

California State University, San Bernardino

CSUSB ScholarWorks

Theses Digitization Project

John M. Pfau Library

2001

An exploration of family of origin violence, shaming, and insecure attachment styles in men who batter

Larissa Alexandra Elias

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd-project>



Part of the [Family, Life Course, and Society Commons](#), and the [Social Work Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Elias, Larissa Alexandra, "An exploration of family of origin violence, shaming, and insecure attachment styles in men who batter" (2001). *Theses Digitization Project*. 4352.

<https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd-project/4352>

This Project is brought to you for free and open access by the John M. Pfau Library at CSUSB ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses Digitization Project by an authorized administrator of CSUSB ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@csusb.edu.

AN EXPLORATION OF FAMILY OF ORIGIN VIOLENCE, SHAMING, AND
INSECURE ATTACHMENT STYLES IN MEN WHO BATTER

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of
Social Work

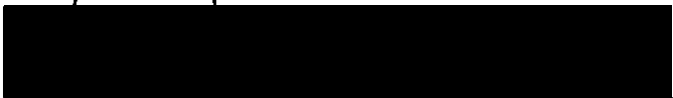
by
Larissa Alexandra Elias
June 2001

AN EXPLORATION OF FAMILY OF ORIGIN VIOLENCE, SHAMING, AND
INSECURE ATTACHMENT STYLES IN MEN WHO BATTER


A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

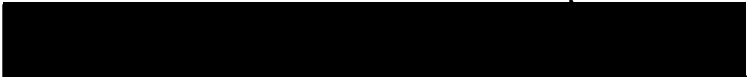
by
Larissa Alexandra Elias
June 2001

Approved by:


Herschel Knapp, MSSW, Faculty Supervisor
Social Work

5/25/01
Date


Sandra Nix, Director The Gary Center


Dr. Rosemary McCaslin, MSW Research
Coordinator

ABSTRACT

This was an exploratory study designed to better understand the extent to which domestic batterers have experienced exposure to family of origin violence, shaming by a parent, and developed insecure attachment styles during childhood. Thirty-one men court-ordered to attend a 52-week domestic violence intervention program completed self-report questionnaires assessing exposure to family of origin violence, shaming by one or both parents, and general styles of attachment. Findings revealed interparental abuse and moderate to severe use of child corporal punishment were significantly correlated. The study found that the majority of the subjects felt that they had experienced generic criticism by both parents, but more so with their fathers. Overall, findings from a shame scale suggested a tone of parental disapproval and disappointment. Paternal shaming was significantly correlated with having an emotionally abusive paternal caretaker. The instrument used to measure attachment was not significantly correlated with any data from the other three instruments due to its generality. This failed to illustrate that insecure attachment is a by-product of both, exposure to family of

origin violence and the experience of being shamed by one or both parents. It did reveal two noteworthy findings: First, of thirteen subjects (42 percent) that selected the dismissing style of attachment, all but one characterized one or both parents in negative terms. In addition, ten out of the thirteen subjects revealed family of origin violence. Second, eight subjects (26 percent) chose the fearful style of attachment. Of the four styles of attachment, this group disclosed experiencing a higher degree of shame than the subjects who had selected the secure or dismissing styles. Implications for future research are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to thank the following people: Herschel Knapp, my advisor, for helping me to transform my ideas into a comprehensive piece of work; Sandra Nix, and the staff at The Gary Center, for their support and assistance in soliciting the cooperation of the group members. Their cooperation was truly the backbone of this project; Timothy Thelander, for his time, excellent technical skills, and kind words of reassurance during my time of strife and strain; and Michelle Rash, for proof reading my work out of the kindness of her heart.

In addition, I would like to especially thank: my father, Richard, for his patience, wisdom, and guidance in teaching me how to be diligent in all that I do; my mother, Alexandra, for being my emotional Rock of Gibraltar and encouraging me with her words of inspiration; and my sister, Becky, for helping me to put my life into perspective with a well-deserved "reality-check" every now and then.

Last, but certainly not least, I wish to thank God for the strength I have been given to strive and persevere during these last two years. I owe all that I

am, and all that I will become to my Higher Power, for He
is the light of my life.

DEDICATION

In Loving Memory of my beloved grandmother, Julieta Valdez. I thank God for the closeness of our relationship and the precious memories we shared. I take comfort in knowing you are with me in spirit. You will forever be in my heart, Nana.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Problem Statement	1
Problem Focus	4
Significance of the Project	6
Research Question	6
Definition of Terms	7
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Early Trauma	10
Shame and Abusiveness	12
Attachment Theory	15
Adult Patterns of Attachment	20
Summary	24
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS	
Introduction	27
Purpose of Study	27
Sampling	28
Data Collection and Instruments	28
Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran	29
Parent-Child Conflict Tactics Scale	31
Conflict Tactics Scale	32
Relationship Questionnaire	33

Procedure	34
Protection of Human Subjects	35
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
Results	36
Limitations	46
Discussion	51
APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT	58
APPENDIX B: DEBRIEFING STATEMENT	60
APPENDIX C: SUBJECT DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE	62
APPENDIX D: SHAME SUB-SCALE OF EMBU	66
APPENDIX E: PARENT-CHILD CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE	68
APPENDIX F: CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE	70
APPENDIX G: THE RELATIONSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE	72
APPENDIX H: DEMOGRAPHICS	74
APPENDIX I: INTERPARENTAL AND CORPORAL PUNISHMENT	78
APPENDIX J: PARENTAL SHAMING	80
REFERENCES	82

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

The damage wrought by intimate partner violence extends far beyond the actual physical abusiveness experienced by most women. It imposes a tremendous cost to many other industries such as health care, criminal justice, social services, business, and most importantly, it inflicts physical, emotional, and behavioral damage to the children who grow up in the home where the violence exists (Berry, 1998). It has been estimated that "more than 3 million children directly witness acts of domestic violence each year" (p. 7). "Fifty to seventy percent of men who abuse their female partners also abuse children in the home. In homes with four or more children, the figure leaps to over ninety percent" (p. 9). This indicates that there are a significant number of adult men who have grown up witnessing family violence as children or have themselves been the victims of family violence. The witnessing of abuse includes the multiple ways in which a child is exposed to adult domestic violence, such as directly viewing the violence, hearing

it, and experiencing the aftermath of violence. Although domestic violence occurs in other forms of intimate relationships, for the purpose of this study, only male to female physical abuse shall be studied.

There are an unlimited number of factors that contribute or influence adult men to behave abusively toward their intimate partners. This study will look at how family of origin violence, shaming by a parent, and attachment theory relate to men becoming domestic batterers.

Violence in the family of origin, which includes children either witnessing interparental abuse or being physically abused, may see violence as a way of handling anger and frustration. It seems probable that when children are exposed to these actions then they may learn that violence is an acceptable and perhaps preferable method of solving conflicts. Some researchers have found evidence that violence becomes conditionally linked with affection, suggesting an additional reason for the continuation of violent behavior in future intimate relationships (Caesar, 1988).

Research examining the early childhood of abusive men indicates that shaming by the parent and extreme

family dysfunction was often the norm in the home in which they were born. In a study of male batterers conducted by Dutton, vanGinkel, and Starzomski (1995), the researchers found that "random punishment, public criticism, and attacks on the global self-concept from one's parents were most highly associated with adult shame and consequent rage experiences in an abusive population" (p. 368).

Evidence from several studies indicates that interpersonal problems in abusive and neglectful families are the result of disturbed patterns of attachment (Egeland, Sroufe & Erickson, 1983). When family violence occurs, it can often create problems in bonding between child and caretaker(s). There are crucial stages of development for children, and if a mother is focused primarily on her survival, or is suffering from depression due to her abusive situation, then this impedes her ability to adequately meet her children's physical and emotional needs. This lack of adequate parental care may then result in attachment problems between caretaker and child (Egeland et al., 1983).

Finally, the attachment history and current attachment style of men who are abusive are important

factors that would further help explain their hostility and anger toward a female intimate. Attachment theory implies that men who have received pathogenic or inadequate caregiving from their primary attachment figure in childhood are prone to have expectations for the same kind of treatment in adult attachment relationships (Bowlby, 1973).

Problem Focus

Past work in domestic violence literature has revealed possible links among attachment, family violence, and adult aggression (Holtzworth-Munroe, Stuart, & Hutchinson, 1997). In a review of empirical studies, Hotaling and Sugarman (1986) found that intimate partner violence was linked with childhood witnessing of interparental assault in 88 percent of studies, and with direct parent to child violence in 69 percent of studies. Strauss et al., (1980) and Kalmuss (1984) found rates of having been physically abused and witnessing interparental abuse that were three times the population average in groups of men who used physical violence against their partners.

There is some support for the hypothesis that children from violent families of origin carry violent and violence-tolerant roles to their adult intimate relationships (Widom, 1989). For example, Rosenbaum and O'Leary (1981) reported that the male batterers in their study were much more likely than others to have grown up in a home environment where adult domestic violence was taking place. The majority of these men (82 percent) also were reported to have been physically abused.

There appears to be a relationship between abuse in childhood and men becoming abusers of women as adults (Dutton, 1999). What has yet to be discovered is whether abuse witnessed or suffered as children affects the relationship between the child and the caretaker(s), and whether this results in the development of certain attachment styles in childhood that evolve into abusive patterns of attachment in adulthood (Mayseless, 1991).

What remains unclear from this retrospective position is specifically, what types of parental treatment produce the abusive personality. The three key variables implicated are a) witnessing violence in the home, b) shaming by the father, and c) insecure attachment to the primary caregiver (Dutton, 1999).

Significance of the Project

The research focuses on a group of men in a court-ordered domestic violence intervention program. The objective is to investigate some of the commonalities that may reveal themselves in the subjects' recollections of their upbringing. The project explores whether any relationship exists among perceived parental shaming, family of origin violence, and the presence of certain attachment patterns that have been associated with intimate partner violence. If relationships among these are uncovered, then the implications for social work practice would include therapeutic interventions aimed at decreasing the maladaptive behaviors of the parents toward their children. The display of aggression or shame in children that appears to be out of proportion to normal development would also be targeted. The key point is to effectively intervene when boys are young so that the abusive behaviors are less likely to become a part of their adult behavior.

Research Question

This project is an exploratory study designed to better understand the extent to which domestic batterers

had the following childhood experiences a) exposure to family of origin violence, b) shaming by a parent, and c) insecure attachment.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as they apply to the project.

- Early trauma - Having experienced physical abuse, rejection, neglect, or shaming during childhood, resulting in deficits in one's self concept, insecure attachment, psychopathology, and emotional instability (Dutton, 1999, p. 432).
- Family of origin violence - The repeated witnessing of one or both parents engaging in physically abusive acts or behaviors. (Strauss, 1979). Also, the repeated actions of one or both parents physically maltreating a child [i.e. knocking one down, kicking, slapping on face, head or ears] (Strauss et al., 1998).
- Shaming - Verbal attacks from one or both parents that demean, publicly humiliate, or randomly punish a child so that the child

begins to feel inferior or inadequate (Dutton, 1998).

