgerodt & Salazar, 2011 & Jaycox et al, 2006). In the future, this researcher will use these aforementioned effective communication practices to improve researcher and staff communication, which in turn may influence participation rates.

Length of Recruitment

Lastly, another recruiting challenge found in this study, which is also echoed in the prevention literature, is the amount of time spent recruiting (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014; Whitaker & Lutzker, 2009; Weisz & Black, 2009; Hooven, Walsh, Willgerodt & Salazar, 2011 & Jaycox et al, 2006). Although, researchers talk about the importance, there has not been consensus among researchers concerning the appropriate

amount of time to recruit.

In this study, the recruitment time may have been too lengthy. This researcher's recruitment time was lengthy due to needing enough participants to obtain significant results. Due to this, many of the consents and assents were forgotten or lost which resulted in a loss of resources and a lengthier time to complete the recruitment. Although, the ideal amount of recruiting time is unknown, research has shown that the intervention should begin not long after participants sign consents due to loss of interest or other life events happening (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014 & Weisz & Black, 2009).

Attrition

There were a large percentage of participants in this study who started the prevention program but did not continue on to complete the program. Although both groups had high attrition rates, the wait-list control group had a slightly higher attrition rate than the experimental group. This difference was not statistically significant. The experimental group had 61.5% of the participants complete the program while 38.5% did not complete the program (complete ATWS at all three data points). In the control group, only 30% of the wait-list control group completed the program while 70% did not complete the program. The attrition rate in the experimental group is consistent with the dating violence prevention literature, which suggests that 40–50% attrition is commonplace in longitudinal studies (Horton & Lipsitz, 2001 and Foshee, 2005). The high rate of attrition could be due to the length of the program and a lack of interest by participants.

Attrition with Increased Length of Program

Research shows that attrition rates increase with the length of the program (Horton & Lipsitz, 2001 and Foshee, 2005). In particular, The Safe Dates program had “attrition from baseline by wave 3 was only 12.0%, but by wave 5 was about 50% (Foshee et al., 2005, p.249).” In the Youth Relationships Project prevention program, the attrition rate was 50% (Wolfe et al., 2003). Wolfe et al. (2003) reported that retention rates of participants in the program continued to decrease as the program continued. Particularly, “The percentage of the final sample that had two or more follow-up assessments was 2 assessments (94%), 3 (81%), 4 (75%), 5 (65%), 6 (50%); less than half the sample had 7 or more follow-up assessments (Wolfe et al., 2003,p. 281). The Ending Violence program (Jaycox et al.2006) also had difficulty with attrition. Jaycox et al. (2006) reported that 2540 of 3800 enrolled students completed the assessments. In particular, “67% participation rate overall; 71% intervention, 62% delayed control and of these, 13% missed the pretest survey, 12% missed the posttest survey, and 24% missed the follow-up survey (Jaycox et al.2006 p. 697).” This study was designed to be short-term to be amenable to implementation. A shorter program would seem to reduce attrition rates. This may not have been the case in this study because of the inconsistent spacing of the sessions. The study was designed to be three sessions conducted in three consecutive weeks. Due to the Lighthouse’s schedule and the staff liaison for this study often miscommunicating dates and times of when the prevention program, the sessions were spaced sporadically and not in consecutive weeks. Research has shown that only a short time should elapse between sessions to reduce attrition (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez,

2014& Weisz & Black, 2009). Researchers suggest that a way to ameliorate this problem is to have back-up days built into the curriculum to reduce the time between sessions if a session is rescheduled (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014& Weisz & Black, 2009). In the future, this researcher will have back-up days built into the schedule to reduce attrition.

Participants' Interest

Participation in this program was voluntary and competed with some popular after-school activities including athletics, clubs, jobs, and leisure activities. Many of the participants may have found these activities more appealing than attending a dating violence prevention program. Discussing gender norms may have been uncomfortable for many of the participants whose first time discussing these issues may have been in this program.