- Attachment theory - An ethological theory that focuses on the nature and quality of early interpersonal relationships or experiences and the manner in which these relationships or experiences are processed. Of supreme importance is the degree to which infants learn that they can rely on their attachment figures as sources of security and support. As children grow, it is hypothesized that such early attachment relations come to form a template for later intimate relationships outside the family (Bowlby, 1980).
- Inner working model - A characteristic way of thinking about and responding to others in relationships (Bowlby, 1973).
- Insecure attachment - A general stress response that is caused by one's fear of separation or rejection from one's primary attachment figure.

- Cronbach Alphas - This is a model of internal consistency, based on the average inter-item correlation (Weinbach & Grinnell, 1997).
- Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r-values) - A measure of linear association between two variables. Values of the correlation coefficient range from -1 to 1. The sign of the coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship, and its absolute value indicates the strength, with larger absolute values indicating stronger relationships (e.g. $r = .092$) (Weinbach & Grinnell, 1997).
- Significant correlations (p-values) - Correlation coefficients significant at the 0.05 level mean that the probability of the relationship between variables occurring by chance is five percent ($p < .05$). Those significant at the .001 level mean that the probability of the relationship between variables occurring by chance is one in one-thousand [$p < .001$] (Weinbach & Grinnell, 1997).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Early Trauma

Dutton (1998) has suggested that the etiology of violence in males who assault their wives might originate in early trauma. There have been several similarities cited between traumatized children and batterers in van der Kolk's (1987) review of trauma sequelae. Both of these groups had trouble controlling their aggression, had temper tantrums, restricted affect, limited problem-solving skills, extreme arousal patterns, and insecure attachment. Likewise, boys physically abused were more apt to identify with the aggressor and continue acting out.

If early exposure to trauma creates difficulties in regulating anger and identification with the aggressor, then boys with this kind of early experience should likely exhibit anger or aggression as adults. Taking this one step further, traumatic experiences may result in both attachment problems and a propensity for externalizing blame. The likelihood then arises that the anger or aggression would be experienced in intimate

relationships, and projected onto his partner's actions (Dutton, 1998, p. 380). Trauma experiences might produce many sequelae that when combined, reinforce the development of an abusive personality. These include "high chronic levels of trauma symptoms (sleep, disturbances, depression, and anxiety), blaming others (e.g. the intimate partner for being the cause of his disturbing emotions), and attachment insecurity (e.g. being ultra-sensitive to rejection and prone to jealousy)" (Dutton, 1998, p. 380). These psychological, emotional, and behavioral factors are combined with each other to essentially raise the probability of acting in an abusive manner toward an intimate partner.

In addition to experiencing trauma symptoms, there may be secondary effects such as depression, which is a typical response to trauma. One of the hallmark signs of depression is social withdrawal and loss of pleasure in usual activities. Batterers are often described as socially isolated (Sonkin, Martin & Walker, 1985). For example, Pan, Neidig, and O'Leary (1994) examined 11,000 U.S. Army men and found that, "for every 20 percent increase in depressive symptomatology, the odds of using moderate physical aggression (e.g. pushing) against their

wife increased by 30 percent, and the odds of using severe physical aggression (e.g. beating) increased by 74 percent" (Dutton, 1999, p. 442). These figures suggest that there may be a whole realm of internal events that are influential in continuing the abusiveness. These include generalized feelings of discomfort (depression, chronic anger), blaming external sources, accusatory styles (blaming others), defensive approaches (e.g. externalizing and projection), tendencies to ruminate, and the building up of internal tension. Since these are internal and unobservable, they cannot be imitated through modeling or social learning (Dutton, 1999).

Dutton (1999) argues that early trauma produces the kind of reactions that generate the abuse named above. He believes that these reactions are caused by an interactive combination of three very important events: "shaming by a parent, exposure to physical abuse, and insecure attachment" (p. 432).

Shame and Abusiveness

Dutton et al. (1995) conducted a study consisting of 140 court-referred and self-referred male batterers and discovered that recalled shaming actions by the parent,

usually the father, were highly related to adult abusiveness. These tended to take the form of broad attacks on the child ["you'll never amount to anything", or "you're worthless"] (Dutton, 1999, p. 435). Random punishment confuses the child because it is impossible to know what one did wrong. The child has little choice, but to think that he is somehow defective. Shame translates into a generalized attack on one's sense of self (Dutton et al., 1995) In terms of emotional dynamics, shame converts instantly to rage in what Scheff (1987) called the "shame-rage spiral" in an attempt to protect the self from what the child perceives as imminent devastation (p. 436). Dutton (1999) is quoted as saying, " the results are so strong that, if I had to pick one single action by the parent that generated abusiveness in men, I would pick being shamed by their father" (p. 152). Partial correlations show "shaming to be necessary to maintain the relationship of physical abuse victimization to later perpetration" (Dutton, 1998, p. 151). Unfortunately, it is likely that if a father is shaming his son, then it is probable that he is physically abusing him as well. Now, not only is the child's self-concept being destroyed, but in addition, his father is modeling the use of violence.

Dutton et al. (1995) found shaming behaviors in childhood generated tendencies to avoid shame in adulthood. This, in turn, created externalizing behaviors prone to blaming others. Only by externalizing blame for interpersonal events, thereby avoiding personal responsibility, could shame-prone men avoid re-experiencing shame. This may be the reason why abusive men are notorious for denying or minimizing their violent actions against their partners. If they were to admit their abusiveness then they would be forced to take responsibility for their unacceptable actions. This would only induce more shame and anxiety, so instead, they prefer not to acknowledge their behavior.

Most of the research conducted on the effects of maltreatment has examined abusive families who have come to the attention of local service agencies. In a case of abusive parents, a child is in a situation where he is forced to form an attachment to his primary caregiver, which is also a source of unreliable care. The child is dependent on the caregiver for his survival. There is no choice but to accept whatever care or amount of affection is given to him by his caretaker(s), no matter how marginal it is. The child experiences disappointment when

his needs are neglected or met with indifference. The child, in turn, represses the anger or hostility felt for that caretaker. The child is not damaged overnight. The internal frustration lays dormant while the child goes on to develop through adolescence. It is not until later in life that the latent personality reveals itself by the forming of an intimate relationship. The intimate attachment becomes the catalyst that releases the repressed feelings developed in childhood (Dutton, 1998).

Attachment Theory

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969) is based on interpersonal relationships and emphasizes the significance of intimate relationships, especially those in early childhood. Bowlby (1969) believed that individuals possess an inborn need for close attachments to significant others, which also serves as a survival function. The development of the attachment relationship is based on the manner in which the caregiver responds to the infant's signals. This includes the caregiver's expedient response to her crying infant, or stimulating the child by holding, feeding, and showing him emotional interest. For the developing child, each relationship

builds on the previous one and contributes to the construction of what Bowlby called the "internal working model." This is another term for a way of thinking about and responding to others in relationships (Bowlby, 1973). As the child grows up, these models tend to become more stable and a part of the personality, thereby influencing behavior.

According to Dutton, (1998) attachment is directed by three necessary principles: First, panic or distress of any kind, regardless of the source, activates an "attachment behavioral system" of the infant, meaning that whenever the infant is alarmed, he seeks his caretaker to obtain soothing physical contact (p. 116). Second, when the infant is operating under this particular mode, only direct contact with the attachment figure will stop the feelings of alarm. Third, if the attachment system is activated for too long then the infant displays agitated behavior. A basic conclusion of attachment theory is that anger follows unfulfilled attachment needs, which originates from disappointed and futile attempts to connect with the primary caregiver. When the distressed infant seeks comfort and it isn't

available, the result is rage, followed by depression, and then indifference (p. 116).

The general stand of attachment theory regarding individual differences can be summarized in three main propositions: a) Individuals who are confident as to the availability of an attachment figure are less likely to feel chronic or acute anxiety, b) Confidence in attachment figures develops during childhood and early adolescence and remains relatively unaffected by change, c) The expectations concerning accessibility and sensitivity of attachment figures are representations of actual experiences those individuals have had in the past (Bowlby, 1973).

Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall (1978) were the first to explore individual differences in attachment behavior. On the basis of their observations of infants at home and in their experimental settings, they outlined three patterns of attachment called a) secure, b) anxious/ambivalent, and c) avoidant. The anxious/ambivalent and avoidant patterns are considered insecure patterns. In their description of the three attachment styles, Ainsworth et al. (1978) referred to infants' expectations concerning their mothers'

availability and helpfulness. This corresponds with Bowlby's claim (1973) that infants and children construct inner working models of themselves and their major social-interaction partners. The following descriptions of the three attachment styles mentioned above are based upon knowledge acquired from various experimental findings (Bowlby, 1980; Egeland, Sroufe, & Erickson, 1983; Cassidy, 1999).

The internal working model of a secure male child includes a basic trust in his caregiver and confidence that the caregiver will be accessible, responsive, and attentive should the child become fearful or encounter a harmful situation. The child feels safe and is adventurous in the explorations of his environment. This pattern is fostered by a caregiver being readily available, alert to the child's signals, and warmly responsive when the child seeks protection or comfort (Mayseless, 1991).

Doubt and low consistency that the parent or caregiver will be attainable when called upon characterizes the anxious/ambivalent pattern. Due to this uncertainty, the child is always prone to separation anxiety and tends to be overly emotionally dependent,

while exhibiting unresolved anger directed at the caregiver. The anxious/ambivalent child may show affection alternating with indirect or even obvious aggression. This pattern, in which opposition is evident, is promoted by such circumstances as a parent being available and accommodating on some occasions but not on others, and by detachment or threats of abandonment used as a means of control. The parenting style involves high uncertainty and may be described as consisting of superficial attempts in meeting the child's attachment needs. The child will have a tendency to appear hypervigilant for fear that the caregiver may not be available. In such cases, the child will manifest negative attachment behaviors in the form of clinging to the caregiver, or throwing temper tantrums as a form of protest (Mayseless, 1991).

The internal model of a child with an avoidant pattern lacks confidence that if comfort is sought, he will meet an attentive response. The child may nevertheless be aggressive towards others, and in several situations, may direct attention-seeking behavior to a nonrelated caregiving figure (e.g., teacher). This pattern is connected with parents who regularly reject

the child whenever he draws near for comfort or assurance. These same parents can relate to the child when he is behaving in a cheerful manner, but not when he is troubled or greatly agitated (Mayseless, 1991).

Adult Patterns of Attachment

Adult researchers propose that adults reveal attachment styles based on their attachment history (Hazen & Shaver, 1997). Internal models of early attachment relationships are transformed into adult attachment styles that signify distinct ways of thinking about intimate relationships. Hazen and Shaver (1987) proposed three adult attachment styles that correspond to the three infantile attachment patterns described by Ainsworth et al., (1978). These styles of attachment consist of a) secure, b) avoidant, and c) anxious/ambivalent.

Those adults with a secure style of attachment are presented as confident, friendly, and trusting in their relationships. They are comfortable with close relationships, find it easy to depend on others, as well as having others depend on them.

Adults who possess an avoidant style of attachment find it difficult to trust others and fear intimacy. These individuals want close relationships, but they fear being abandoned or rejected. So instead, they use hostility as a means of deterring their partner from becoming too intimate (Mayseless, 1991). Their hostility is more of a passive-aggressive type, meaning that they usually are able to have control over open expressions of anger, but do tend to be critical and have rigid ideas. They are prone to be excessively jealous of their intimate partner and need to feel that they have the power and control in their relationships.

Individuals with an anxious/ambivalent style of attachment suffer from emotional highs and lows. They become emotionally dependent and tend to have obsessive thoughts regarding their partner. These individuals seem to fall in and out of love easily, yet become caught in a love-hate relationship that they are unable to sever on their own initiative. They are presented as being very jealous and possessive, having a "Jekyll and Hyde" personality, and becoming angry and aggressive if they perceive their partner is behaving distant or rejecting them (Mayseless, 1991).

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) expanded Hazen and Shaver's (1987) model to include an additional category by dividing Hazen and Shaver's avoidant category into dismissing and fearful. Bartholomew's (1991) four-category model consists of a) secure, b) preoccupied, c) fearful, and d) dismissing styles of attachment. The secure style parallels Hazen's and Shavers model and does not need further defining.

Preoccupied individuals closely resemble Hazen and Shaver's anxious/ambivalent style and are prone to ruminating over the fear of abandonment by their partner, and experience a great deal of anxiety. They are uncomfortable being without close relationships, but worry that their partner and others do not value them as much as they value others. They are overly dependent on their partners and seek validation through gaining the acceptance and approval of others (Bartholomew, 1991).

Those with a fearful attachment pattern mirror Hazen and Shaver's avoidant style. These individuals tend to exhibit the highest degree of distrust in their partner, which manifests itself as anger, jealousy, and emotional instability. Adults with a fearful attachment style are uncomfortable getting close to others, find it difficult

to depend on others, and worry that they will be hurt if they allow themselves to become too close to their partner (Bartholomew, 1991).

Individuals with a dismissing style manifest an aloof and self-sufficient attitude to the outside world. On an unconscious level, these individuals tend to have a negative self-image, but portray a façade of detachment as a way of defending a "fragile sense of self" from the risk of getting hurt by others (Bartholomew, 1997, p. 253). They do not appear to be concerned about forming close relationships, preferring not to depend on others or have others depend on them.

Attachment theory suggests that an abusive male's violent outburst may be an exhibition of severe disappointment focused at his attachment figure, in this case, a sexual partner, and precipitated by perceived threats of separation or abandonment. These men, who present themselves as insecurely (avoidant, anxious/ambivalent, and fearful) attached, exhibit frequent anxiety and anger when they encounter a partner who is rejecting or threatens to leave. The animosity that served a functional objective in childhood by communicating unsatisfied attachment needs may become

exaggerated into violence if the male believes the same indifference is in his attachment relationship in adulthood. It is these profound feelings that are believed to ignite an assault against an intimate partner (Dutton et al., 1994).

Research on attachment theory as it pertains to intimate partner violence implies that there is more to the intergenerational transmission of violence than mimicking learned behavior patterns. Dutton (1998) is convinced that "the development of faulty internal thought processes, particularly self-concepts and expectations of attachment to others are charged with fear and rage. This becomes the foundation for what develops into the abusive personality" (p. 128).

Summary

Each of the above components has been hypothesized as being rooted in developmental psychopathology, which stems from early trauma. Trauma can be in the form of witnessing or experiencing physical abuse, shaming, and patterns of insecure attachment.

A question that this study has attempted to examine is whether or not male children exposed to domestic

violence go on to commit more violence as adults. Social learning theory would suggest that children who witness violence also learn to use it. Several researchers such as Singer, Miller, Guo, Slovak, and Frierson (1998) have examined the link between exposure to domestic violence, and subsequent use of it; their findings revealed some support for this hypothesis.

The abusiveness that domestic batterers generate appears to be a product of lifespan issues that are reinforced with repeated relationship dysfunction. These men cannot calm themselves or alleviate their feelings of internal restlessness. Instead, they react with fury because their intimate partner was not able to reduce their internal anxiety. Abusive men seem to have little insight into the origins of their violent behavior and seldom seek help unless court-ordered or if their intimate partner threatens to leave. Of course, this only seems to perpetuate and reinforce their feelings of abandonment and rejection.

Intimate partner abuse issues are relevant to child welfare in that programs and services offered need to be effective in treating all members of the entire family, not just the abusive parent(s). Those who work for child

welfare need to be aware of all the dynamics that operate within an abusive family system. In doing so, it is hoped that the cycle of violence and the damage inflicted upon these young victims will be addressed before the patterns of anger and violent tendencies develop and become ingrained into their personalities.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

Introduction

The methodology used in this study was correlational. The questionnaire given to the subjects consisted of four parts. The first section contained demographic questions. The second part assessed memories of shaming and rejection from their caregiver(s). The third part measured for violence in the family or origin. The fourth section contained a generalized, single item, self-report designed to differentiate adult attachment styles.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study was to explore whether any relationship exists among perceived parental shaming, family of origin violence, and the presence of certain attachment patterns that have been linked with intimate partner violence. The implication in exploring this information was an attempt to address those variables that may contribute to the development of abusive behavior toward an intimate partner. If the uncontrollable behaviors could be addressed earlier,

before boys' grow into abusive adults, then there may be fewer men who become fully out of control and use violence as a means of resolving conflicts with an intimate partner.

Sampling

The population sampled were men over the age of 18 who have been court-ordered to attend a 52-week intervention program for physical abuse against their intimate partner. The sample was one of convenience and only included those who volunteered to participate in the study. The sample size consisted of 31 participants. Any male subject enrolled in this particular 52-week program met the criterion for selection. The sample population was drawn from a community service agency that is located in Orange County. The study sampled four domestic violence classes that were conducted by two instructors over a one-week period.

Data Collection and Instruments

The research method consisted of four instruments and a demographic survey. The level of measurement on the demographic survey was a combination of nominal and

ordinal variables. The level of measurement on three of the instruments was ordinal with scales that were self-rating (Likert type). The primary independent variables in the collected data were witnessing or encountering abusive experiences, and negative child rearing behaviors such as shaming and rejection by parents. The questions on the demographic survey (see Appendix C) included 10 nominal variables: ethnicity, marital status, occupation, general description of mother, general description of father, occupation of subject, primary childhood caretaker, economic status in childhood, father's occupation during childhood, and mother's occupation during childhood. The three ordinal variables were highest level of education attained, number of hours worked weekly, and gross yearly income. The three continuous variables consisted of age, number of weeks in the program, and the number of siblings the subject grew up with. Finally, the one constant variable that governed sample selection was the abusive men.

Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran

The Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran (EMBU) is a well-known Swedish instrument. The English translation is "Memories of My Upbringing" (Perris et al., 1980). The

EMBU is a subscale adapted from the original 80-item scale whose psychometric properties of the English version were developed by Ross et al. (1982). The English version has 14 subscales, scored separately for mother and father. For the purpose of the present study, only the subscale assessing recollections of parental shaming and rejection were used.

Dutton, van Ginkel, and Starzomski (1995) reduced the questionnaire into a 22-item, [see Appendix D] (11 items for each parent) 4-point self-report Likert type scale. The modified shame subscale was developed by compiling reports of parental actions that fit one of the three criteria theoretically related to shaming. These involved recollections of: a) public humiliation by parents (e.g., "As a child I was physically punished or scolded in the presence of others"); b) random punishment (e.g., "My parent(s) beat me for no reason"); and c) parental treatment that affected the whole self (e.g., "My parent(s) treated me in such a way that I felt ashamed"). Factor analysis revealed a reliability alpha for the shame subscale of the EMBU of .93. Item total correlations ranged from +.52 to +.69 (Dutton, van Ginkel, & Starzomski, 1995).

Parent-Child Conflict Tactics Scale

The Parent-Child Conflict Tactics Scale (CTSPC) [see Appendix E] is used to measure psychological and physical maltreatment and neglect of children by parents, as well as nonviolent modes of discipline (Strauss et al., 1998). This is an improved version of the original scale that was typically meant to be used with partners in a marital, cohabiting, or dating relationship (Strauss, 1979). Although the original scale has been known to work well as a measure of child maltreatment, some items were not particularly appropriate for parent-child relationships, and some important parental behaviors were not included (Strauss & Hamby, 1997). In this study, the self-administered questionnaire format was used with adult men to obtain recall data on the behavior of their parents when they were children and adolescents living at home. Only 13 of the original 22 items were extracted for use. The 14 supplemental items were also not used as they measure neglect and sexual abuse. The three subscales measured in this study were a) psychological aggression, b) minor assault (corporal punishment), and c) severe assault (Strauss et al., 1998). The CTSPC measures the extent to which a parent has carried out specific acts of

physical and psychological aggression regardless of whether the child was injured. Although test-retest reliability data is not yet available for the CTSPC, it is available from three studies using the parent-child physical assault scale of the original CTS. The coefficients range from .49 (McGuire & Earls, 1993) to .70 and .79 (Johnson, 1988) to .80 (Amato, 1991).

Conflict Tactics Scale

The Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) [see Appendix F] is the original version that has been adapted for this study to assess violence in the family of origin (Strauss, 1979). In this study, the participants were asked to recall behaviors they witnessed either parent committing against the other one. The three subscales assessed were a) psychological aggression, b) minor physical assault, and c) severe assault. Cronbach alphas for this instrument are normally measured in terms of a) father's violent behavior to mother, and b) mother's violent behavior towards father. Cronbach alphas for both of these subscales are .94. Since both parents were being rated together rather than separately measured, it is uncertain whether reliability factors would be similar.