To reduce attrition rates, the prevention literature has shown that researchers need to have a strong buy-in from participants, strong agency support and provide incentives for the participants (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014; Weisz & Black, 2009 & Jaycox et al., 2006). To increase participant buy-in or to make the program more relevant and valuable to participants Vera and Speight (2003) suggested seeking participants' input on the program and making the program culturally relevant to the participants. If participants have a stake in an intervention then they are less likely to drop out before the completion of the program (Vera & Speight, 2003). Further, having constant contact with agencies, participants, and participant's guardians are crucial to reducing attrition rates. In particular, having increased visibility at agency events and after-school activities allows for staff, participants and participants guardians to have an understanding of the

importance of the program. (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014& Weisz & Black, 2009). Increasing the use of incentives has shown to decrease attrition rates. Youth are more likely to attend prevention sessions in which they are given some sort of reward (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014& Weisz & Black, 2009). Although, incentives were used in this study, the incentives may need to be more desirable to the participants. In the future, this researcher will utilize the above techniques to reduce attrition rates.

Dosage

Adolescent Dating violence prevention programs have varied in dosage or program intensity. Nation, et al.'s (2003) review of effective prevention approaches to adolescent risky behavior defines sufficient dosage as, "the need for participants to be exposed to enough of the program for it to have an effect. Dosage, or program intensity, may be measured in quantity and quality of contact hours. Aspects of dosage include the session length, number of sessions, spacing of sessions, and the duration of the total program (p. 452)." The recommended dosage for the entire Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum is 12 sessions. The recommended dosage for the Toxic Script unit varies from one to three sessions. The only evaluation, besides this study, was on the entire program. Results indicated that knowledge of sexual assault and dating violence increased at the end of the program and was maintained at six-month follow-up, as well as an improvement in attitudes of sexual assault and dating violence (decreased acceptance of dating violence and sexual assault) (Weisz & Black, 2001). The authors conducted the program in twelve, one and one half hour sessions over a six-week time

period (Weisz & Black, 2001). The length of the program, spacing of sessions and booster-sessions will be discussed below in regards to the appropriate dosage.

Length

There is little empirical research about the minimum number of sessions a prevention program can be to see results. Research does show the ineffectiveness of a one-session format for lasting change (Foshee & McNaughton-Reyes, 2009). This researcher discussed in chapter two about the evidence for short-term prevention programs. In particular, Jaycox and colleagues (2006) found that a three sessions of treatment showed changes in altering norms and behaviors regarding dating violence. Lavoie, Vezina, Piche and Boivin (1995) evaluated the effects of short-term (i.e., 2 sessions) versus long-term (i.e., 4 sessions) dating violence prevention programs. The results showed no differences between the long and short-term programs. This researcher went with a three- session format due to the evidence in the literature and feasibility of short-term prevention programs (time limitations in community agencies and schools and financial limitations). The two programs referenced above measured a change in dating violence norms rather than gender norms. The dosage or length of the program may not have been what is needed for a change in gender norms. Gender norm change may take longer. A three-session format used in the Toxic Script lesson of the Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum may have not been a sufficient length of time to make changes in gender norms.

The goals of the Toxic Script unit in the Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum are to increase awareness of gender norms, knowledge of gender norms and decrease

attitudes accepting of stereotypical gender norms and increase gender flexibility. To arrive at these goals may take longer than three sessions and a greater length of time for sessions because gender norms are embedded in our society and organize our everyday behavior. Messages of stereotypical gender norms are communicated everywhere in youth's lives including parents, school, media and peers (Flay, 2000; Flay & Allred, 2001). Further, adolescents are at a developmental time when their gender norms are more rigid and the differences between the genders are highlighted. The deep entrenchment of stereotypical gender norms and the developmental stage of adolescence may require lengthier prevention programs to produce a change. It is possible that the unit Toxic Scripts in the Reaching and Teaching Teens Program may be effective, but was not conducted for a long enough period of time (Flay, 2000; Flay & Allred, 2001 & Foshee & McNaughton Reyes, 2009).

Spacing of Sessions

The study conducted by this researcher was designed to have the prevention sessions once a week for three consecutive weeks. Due to scheduling conflicts with the organization, this was not achieved. The prevention sessions were spaced several weeks apart. The Lighthouse's scheduling conflicts were often last minute and this researcher arrived at the Lighthouse for the planned dates of the prevention program. This researcher was then told that there was a scheduling conflict and the participants would not be able to attend. This researcher would then have to reschedule the session and inform the youth through staff, which created a greater length of time between sessions than was intended. The inconsistent delivery of the message may have impacted the effectiveness of the

intervention. In the future, this researcher will communicate more effectively to the agency staff the importance of having the prevention program disseminated in a consistent manner. Further, this researcher will utilize what other researchers have and have back-up days built into the schedule in the case of such a last minute rescheduling (Foshee et al., 2005 & Jaycox et. al., 2006) Having back-up days built into the schedule will help lessen the amount of time between sessions (e.g. have back up day built into the schedule which are the same week of the missed prevention session).