Relationship Questionnaire

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) developed the Relationship Questionnaire (RQ) [see Appendix G]. It is a self-report measure that consists of four vignettes describing four distinct relationship styles. Each vignette represents a prototypic representation of one of the four adult attachment styles previously described. The attachment styles referenced in this self-report are termed a) secure, b) dismissing, c) fearful, and d) preoccupied. Briefly, the first paragraph (secure) describes one who is comfortable with closeness in relationships. The second paragraph (dismissing) describes one who discounts the importance of close relationships. The third paragraph (fearful) describes one who wants close relationships, but is distrusting of others. Finally, the fourth paragraph (preoccupied) describes one who wants complete emotional intimacy in his relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Respondents are customarily asked to read each description and rate, on a 7-point Likert scale, the degree to which each description resembles their own feelings about close relationships. Due to time constraints, the questionnaire was slightly modified in

that respondents were asked to read each paragraph and only choose the one that best described their feelings about close or romantic relationships. Validity and reliability scores are believed to be relatively low because of the generality of the questionnaire (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994).

Procedure

The data was collected over a one-week period, and during four group meetings. The purpose of the project was explained at the beginning of the group meeting. The group was told that the survey was completely anonymous, and those who agreed to participate were handed a survey. A copy of the consent form (see Appendix A) stating the participant was giving his authorization to volunteer by checking a box and dating it was attached to the front of the survey. The last page of the survey contained the debriefing statement (see Appendix B), which all participants were instructed to keep. Once the participants were finished answering all the questions, they were instructed to place their completed survey into a large envelope to ensure anonymity. The entire process

took about 30 minutes. The group then proceeded with their regular agenda.

Protection of Human Subjects

The study was a non-manipulative, minimal risk study conducted to explore childhood recollections of perceived parental shaming, family of origin violence, and adult attachment patterns associated with intimate partner abuse. The participants' names were not included in the study to ensure anonymity. All information obtained from the participants was held in strict confidence. None of the participants' identifying information was included in the study, analysis, or reporting of findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

The following demographic variables (see Appendix H) were analyzed for their frequency distributions. The mean age of the participants was 29, and the ages ranged from 20 to 71. Out of 31 subjects, 19 were Hispanic, six were Caucasian, two were Asian, two were African-American, one was Native-American, and one did not classify himself. A little over half of the subjects stated that they had a high school diploma or an equivalent degree (55 percent), and almost 20 percent had a grade school or some high school education. The remaining 26 percent had some college education or a college degree. The majority of the subjects stated they were blue-collar workers (55 percent), followed by laborers (23 percent), and the remaining indicated white-collar (16 percent) jobs. Most of the subjects (75 percent) gross thirty thousand dollars a year or less. Sixty-eight percent of the men work full-time, 16 percent work part-time, and the remaining 16 percent are unemployed. Eleven subjects reported being married, eleven are single, five are

separated, two are divorced, and two others reported having a relationship with a significant other. Pertaining to their family of origin, 75 percent stated that their parents remained together while growing up. Half of all mothers were reported to have been housewives, and the other half either worked manual labor jobs or in some type of clerical position. Over 60 percent of the subjects' fathers were reported as having had a blue-collar or laborer type of position. Finally, the average number of weeks the subjects had been in the program was nine weeks out of fifty-two. Over half of them had been attending under four months.

The last section of the demographic survey (see Appendix C) asked the subjects to describe each parent, separately, by checking all the boxes that applied to them. The following were the descriptive terms used: abusive, affectionate, distant, domineering, faultfinding, overprotective, rejecting, strict, uncaring, understanding, and warm.

Slightly over half (53 percent) of the subjects rated their mothers as being warm and understanding, while 47 percent rated their mothers as affectionate. Ten percent stated their mothers were abusive. As for the

fathers, 37 percent of the subjects rated their fathers as strict, 13 percent marked their fathers as affectionate, and 25 percent marked their fathers as being warm. Thirty-three percent of the fathers were rated as distant and 25 percent are reported to have behaved abusively.

Correlation calculations revealed paternal abusiveness was significantly correlated with the paternal caretaker being domineering ($r = .388$, $p = .034$) and faultfinding ($r = .378$, $p = .034$). Fathers who were perceived as distant correlated with fathers thought of as rejecting ($r = .632$, $p = .039$) and uncaring ($r = .632$, $p < .001$).

Mothers who were rated as abusive showed a positive correlation with being uncaring ($r = .557$, $p = .001$), and faultfinding ($r = .630$, $p < .001$). Mothers who were rated as overprotective positively correlated with being affectionate ($r = .408$, $p = .025$) and warm ($r = .467$, $p = .009$).

The research question examined in the study was: To what extent did domestic batterers have the following childhood experiences a) exposure to family of origin

violence, b) shaming by a parent, and c) insecure attachment?

In examining the first question above, the CTSPC (see Appendix E) and the CTS (see Appendix F) were used. Initially, the subjects' responses to the questions asked on both of these instruments were entered under four different categories: "never;" "yes, sometimes;" "yes, often;" and "yes, frequently." Frequencies were computed and the results in terms of percentages were initially low because "yes" answers were distributed among three categories. This made the answers in the "never" category appear much greater. This was attributed to the questionnaire asking the subjects to categorize "yes" answers by the degree of frequency in which any one act occurred. By running each category separately, the data failed to reveal any substantial results. After further review, it was hypothesized that the findings might show more meaningful results if all the positive responses ("yes" answers) were collapsed into a single variable. The data was then recoded in order to create a dichotomous variable in which all those who answered that an act "never occurred", remained as such, and all those who marked any of the other three "yes" categories were

grouped into one new category labeled, "yes, at least once or more".

The recoded data (see Appendix G) revealed that verbal abuse occurred at least once or more with 87 percent of the subjects reporting that they had been "yelled or screamed at". Fifty-two percent were "sworn or cursed at," 45 percent were "called dumb or lazy", and 48 percent were "threatened to be sent away or kicked out of the home". The type of minor corporal punishment one or both parents used as a means of discipline included such acts as being "spanked on the bottom with a bare hand" (71 percent), "hit on bottom with a hard object" (68 percent), and "slapped on hand, arm, or leg" (58 percent). Forty-five percent reported being "slapped on the face, head, or ears". Twenty-six percent of the men reported one or both parents used severe corporal punishment such as being "thrown or knocked down", "hit with a fist", or "kicked really hard" (22.6 percent).

Beginning with the milder forms of settling conflicts, 55 percent of the subjects reported to have heard one or both parents "swearing or cursing", and 58 percent witnessed one parent "doing or saying something to spite the other". Thirty-two percent of the subjects

reported that the manner in which conflicts were resolved, many times, escalated to the point of one or both parents "kicking something", or "throwing something at the other one". More aggressive tactics used involved one or the other "pushing, shoving, or grabbing the other one" (42 percent). Sixteen percent revealed that one parent "beat up the other one", and 23 percent of parents "kicked, bit, or hit the other one with a fist". Finally, 20 percent of the subjects disclosed that at least one parent had "threatened the other one with a gun or knife", or actually "used a gun or knife".

The shame subscale of the EMBU (see Appendix D) was used to rate the frequency of experiences encountered with parents based on the subjects' perceptions. Again, the data was collapsed into the two variables: "no, never"; or "yes, at least once or more".

The present data reveal three possible sources that produce shame in men who batter a) public scolding, b) random punishment, and c) generic criticism. All three appear to generate experiences of shame in terms of global attacks on the self. The majority of the subjects disclosed that they felt generic criticism from both parents, but more so with their fathers. The responses

given below indicate a tone of parental disapproval and disappointment.

Approximately 68 percent of the subjects felt their fathers "wished they had been different". Forty-six percent of the subjects indicated that their fathers had "made them feel ashamed", while 39 percent of the subjects answered that their mothers had "made them feel ashamed". Forty-eight percent of fathers and 32 percent of mothers were perceived as having treated the subject as the "black sheep". Thirty-two percent of the subjects recall being called "lazy and useless" by their father, while nearly 39 percent indicated their mother "acted mean and grudging toward them."

Recollections of shaming have been correlated with adult anger and tendencies to project blame. These two factors seem to be key elements in dealing with domestic batterers since shame has also been associated with the contrition phase of the abuse cycle (Wallace & Nosko, 1993). Until recently, little has been written about the treatment ramifications of abusive men who are prone to experiencing shame. It is recommended that shame, as it relates to intimate partner violence, be explored further as it appears to be the strongest finding of the study.

The final variable examined was exploring the relationship between attachment style and domestic battering as measured by the RQ (see Appendix G). Although this type of adult attachment instrument failed to yield significant correlations in the study, it did provide some findings worth mentioning. The primary intent behind using this instrument was to identify how the subjects viewed intimate relationships. Second, it was used to examine how family of origin violence and shaming related to each attachment category.

Results disclosed that 10 subjects (32 percent) chose the secure style of attachment. Out of those ten men, only three of them indicated that they did not experience any family of origin violence. For that matter, out of all 31 subjects surveyed, only a total of four subjects denied any family of origin violence, use of corporal punishment, and shaming by a parent.

Thirteen subjects (42 percent) selected the dismissing type of attachment style. All but one characterized one or both parents in negative terms such as abusive, distant, rejecting, strict, or uncaring. In addition, ten out of thirteen subjects revealed family of origin violence.

Eight subjects (26 percent) chose the paragraph describing a fearful attachment style. From these eight men, six are single, and two are married. It would seem reasonable that those who reported being single may have been prone to viewing relationships with distrust since they are not currently with a permanent partner, which may have offered them a greater sense of security. The other finding revealed in the study was that those in the fearful category also reported that they had experienced a moderate to a high degree of shame from one or both parents in the shame subscale of the EMBU. This group of subjects described that one or both parents had made them feel ashamed, criticized them, or physically punished them in the presence of others.

None of the subjects selected the preoccupied style of attachment, which describes those who desire total intimacy, but feel devalued by others. It would seem unlikely that on a self-reporting instrument such as the RQ, few, if any, would have admitted to feeling devalued by others. The reason being is that the subjects would have needed to consciously acknowledge that they do not feel respected or esteemed, thereby subjecting themselves to a vulnerable and possibly uncomfortable position.

It should be noted that other studies have successfully used this survey to measure for a preoccupied style of attachment in domestic batterers when additional instruments, such as face to face interviews, were used in conjunction with the RQ to increase its validity (Bartholomew, 1991).

Bivariate correlations were run on the data that was contained in all four instruments, and there were a number of findings that support a relationship exists between exposure to family of origin violence and shaming by one or both parents.

Beginning with physical abuse, interparental abuse was significantly correlated with moderate to severe use of child corporal punishment (see Appendix I). For example, those subjects who stated they were slapped on their face, head, or ears, correlated with parents who threw things ($r = .535$, $p = .002$), hit and kicked ($r = .510$, $p = .003$), pushed and shoved ($r = .429$, $p = .022$), or slapped the other ($r = .505$, $p = .004$). Resorting to more aggressive actions, those subjects who were kicked, thrown down, or hit with a fist correlated with more severe forms of interparental violence (see Appendix I).

Paternal shaming (see Appendix J) was significantly correlated with having an abusive paternal caretaker ($r = .541$, $p = .003$), being called lazy and useless ($r = .387$, $p = .042$), and having been treated as the black sheep by father ($r = .662$, $p < .001$). Maternal shaming (almost 40 percent of mothers) (see Appendix J) was positively correlated with the subject feeling it was his fault when his mother was unhappy ($r = .490$, $p = .006$), being called lazy and useless ($r = .743$, $p < .001$), mother acting mean and grudging toward subject ($r = .743$, $p < .001$), and being treated as the black sheep by mother ($r = .606$, $p = .001$).

Limitations

Since the study was not based on a random sample and the number of participants ($n = 31$) was limited, the study is not seeking to use the findings as a representative of the general population. The subjects were solicited from a small agency in a predominantly Hispanic community. A cultural limitation of this study was that most subjects came from a traditional Hispanic family (75 percent) where the mother stayed at home and took care of the children. Twenty-five years ago and

before, divorce was discouraged, therefore, the percentage of parents who remained married during that time would be expected to be higher than that of the current general population (McLoyd et al., 2000).

It is uncertain as to the subjects' degree of voluntary participation in this study, since the group leader had told the subjects beforehand that they would be allowed to leave early if they agreed to participate. This may or may not have influenced the subjects to participate, even if they did not truly want to. Many may have put down whatever answer came to mind first, or replied promptly so that they could finish it and be able to leave early. It is not known if the subjects may have felt socially pressured to partake in the study.

There were other potential limitations to the proposed study. The participants may not have accurately remembered past relationships with their parents at crucial stages in life, particularly if any violence occurred very early in childhood. By collapsing the responses into dichotomous variables, the findings may have compensated for some of this potential error. Memories and interpretations may also have been inaccurate due to time and current circumstance. The

participants may not have wanted to reveal such personal information, or they may not have been able to acknowledge the truth because accurate recollections may have been too painful to admit. On the other hand, they may have idealized the relationship that they had with their parents growing up, and inadvertently or deliberately given false information.

Another limitation may have been dependent on the number of weeks the subjects had in the program. The average number of weeks was nine; therefore, most of the participants were new to the program and may not have yet acquired the insight necessary to honestly evaluate the reality of any violence they may have experienced in their family.

An additional limitation noted is that the subjects' present relationship status may have influenced their choice in the RQ (see Appendix G). It is possible that those who are currently married, or in some form of a relationship, may have felt that it was easier to mark that they felt comfortable with close relationships (secure style) because they already have one established.

The current agency may have also confounded the subjects' responses as a result of having been in an

involuntary setting. It is probable that the subjects felt defensive or guarded because they did not trust that their actions or responses would not be monitored and reported to their probation officer. On the other hand, due to the paragraphs being so vague and general, it is impossible to address all the limitations associated with this instrument. Due to time constraints and limited access to the sample of subjects used in this study, the ability to pilot test the instrument to determine test-retest reliability scores was not possible.

It is unknown how much of a role substance abuse has played in the homes of the subjects while growing up. It may have been that the only time a parent was abusive was when he or she had been under the influence of drugs or alcohol. Many of these subjects may have gotten involved with the courts for the same reason. If that was the case then it is possible the family dynamics were not similar to what has been discussed in this study. The matter of intimate partner abuse that is attributed to substance abuse is beyond the scope of the current study and therefore, not addressed, only acknowledged.

Finally, this study did not assess the subjects for personality disorders. Anti-social and borderline

personality disorders are often found in batterers who are in a group program for domestic violence (Dutton, van Ginkel, & Starzomski, 1995). Not all batterers are the same, and there is a great difference between the man who occasionally acts violently by reason of perceived abandonment (borderline) and one who has a persistent violent temperament (anti-social). Personality disorders are developmental by nature and tend to be ingrained into the makeup of the individual. Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) found that these types of individuals seem to have developed psychopathology due to a severe degree of violence in the family of origin, parental rejection, lack of parental interest, and serious child abuse. These men often develop attachment problems and hostile attitudes towards women. Batterers who have personality disorders are typically, extremely resistant to treatment because they do not realize that they have a problem. Treatment for these individuals needs to be on-going, and past research has shown that individuals with personality disorders have difficulty making any lasting improvements in their behavior (Dutton et al., 1994). The damage done to the psyche is formed at an early age and is more

complicated than what this study is able to focus on at this time (Dutton, van Ginkel, & Starzomski, 1995).

Discussion

This project is to be viewed as an exploratory study based on the perceptions and recollections of 31 men who have been mandated to a court-ordered domestic violence intervention program. The reader should keep in mind that it was not the purpose of this study to establish causality, but merely to determine the relationship between specific theoretically related variables and intimate partner abuse. The findings presented here are meant to be supported by other similar studies that have examined family of origin violence, parental shaming and insecure attachment in a more critical manner (Dutton, 1995; Dutton, van Ginkel & Starzomski, 1995; Sugarman & Hotaling, 1986). For example, Sugarman and Hotaling (1986) found that two factors relating to family of origin aggression emerged as risk markers for husband violence. The first was measuring the frequency of witnessing parental aggression, and the second was measuring parental aggression directed toward the respondent. This corresponds with findings in this study,

which revealed that interparental violence was correlated with the use of corporal punishment.

Dutton, van Ginkel and Starzomski, (1995) examined parental behaviors that are related with intimate partner violence by collecting self-reports from men in treatment for domestic violence. After adjusting for social desirability, recalled paternal shaming correlated significantly with adult abusiveness. Once again, in the present study, parental shaming within this sample of batterers was strongly indicated as well.

The results from the descriptive terms used by the subjects to characterize their parents revealed some notable contradictions. It appeared that some parents who were rated as warm and understanding were also the parents who sometimes slapped, hit, or knocked the subjects down. Many subjects described their fathers as distant or strict. These two terms usually indicated a father who used some form of corporal punishment.

The pattern that appeared most in this study was that if the parents were engaging in interparental violence, then the father was also using corporal punishment to varying degrees. Typically, the more

violent the interparental altercations, the more severe or frequent was the use of corporal punishment.

The findings on attachment style in this study offer a loosely based generality on one group of men. Although the instrument used may have proven to be too broad to reveal any significant results, it is still interesting to note that 26 percent of the subjects made a conscious decision to mark that they did want to have an emotionally intimate relationship, but were afraid of being hurt if they allowed themselves to get too close. These subjects had enough insight to recognize that they lack trust in others. Due to a lack of trust, many individuals with fearful and preoccupied patterns of attachment are prone to experience anxiety about abandonment in their intimate relationships. These are the attachment patterns believed to be positively related to anger, jealousy, and affective instability (Dutton, Saunders & Starzomski, 1994).

Main and Goldwyn (1988) found that individuals with a dismissing style of attachment tended to depreciate the value of attachment relationships and the influence of their childhood experiences on present functioning. Their parents were described as cold, indifferent, aloof or

rejecting, and were likely to be remembered as unsupportive in times of stress. These adults also lacked consistency in their childhood accounts, often idealizing their parents in spite of specific memories that were contradictory.

The above findings concur with the findings presented in this study. Those who rated themselves as having a dismissing style of attachment were the same subjects who marked one or both parents as having been abusive, distant, rejecting, strict or uncaring, implying a certain coldness from the parent(s). This may reinforce the idea that the dismissing type does not expect love and support from others and therefore, has learned not to expect it or request it. Applying this mentality to an intimate partner relationship, the dismissing type may be characterized as distant, unyielding, callous, and lacking empathy for his partner. The lack of empathy is a common occurrence with domestic batterers because many times, they are unable to see any one else's point of view except their own. They do not seem to have sufficient insight that would allow them to experience what it would be like to be their partner, or to realize

how their abusive behaviors would affect them emotionally, and physically.

One should keep in mind that individuals do not fit neatly into simple categories. It would be more accurate to say that most individuals show a complex profile across attachment patterns, and there is considerable overlapping of styles (Bartholomew, 1997). More important is the combination of each partner's style and how it complements or opposes the other. Couples with conflicting attachment styles may actually antagonize each other inadvertently, thus potentially escalating aggression into violence (Mayseless, 1991). The degree and nature of the contrast in adult attachment styles may insinuate separation, and consequently, have an impact on the possibility of violence occurring in the relationship. A male with an insecure attachment style in a relationship with a more secure female may interpret her more independent behaviors as rejection and react violently. Assessing the attachment style of the battering partner may be just as important as assessing the style of the batterer.

Implications for social work may benefit from further investigating which behaviors seem to contribute

to the development of an abusive adult. It follows that we need to continue to study the role shame plays in forming the seriously destructive foundation of a batterer. If parental shaming creates abusive men with attachment problems, then therapy should thoroughly address the impact of shaming. In doing so, therapeutic interventions may begin by providing educational opportunities to parents that better equip them with skills to provide a more secure and nurturing environment. Parents need to be informed and taught appropriate methods for how to communicate, discipline, and interact with their child without the use of criticism, or physical punishment. Individual therapies for the child and family are needed to address the concerns and uniqueness of each family member along with the unit as a whole.

Exploring the upbringing of the parent(s) may provide them with insight and foster the motivation to change maladaptive ways that harm their children. It may also be an opportunity to model appropriate attachment-related and nonviolent means of discipline. Parents and their children need to learn appropriate ways to express anger and practice newly taught skills so that new

behaviors may begin replacing the destructive patterns previously displayed.

Attachment theory has proven particularly useful in understanding parent-child relationships, and introductory work with adults suggests that it may offer valuable information in this new area of application. Current studies agree with the supposition that early experiences in the family contribute to the formation of representational models that guide emotional reactions, interaction patterns, and expectations in adult personal relationships. Although confirmation showing direct links between childhood experiences and adult attachment patterns is still lacking, evidence does indicate that individuals' organization of their childhood experiences plays a role in establishing the quality of their adult personal relationships (Bartholomew, 1997).

A challenge for future work is to explore the ideological assumptions underlying the concept of attachment styles, and to judiciously examine the manner in which attachment patterns are developed, processed, and interpreted to accommodate new relationships and experiences.

APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENT

Dear Participant:

This study is being conducted by Larissa Elias, a graduate student, under the supervision of Herschel Knapp, M.S.S.W., research advisor with guidance from Rosemary McCaslin, Ph.D., A.C.S.W., Coordinator of Master of Social Work Research.

As a participant in a Domestic Violence Treatment Program you are being asked to answer a four-part questionnaire. Part one will ask you to provide information about yourself. Part two is regarding physical conflicts experienced in your home prior to age 18. Part three asks for you to recall memories from your upbringing, and part four asks you to select the attachment style that fits you best. The questionnaire should take about 10-15 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary; you may withdraw your consent to participate at any time and discontinue participation at anytime. Your decision to participate or not will affect your treatment program in any way.