Booster-Session

Research shows that a majority of the effects in prevention programs are lost over time. (Nation et al., 2003). A booster-session is recommended that reiterates and summarizes what was already learned to prevent this decline (Nation, et al, 2003). Foshee et al. (2005) utilized a booster-session for the Safe Dates program and found lasting effects. In the future, this researcher, in addition to evaluating the results of the prevention program over time, will also incorporate a booster-session into this curriculum in order to improve the chances of maintaining lasting effects

Ineffectiveness

While power issues may explain the lack of significant results, it is also a possibility that the curriculum was not effective. The Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum has not been extensively evaluated. To date, besides this study, there is only one evaluation on this program (Weisz and Black, 2003). Even though this program has not been systematically evaluated it is widely used throughout the state of Nebraska

(Zinke, 2013). Future studies should be conducted on this curriculum to ensure that it is effective for preventing dating violence in adolescents.

There is a large amount of evidence that shows the role that gender norms play on adolescent risky behavior and the effectiveness of addressing gender norms in prevention programs (Raithal, 2003; Graine 2009; Schulte, Ramo & Brown, 2009; Schulte, Ramo & Brown, 2009; Barker et. al., 2010; Pulwerwitz & Barker, 2008; Pulerwitz, Michaelis Verma & Weiss, 2010; Flay, 2000; Flay & Allred, 2001; Eisler et al., 2000; Parrot & Zeichner, 2003; Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell, 1998; Robinson & Schwartz, 2004; Schwartz, Merta, Waldo, & Bloom-Langell, 1998; Reed, Raj, Miller & Silverman, 2010; Foshee , Bauman, et al's, 2006; Foshee et al., 1998, 2000, 2004). A few reasons this study's theory may have been on track, but the project failed to find significant findings: the measure used, this researcher's fidelity to the program, and using a lesson instead of the entire prevention program.

Measure

The measure this researcher chose to use in this study was *Attitudes Towards Women Scale-Adolescent* (ATWS)(Galambos, Petersen, Richards, & Gitelson, 1985; Dahlberg, L.L., Toal, S.B., Swahn, M., & Behrens, C.B., 2005). This instrument was chosen for the following reasons; its ability to measure stereotypical gender norm attitudes, its appropriateness of use with adolescents and its appropriateness of use with ethnic minorities (Galambos, Petersen, Richards, & Gitelson, 1985; Dahlberg, L.L., Toal, S.B., Swahn, M., & Behrens, C.B., 2005). There is a possibility that the ATWS could have not accurately measured gender norm attitudes for this sample. In particular, the

average score on the ATWS scale for the two groups was relatively high and the average score for girls was higher than boys. Some research suggests that girls are more sensitive to questions on the measure than boys and that the scale is more effective in use with early to middle adolescents because a ceiling effect is found when older adolescents (particularly girls) are tested (Galambos, 2012).

Although, the Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum addressed both male and female gender norms, this researcher only measured attitudes towards women. In the future, this researcher and other researchers should incorporate scales that measure attitudes towards female and male gender norms. Two other scales would be beneficial to use in the future, the Male Role Attitudes Scale (MRAS; Pleck, Sonenstein, & Ku, 1994) and the The Adolescent Masculinity Ideology in Relationships Scale (AMIRS; Chu, Porche & Tolman, 2005). The MRAS is an 8-item scale that measures masculinity in terms of attitudes toward male roles and measures, “the perceived importance of men fulfilling traditional masculinity standards (Thompson & Pleck, 1995, 146).” The AMIRS was designed to “incorporate the fact that it is often through and within the contexts of interpersonal relationships that masculine norms are introduced, reinforced, incorporated, and perpetuated in ways that become personally meaningful and directly consequential to adolescent boys (Chu, Porche & Tolman, 2005, p. 97).” Both scales have acceptable reliability and validity and can be used with a diverse population.

Recent research in adolescent dating violence prevention has highlighted the need for new measures to more accurately measure gender role attitudes (Reyes, Foshee, Niolon, Reidy, Hall, 2016). Reyes et al., (2016) critique the existing gender role attitudes

measures as outdated and lack applicability to youth. Further, they indicate that, “future research include measures that specifically assess interpersonal aspects of gender roles including adversarial relationship beliefs (e.g., the expectations that relationships involve exploitation, manipulation and deceit) and tap into the ways in which gendered power relations manifest in dating relationships (as opposed to marital relationships) may be more directly related to dating violence and relevant to today’s youth than measures focused exclusively on men and women’s roles in society (Reyes, Foshee, Niolon, Reidy, Hall, 2016, p. 357).”

Fidelity to the Program

This researcher did not have the benefit of having an independent observer complete a fidelity measure to measure how well this researcher adhered to the program. This fidelity measure could have been used to analyze the results and see if this researcher’s level of adherence to the lesson affected the participants’ outcomes (e.g. lower scores on fidelity checklist could be associated with smaller changes in gender norm attitudes). Therefore, this researcher only has a subjective view of how closer the program was followed. Although this researcher views that the program was closely adhered to, there was no objective measure completed. Consequently, the results may have been affected by a possible low adherence to the program

Other researchers in the dating violence prevention literature have measured facilitator fidelity to the program. Jaycox et al. (2006) assessed fidelity to the Ending Violence curriculum through an expert who observed classes randomly and assessed fidelity as well as having the presenter’s rate their own performance on fidelity. Weisz &

Black (2001) took another approach and had facilitators meet on a weekly basis to discuss their overall fidelity to the curriculum and ways to improve their adherence for the next prevention session. Wolfe and colleagues (2003) assessed for fidelity to the Youth Relationship Project curriculum by videotaping all sessions and had raters score the facilitators adherence to the protocol. Although all of the above assessed for fidelity, and reported a strong adherence to the program, none of the researchers reported how fidelity to the protocol may have influenced outcomes. In the future, this researcher will utilize a fidelity protocol in order to maintain adherence to the program.

Lessons Versus Entire Program

This researcher chose to use a segment of the Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum instead of the entire curriculum. The reasons for this were outlined in earlier chapters and included; a need for short term prevention programs, this study's focus on changing stereotypical gender norms and the frequency of use by facilitators of only segments of the curriculum versus the entire curriculum. An informal survey indicated that only 9% of dating violence prevention facilitators throughout the state of Nebraska used the entire Reaching and Teaching Teens curriculum (Zinke, 2013). The majority of facilitators use parts of the curriculum due to time constraints and financial limitations.

In the dating violence prevention literature there is some push for modulation of curriculums or "dividing the curriculum into constituent parts (Kerin, Volz, Moeddel, 2010 p.675)." The call for modulation of prevention programs would enable facilitators the flexibility to adapt the program to their audience while still maintaining the essential parts or ingredients of a program (Lock, 2004 & Kerin, Volz, Moeddel , 2010). This

flexibility is beneficial for facilitators but is not ideal for researching the effectiveness of a program. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of a program, researchers need facilitators to adhere strictly to the curriculum or maintain a certain level of fidelity to the program to ensure an accurate measurement.

Although there is a push for modulation of curriculums, there is lack of research outlining the effectiveness of this approach. The lack of significant findings in this study may be due to this researcher's use of a lesson in the program instead of using the entire program. In the future, this researcher will utilize the entire program to evaluate its effectiveness. There has not been much research on using components of a dating violence prevention program and its effectiveness. Further research, should be done on modularization due to the reality that facilitators rarely use the entire program due to time constraints and financial limitations.

Differences between Ethnicities in Gender Norms

Of the nearly 1.7 million individuals in Nebraska, 90% are White, 5.5% are Hispanic, 4% are African American, 2% Asian and 1% are Native American (Nebraska Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). This researcher attempted to enlist a similar demographic makeup for the sample in this study. Lincoln and Omaha are the two largest cities in Nebraska and tend to be more diverse than the majority of the state at 86% White, 6% Hispanic, 4% African American, 4% Asian, 0.8% Native American and those reporting two or more races is 3% (United States Census, 2014). The Lighthouse is located in one of the most diverse neighborhoods in the city where the ethnic makeup is 78% White, 7% African American, 2% Native American, 4% Asian, 5% Hispanic and