There will be no identifying marks on the questionnaires. Please do not put your names on the questionnaire. All questionnaires will be confidential and the name of the agency will not be mentioned in the study. Please be assured that any information you provide will be held in strict confidence by the researcher. At the conclusion of this study, you may receive a report of the results by contacting Sandra Nix at (562) 691-3263 in June, 2001. The only significant risk from participating in this study is possible stress from recalling past events. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Department of Social Work Sub-Committee of the Institutional Review Board of California State University, San Bernardino.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact Rosemary McCaslin, Ph. D., A.C.S.W. at (909) 880-5507.

I wish to remind you that this research will be confidential and your comments will remain anonymous. Thank you for your assistance and cooperation with this study.

Researcher's Signature

Date

By checking the box provided below and dating this form, you acknowledge that you have been informed and understand the nature of the study and freely consent to participate. You further acknowledge that you are at least 18 years of age.

I Agree to Participate in the Study _____ (Check if you agree)

Today's Date Is: _____

APPENDIX B
DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

You have participated in a research study conducted by Larissa Elias, graduate student of social work at California State University, San Bernardino to explore styles of attachment, conflicts experienced in your home while growing up, and recollections of your upbringing. The Department of Social Work Sub-Committee of the Institutional Review Board at California State University, San Bernardino approved the study.

It is hoped that this study will increase the knowledge of social work practitioners to have a better understanding of childhood predictors that influence the development of abusive behavior in adulthood.

For questions or concerns about the study please contact Rosemary McCaslin, Ph.D., A.C.S.W. at (909) 880-5507. A brief summary of the findings and conclusions of the study will be available after June 1, 2001 and may be obtained through The Gary Center by contacting Sandra Nix at (562) 691-3263.

Thank you for your participation in the study.

APPENDIX C

SUBJECT DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Today's date _____
2. How old are you? _____
3. How many weeks have you been in this program? _____
4. What is your occupation? _____
5. What is your ethnicity? (check 1)
 - ☐ African-American
 - ☐ Asian
 - ☐ Caucasian
 - ☐ Hispanic/Latin
 - ☐ Native American
 - ☐ Other _____
6. What is your highest level of education completed (check 1)
 - ☐ K-6
 - ☐ 7-8
 - ☐ 9-11
 - ☐ High school graduate
 - ☐ Received a G.E.D.
 - ☐ Some college
 - ☐ A.A. Degree
 - ☐ B.A. / B.S. Degree
 - ☐ Graduate Degree
7. What is your gross yearly income (check 1)
 - ☐ Below \$10,000
 - ☐ \$10,001 to \$20,000
 - ☐ \$21,001 to \$30,000
 - ☐ \$31,001 to \$40,000
 - ☐ \$41,001 to \$50,000
 - ☐ More than \$50,000
8. How many hours do you work per week (check 1)
 - ☐ Unemployed
 - ☐ Less than 40 hours per week
 - ☐ 40 or more hours per week

9. What is your current relationship status? (check 1)
- ☐ Divorced
 - ☐ Married
 - ☐ Separated
 - ☐ Significant other
 - ☐ Single
10. Who primarily raised you? (check 1)
- ☐ Both parents
 - ☐ Mother only
 - ☐ Mother and step-father
 - ☐ Father only
 - ☐ Father and step-mother
 - ☐ Grandmother and/or grandfather
 - ☐ Aunt and/or uncle
 - ☐ Foster parent(s)
 - ☐ Adoptive parent(s)
 - ☐ Other _____
11. How many siblings did you grow up with? _____
12. What was your father's or paternal caretaker's primary occupation during your childhood? _____
13. What was your mother's or maternal caretaker's primary occupation during your childhood? _____
14. How would you rate your family's economic status during childhood/adolescence (circle 1 number)

Poor		Middle Class			Wealthy	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. How would you generally describe your mother or maternal caretaker?
(check all that apply)

- ☐ Abusive
- ☐ Affectionate
- ☐ Distant
- ☐ Domineering
- ☐ Faultfinding
- ☐ Overprotective
- ☐ Rejecting
- ☐ Strict
- ☐ Uncaring
- ☐ Understanding
- ☐ Warm

16. How would you generally describe your father or paternal caretaker?
(check all that apply)

- ☐ Abusive
- ☐ Affectionate
- ☐ Distant
- ☐ Domineering
- ☐ Faultfinding
- ☐ Overprotective
- ☐ Rejecting
- ☐ Strict
- ☐ Uncaring
- ☐ Understanding
- ☐ Warm

APPENDIX D
SHAME SUB-SCALE OF EMBU

Did your parents remain together during your childhood? Yes ____ No ____ . If "no," please indicate your age at the time of separation: _____ years old. Whom did you then live with? Mother _____ Father _____ Other (specify) _____.

Beside each statement, please circle the number of the response listed below (1-4) that best describes how often the experience happened to you with your mother (or female guardian) and father (or male guardian) when you were growing up. If you had more than one mother/father figure, please answer for the persons who you feel played the most important role in your upbringing.

**In the questionnaire below, F is father or male guardian and M is mother or female guardian.

		No never	Yes but seldom	Yes often	Yes most of the time
1.	I think that my parent(s) wished I had been different in some way.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
2.	As a child, I was physically punished or scolded in the presence of others.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
3.	My parent(s) would narrate (mimic) or say something about what I had said or done in front of others so that I felt ashamed.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
4.	I was treated as the "black sheep" or "scapegoat" of the family.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
5.	I felt my parent(s) thought it was my fault when he/she was unhappy.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
6.	I think my parent(s) were mean and grudging toward me.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
7.	I was punished by my parent(s) without having done anything.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
8.	My parent(s) criticized me and told me how lazy and useless I was in front of others.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
9.	My parent(s) beat me for no reason.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
10.	My parent(s) treated me in such a way that I felt ashamed.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4
11.	My parent(s) would be angry with me without letting me know why.	F 1	2	3	4
		M 1	2	3	4

APPENDIX E

PARENT-CHILD CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE

Children and/or adolescents often do things that are wrong, disobey, or make their parents angry. We would like to know what your parent(s)/guardian did to you when you did something wrong or made them upset or angry. Please circle how often your parent(s)/guardian did each of the following to you while growing up.

		Never	Sometimes	Often	Frequently
a.	Threatened to spank or hit me but did not actually do it	0	1	2	3
b.	Shouted, yelled, or screamed at me	0	1	2	3
c.	Swore or cursed at me	0	1	2	3
d.	Called me dumb or lazy or some other name like that	0	1	2	3
e.	Said I would be sent away or kicked out of the house	0	1	2	3
f.	Spanked me on the bottom with their bare hand	0	1	2	3
g.	Hit me on the bottom with something like a belt, a stick, or some other hard object	0	1	2	3
h.	Slapped me on the hand, arm, or leg	0	1	2	3
i.	Pinched me	0	1	2	3
j.	Slapped me on the face or head or ears	0	1	2	3
k.	Hit me on some other part of the body besides the bottom with something like a belt, a brush, a stick or some other hard object	0	1	2	3
l.	Threw or knocked me down	0	1	2	3
m.	Hit me with a fist or kicked me hard	0	1	2	3

APPENDIX F
CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE

No matter how well one's parents get along, there are times when they disagree, get annoyed with the other person, want different things from each other, or just have spats or fights because they are in a bad mood, are tired, or for some other reason. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. This is a list of things that might have happened in your home while you were growing up. Please circle how often you witnessed or heard each of these things occurring between your parents or primary guardians during your childhood and adolescent years.

My mother / father did the following...

		Never	Sometimes	Often	Frequently
a.	Insulted or swore at the other one	0	1	2	3
b.	Sulked and/or refused to talk about it	0	1	2	3
c.	Stomped out of the room, house, or yard	0	1	2	3
d.	Cried	0	1	2	3
e.	Did or said something to spite the other one	0	1	2	3
f.	Threatened to hit or throw something at the other one	0	1	2	3
g.	Threw, smashed, hit, or kicked something	0	1	2	3
h.	Threw something at the other one	0	1	2	3
i.	Pushed, shoved, or grabbed the other one	0	1	2	3
j.	Slapped the other one	0	1	2	3
k.	Kicked, bit, or hit with a fist	0	1	2	3
l.	Hit or tried to hit with something	0	1	2	3
m.	Beat up the other one	0	1	2	3
n.	Threatened with a gun or knife	0	1	2	3
o.	Used a knife or gun	0	1	2	3