5% reporting two or more races (Lincoln Department of Urban Development, 2015). The majority of participants in this study identified as either African American and more than one ethnicity. The Reaching and Teaching Teens program was constructed to be culturally sensitive and applicable to a diverse range of participants. The one research study conducted on this curriculum was with a sample of majority of African-American participants and the results showed improvement in knowledge of sexual assault and dating violence as well as decreased acceptance of dating violence and sexual assault (Weisz & Black, 2001). The authors didn't measure gender norm attitudes. Research on gender norm attitudes has indicated that there are differences among ethnicities (Kane, 2000). Studies show that African-American's tend to have more gender equitable attitudes than Whites (Gondolf & Williams, 2001 in Foshee book). Hispanics and Asian-Americans tend to have more stereotypical gender norm attitudes than Whites and African-Americans (Kane, 2000 & Gondolf & Williams, 2001 in Foshee book). While differences exist between ethnicities, there are variations within each group. Individuals who are more acculturated tend to have less stereotypical gender norm attitudes than individuals who are more acculturated. A lack of research exists about many other ethnicities gender norm attitudes. More research is needed on how gender norm attitudes manifest in these cultures. Further, data from the United States Census Bureau (2014) indicate that 2.5% identify as two or more ethnicity and that is projected to increase to 6.5% by 2060. In the future researchers should also study how gender norms attitudes are displayed in individuals who identify as having more than one ethnicity.

The program may not have been effective because it may not have fully address

how different cultures view gender norms and therefore participants may feel the program was not relevant to them. Further, the majority of participants were African-American and they may have less stereotypical gender norms and therefore not have much change to make. In the future, this researcher and other researchers should make sure to address differences in gender norms among different ethnicities to ensure the program is relevant for all participants.

Community versus School-Based Prevention Programs

This researcher implemented a community based prevention program due to the difficulty in implementing prevention programs in schools. This is due to pressure placed on schools to include as much academic work as possible and to minimize any time considered to be non-academic. Researchers often find it difficult to persuade school administrators and teachers to allow them more than one session to provide programming to students. (Weisz & Black, 2009). After implementing a community-based intervention, this researcher recognizes that challenges exist in both community and school domains. Implementing a community-based dating violence intervention program was extremely difficult due to recruitment challenges, attrition and staff communication. Community agencies, like schools, have their own rules and regulations that serve its purpose for the agency or school but often are an impediment to implementing and evaluating a prevention program. Schools are a good vehicle for prevention due to having a captive audience which leads to higher recruitment rates and lower attrition rates. Although, there are difficulties entering into schools, the problems once a researcher is able to get into a school are minimized. While it may be easier to get into community agencies, the

problems are vast once implementing the program. Schools are a good vehicle for prevention programs in order to minimize attrition, maximize sample size and the ability to systematically evaluate programs (Hayes, Chapple & Ramirez, 2014, Whitaker & Lutzker, 2009 & Weisz & Black, 2009).

Conclusion

Adolescent dating violence is widespread and has many negative repercussions (Lewis & Fremont, 2000; Foshee & McNaughton Reyes, 2009; Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode & Rothman, 2013; & NCDVA, 2013). Nebraska youth are especially at risk for experiencing dating violence (CDC, 2012). There is a clear need to have effective dating violence prevention programs. While, Reaching and Teaching Teens, is used widely throughout the state, there has only been one study conducted on its effectiveness (Weisz & Black, 2001). Further, there have been studies showing the effectiveness of dating violence prevention programs that provide education on gender norms (Foshee, Bauman, et al., 2006; Foshee et al., 1998, 2000, 2004; Wolfe et al., 2003; Jaycox et al., 2006). In this study, this researcher sought to see if a dating violence prevention program, Reaching and Teaching Teens, aimed at changing gender norms was effective for adolescents. This author did not find a statistically significant effect in gender norms attitudes. There are multiple reasons this may have been the case; small sample size, difficulty with recruitment, attrition, dosage, measurement, gender norm differences among ethnicities, difficulties with community agencies and possible ineffectiveness of the program. This study adds to the existing literature of what works and what does not work in dating violence prevention. Future dating violence prevention researchers should

take into account many of the hurdles encountered by this researcher and previous researchers and make a plan in how to minimize the impact these hurdles have on the results of the study. Further, more research is needed on how gender norm attitudes change and effective ways to bring about this change.

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