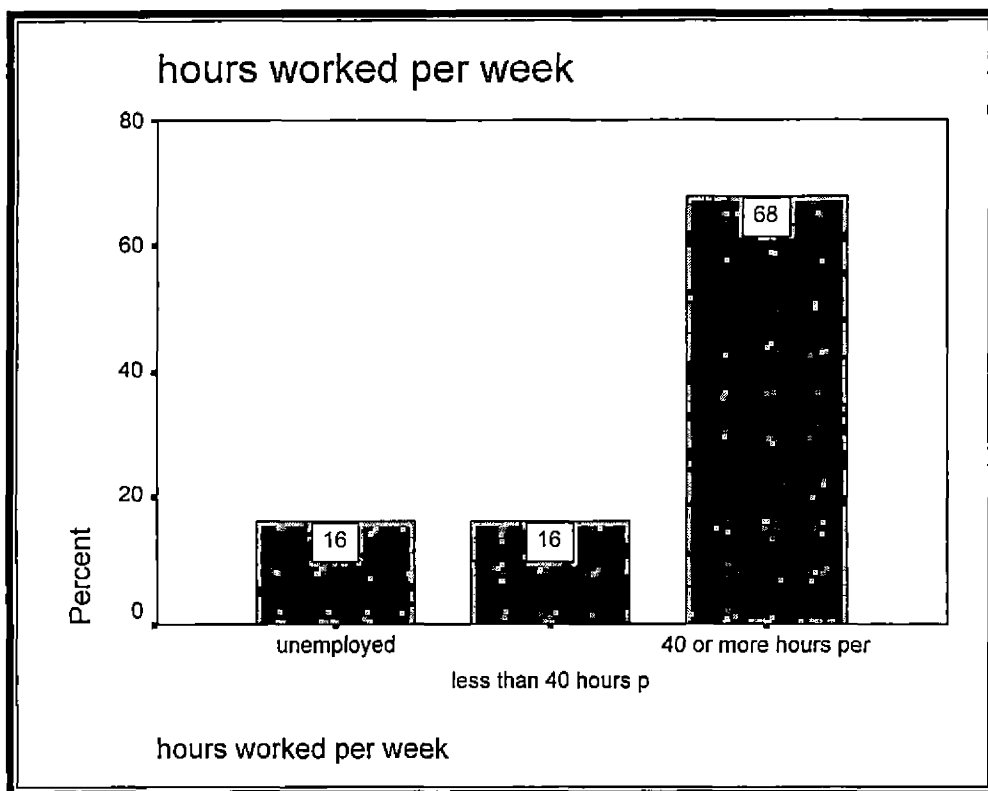
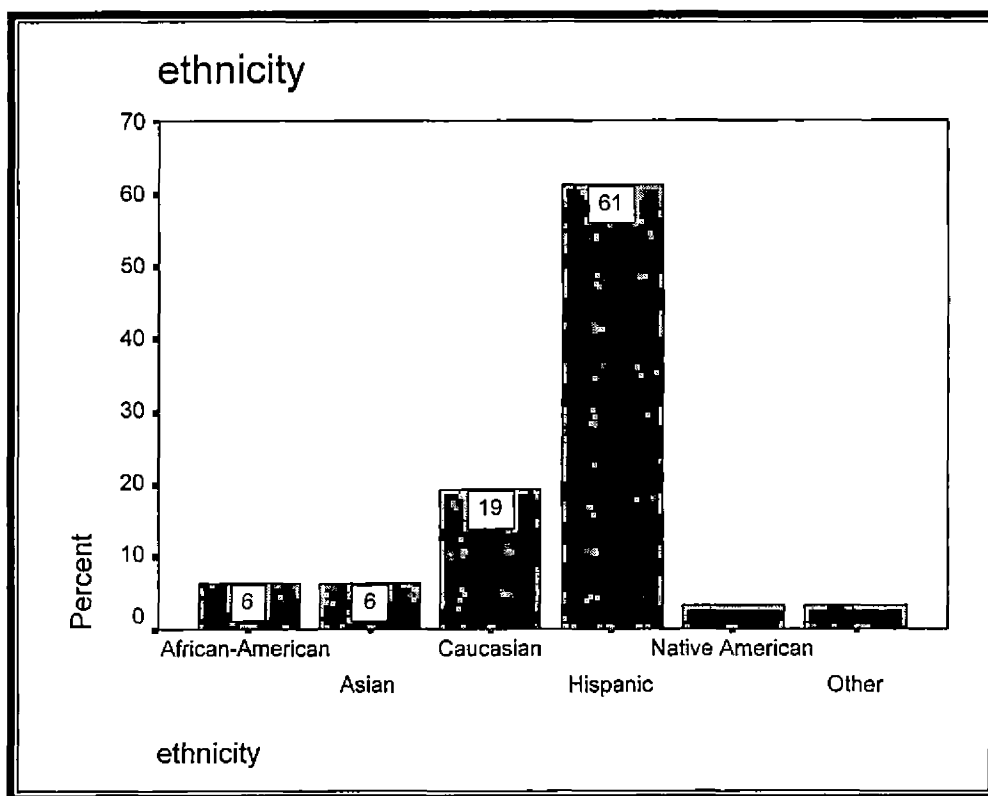
APPENDIX G
THE RELATIONSHIP
QUESTIONNAIRE

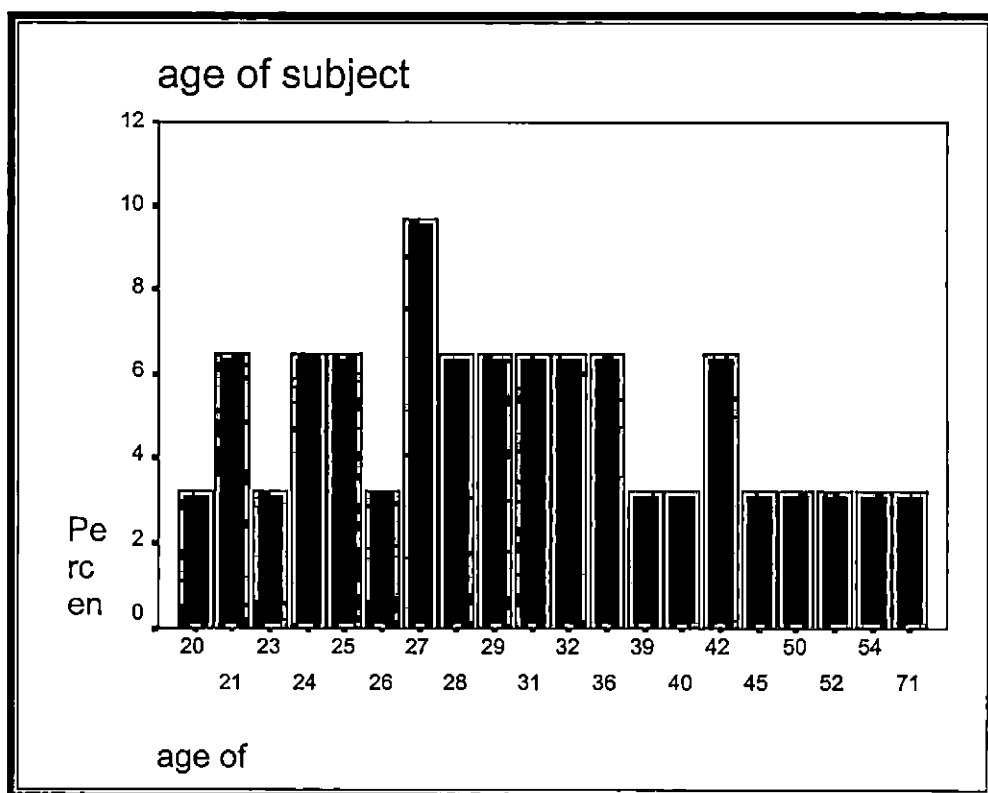
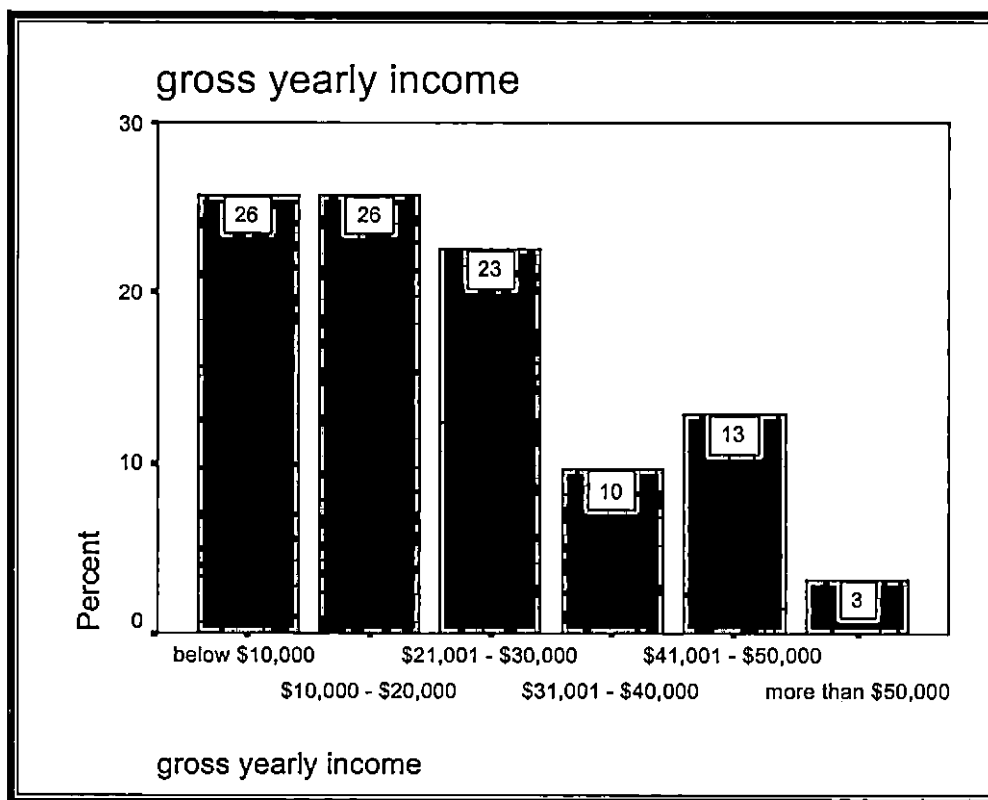
Please read the following 4 paragraphs, and check the box beside the one that best describes your feelings (check only 1 answer).

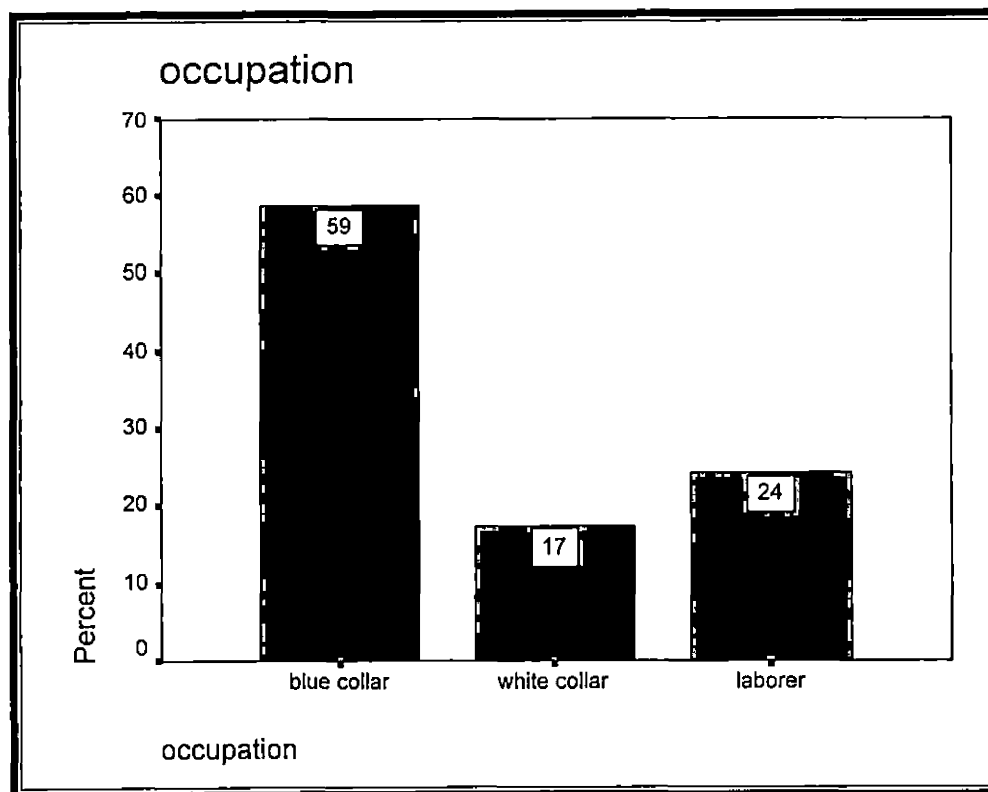
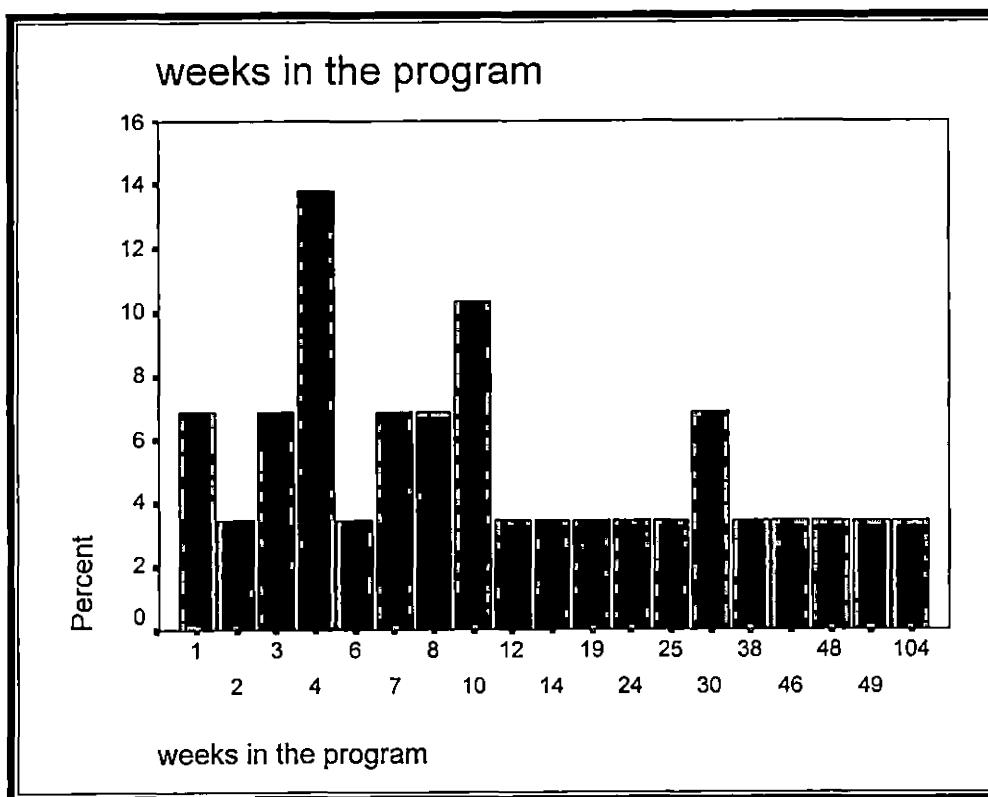
- ☐ It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.
- ☐ I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.
- ☐ I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.
- ☐ I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.

*Thank you for participating in this research project.
Your assistance has been greatly appreciated.*

APPENDIX H
DEMOGRAPHICS







APPENDIX I
INTERPARENTAL AND CORPORAL
PUNISHMENT

Inter-parental violence correlated with moderate use of corporal punishment

Parental violence		Use of moderate corporal punishment (e.g. Slapped on face, head, or ear)
Threw something at the other one	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.535 ** .002
Pushed, shoved, or grabbed the other one	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.429* .022
Slapped the other one	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.505** .004
Kicked, bit, or hit with a fist	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.510** .003

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Inter-parental violence correlated with severe use of corporal punishment

Parental violence		Use of severe corporal punishment	
		e.g. threw or knocked me down	e.g. hit me with a fist or kicked me hard
Threw or knocked me down	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)		.610 ** < .001
Hit me with a fist or kicked me hard	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.610 ** < .001	
Kicked, bit, or hit with a fist	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.537 ** .002	.570 ** .001
Threatened with a gun or knife	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.462 ** .009	.336 .065
Used a gun or knife	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.336 .065	.517 ** .003

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX J
PARENTAL SHAMING

Paternal shaming correlations

Paternal		Father made me feel ashamed
Paternal caretaker abusive	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.541 ** .003
Treated as "black sheep" by father	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.662 ** < .001
Father called me lazy and useless	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.387 * .042

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Maternal shaming correlations

Maternal		Mother made me feel ashamed
Treated as "black sheep" by mother	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.606 ** < .001
My fault when mother unhappy	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.490 ** .006
Mother acted mean and grudging toward me	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.728 ** < .001
Mother called me lazy and useless	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.743 ** < .001

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

REFERENCES

- Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). Patterns of attachment. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Amato, P. R. (1991). Psychological distress and the recall of childhood family characteristics. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 53, 1011-1019.
- Bartholomew, K. & Horowitz, L. M. (1991). Attachment styles among young adults: A test of a four-category model. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61(2), 226-244.
- Bartholomew, K. (1990). Avoidance of intimacy: An attachment perspective. Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 7, 147-178.
- Bartholomew, K. (1997). Adult attachment processes: Individual and couple perspectives. British Journal of Medical Psychology, 70, 249-263.
- Berry, D. B. (1998). The domestic violence sourcebook. Los Angeles, CA: Lowell House.
- Bowlby, J. (1969). Attachment and loss: Vol. 1. Attachment, New York: Penguin Books.
- Bowlby, J. (1973). Attachment and loss: Vol. 2. Separation, anxiety, and anger, Basic Books, New York.
- Bowlby, J. (1980). Attachment and loss: Vol. 3. Loss. London: Hogarth Press.
- Caesar, P. L. (1988). Exposure to violence in the families-of-origin among wife abusers and maritally nonviolent men. Violence and Victims, 3, 49-63.
- Cassidy, J. & Shaver, P. (1999). Handbook of attachment: Theory, research, and clinical applications. New York, N.Y.
- Dutton, D. G. (1995). The Batterer: A psychological profile. New York: Basic Books.

- Dutton, D. G. (1998). The abusive personality: Violence and control in intimate relationships. New York, N.Y.: Guilford Press.
- Dutton, D. G. (1999). Traumatic origins of intimate rage. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 4(4), 431-447.
- Dutton, D. G., & Starzomski, A. (1994). Psychological differences between court-referred and self-referred wife assaulters. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 21, 203-222.
- Dutton, D. G., Saunders, K., Starzomski, A., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Intimacy-anger and insecure attachment as precursors of abuse and intimate relationships. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 24: 1367-1386.
- Dutton, D. G., van Ginkel, C. & Starzomski, A. J., (1995). The role of shame and guilt in the intergenerational transmission of abusiveness. Violence and Victims, 10(2), 121-131.
- Dutton, D.G., van Ginkel, C., & Landolt, M.A. (1996). Jealousy, intimate abusiveness, and intrusiveness. Journal of Family Violence, 11(4), 411-423.
- Egeland, B., Sroufe, L. A., & Erickson, M. F. (1983). The developmental consequences of different patterns of maltreatment. Child Abuse and Neglect, 7: 459-469.
- Gelles, R. J. (1994). Family violence, abuse and neglect. In McKenry, P. C. and Price, S. J. (eds.), Families and Change: Coping with Stressful Events, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 52, 511-524.
- Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Stuart, G., & Hutchinson, G. (1997). Violent versus nonviolent husbands: Differences in attachment patterns, dependency, and jealousy. Journal of Family Psychology, 11 (3), 314-331.

- Holzworth-Munroe, A., & Stuart, G. L. (1994). Typologies of male batterers: Three subtypes and the difference among them. Psychological Bulletin, 116, 476-497.
- Hotaling, G. T. & Sugarman, D. B. (1986). An analysis of risk markers in husband to wife violence: The current state of knowledge. Violence and Victims, 1(2), 101-124.
- Jaffe, P., Wolfe, D., & Wilson, S. K. (1990). Children of battered women. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Johnston, M. E. (1988). Correlates of early violence experience among men who are abusive toward female mates. In G.T. Hotaling, D. Finkelhor, J. T. Kirkpatrick, & M. A. Straus (Eds.), Family abuse and its consequences: New directions in research. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kalmuss, D. S. (1984). The intergenerational transmission of marital aggression. Journal of marriage and Family, 46, 11-19.
- Mayseless, O. (1991). Adult attachment patterns and courtship violence. Family Relations, 40, 21-28.
- McGuire, J. & Earls, F. (1993). Exploring the reliability of measures of family relations, parental attitudes, and parent-child relations in a disadvantaged minority population. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 55, 1042-1046.
- McLoyd, V. C., Cauce, A. M., Takeuchi, D., & Wilson, L. (2000). Marital processes and parental socialization in families of color: A decade review of research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62(4), 1070-1094.
- Pan, H. S., Neidig, P. H., & O'Leary, K. D. (1994). Predicting mild and severe husband to wife aggression. Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology, 62, 975-981.

- Perris, C., Jacobsson, L., Lindstrom, H., von Knorring, L., & Perris, H. (1980). Development of a new inventory for assessing memories of parental rearing behaviour. ACTA Psychiatrica Scandinavica, 61, 265-274.
- Rosenbaum, A. & O'Leary, D. K. (1981). Children: The unintended victims of marital violence. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 51, 692-699.
- Ross, M. W., Campbell, R. I., & Clayer, J. R. (1982). New inventory for measurement of parental rearing patterns: An English form of the EMBU. ACTA Psychiatrica Scandinavica, 66, 499-507.
- Scharfe, E., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Reliability and stability of adult attachment patterns. Personal Relationships, 1, 23-43.
- Scheff, T. J. (1987). The shame-rage spiral: A case of an interminable quarrel. In D. G. Dutton, Traumatic origins of intimate rage. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 4(4), pp. 431-447.
- Singer, M. I., Miller, D. B., Guo, S., Slovak, K., & Frierson, T. (1998). The mental health consequences of children's exposure to violence. Cleveland, OH: Cayahoga County Community Mental Health Research Institute, Mandel School of Applied Social Sciences, Case Western Reserve University.
- Sonkin, D. J., Martin, D., and Walker, L. (1985). The male batterer: A treatment approach. New York: Springer.
- Straus, M. A. & Hamby, S. L. (1997). Measuring physical and psychological maltreatment of children with the Conflict Tactics Scales. In G. Kaufman Kantor & J. L. Jasinski (Eds.), Out of the darkness: Contemporary research perspective on family violence. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Straus, M. A. (1979). Measuring intrafamily conflict and violence: The conflict tactics scales. Journal of marriage and the family, 41, 75-78.

- Straus, M. A., Gelles, R.J., & Steinmetz, S. (1980). Behind closed doors: Violence in the American family. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday.
- Straus, M. A., Hamby, S. L., Finkelhor, D., Moore, D., & Runyan, D. (1998). The parent-child conflict tactic scales: Development and psychometric data for a national sample of parents. Child Abuse & Neglect, 22(4), 249-270.
- van der Kolk, B. (1987). Psychological trauma. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press.
- Wallace, R., & Nosko, A. (1993). Working with shame in the group treatment of male batterers. International Group Psychotherapy, 43, 45-61.
- Widom, C. S. (1989). The intergenerational transmission of violence. New York: Harry Frank Guggenheim Foundation