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The University of Oklahoma

Graduate College

RELATIONSHIP AGGRESSION, MARITAL SATISFACTION, AND GENDER DIFFERENCES: THE EFFECTS OF HISTORIC TRAUMA, TRADITIONALITY, ALCOHOL AND DRUG USE, AND INFLUENCE OF PARENT RELATIONSHIP AGGRESSION WITH OKLAHOMA AMERICAN INDIAN AND EURO-AMERICAN SAMPLES

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

SHARLA ROBBINS
Norman, Oklahoma
2002

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A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

APPROVED BY:

Cal Stoltenberg, Chair

Denise Beesley, Member

Jody Newman, Member

Grayson Noley, Member

Larry Toothaker, Member

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I would like to dedicate this to my husband and children. Rockey, you are Shakespeare and Kant and Chief Joseph reincarnate. Your brilliance has been my inspiration throughout this process as well as in life. Necia, you have become a European scholar and marathon runner this year. Your ability to be an awesome powerhouse and a sensitive, insightful young woman has reminded me to work toward balance. Jesse, I respect your dedication to being a traditional and spiritual human being, as well as being a fun person. Thanks for all the diversions through your ball games and jokes. Lindsey, you carve your own world through your artwork and unique style. Thanks for your encouragement and understanding through this process. I love you all!

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Abstract vii

Introduction 1

Method 31

Results 36

Discussion 52

References 69

Appendix A. Tables 79

Appendix B. Prospectus 100

Appendix C. Instruments and Inventories 157

Appendix D: Research Agreements 168

Abstract

The current study investigated relationship aggression and marital satisfaction in Oklahoma American Indian relationships. The influence of traditionality, historic trauma, and presence of parents' relationship aggression were examined; additionally, demographics such as age of participant, years in relationship, education level, and socioeconomic status were considered. One hundred eighty-four participants, both American Indian and Euro-American, completed a packet of inventories and questionnaires: the Conflict Tactic Scales, 2nd edition (CTS-2); the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS); an Historic Trauma questionnaire and a Demographics sheet. The American Indian participants were administered the Life Perspectives Scale, Version B (LPS-B). Resulting data were analyzed by ethnicity (American Indian and Euro-American) and gender. Results indicated there is a link between psychological aggression and physical aggression for the Oklahoma American Indian sample. Several different variables were found to influence each type of relationship aggression, and each gender endorsed predictor variables differently. The hypothesis that Oklahoma American Indians experience higher levels of relationship aggression was confirmed; however, this sample did not indicate that marital satisfaction was lower than the Euro-American sample.

Relationship Aggression, Marital Satisfaction, and Gender Differences: The Effects of Historic Trauma, Traditionality, Alcohol and Drug Use, and Influence of Parent Relationship Aggression with Oklahoma American Indian and Euro-American Samples

Relationship aggression has been a relevant problem for couples of all American ethnic and cultural groups. Neither sex is exempt from experiencing the devastating consequences of relationship aggression. In 1996, four million American women experienced a serious assault by an intimate partner (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997). Browne and Williams (1993) reported that thirty-nine percent of deaths due to relationship aggression during the period between 1976 and 1987 were men killed by female partners. As an example, the latest Oklahoma execution was of a woman, Marilyn Plantz, for killing her husband. In a recent analysis of 95 articles regarding spousal abuse, roughly 65% of the studies report equal violence between genders: as many females perpetrate violence as males (Bureau of Justice, 1996).

The study of aggression has a long history. Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears's *Frustration and Aggression* (1939) was a landmark publication that helped identify aggression as a construct that is something other than instinctual. Before this publication, psychologists and the general public considered aggression as a part of human character, and thus, unavoidable. This series of studies helped to

identify aggressive behavior as futile, and it opened up possibilities of handling negative relationship conflicts in ways other than aggressively destructive. Though each individual acts aggressively due to distinct reasons, some common patterns that transcend both gender and culture occur. Evidence suggests that the level of aggression shown in adult behavior is strongly influenced by certain powerful variables, for example experiencing violent behavior or growing up in poverty. These variables shade perception, which determines whether a person will react aggressively to a negative stimulus (Popplestone & White-McPhearson, 1988).

Popplestone and White-McPherson's definition of aggression: "actions that are intended to degrade, harm, injure, or destroy" will define *aggression* for this study; the idea of hostile aggression, including the notion of intent to damage, rather than "aggressive" assertiveness is the focus. Aggression is an *act* that is operationalized through a destructive physical or psychological manner of interaction with a spouse or partner.

Physical aggression may be the most readily identifiable type of aggression due to its perceptible outcomes. Bruises, whelps, broken bones, and scars too often are results. Much of the early research done regarding relationship aggression centered around domestic violence and physical aggression. Acknowledging that physical aggression does not always leave visible signs, for this study the term *physical aggression* defines a form of behavior rather than the consequences produced or intended. Physical aggression can be acted out through slapping, shoving, throwing objects, and many other methods. Because of differing perceptions of and reactions to aggressive behavior, escalation from anger to violence can occur. Echardt, Barbour,

and Davison (1998) researched physically aggressive and nonviolent men during anger arousal, finding that physical aggression escalates for physically aggressive men when they misconstrue or distort situations that results in an increased likelihood of marital anger and aggression. They found that pushing, shoving, and grabbing were the most common forms of marital violence among these men. O'Leary (1993) reported variables that predict physical aggression are associated with modeling of physical aggression, having been abused as a child, having an aggressive personality style, and accepting violence as a means of control.

Psychological aggression can be as devastating to a relationship and to its participants as physical aggression (Julian, McKenry, Gavazzi, & Law, 1999). Due to lack of physical evidence, psychological aggression is less monitored and rebuked by society. It appears to be more widespread and persistent than physical aggression, impacting the mental well being of the recipient as well. Included in the psychological aggression category is verbal aggression (language that is meant to convey control, belittlement, or damage to the recipient, including threats of desertion and attacks of personal worth) and coercive non-verbal behavior, (such as slamming doors or smashing objects intended to threaten or harm the recipient). Verbal aggression is highly related to marital conflict (O'Leary, 1993).

The link between psychological and physical aggression. Recent research has focused on the development of relationship aggression in order to better understand and possibly prevent violent conflicts. Researchers have begun to examine physical aggression resulting from an escalated progression in which verbal aggression and psychological threats are precursors. Murphy and O'Leary (1989) reported that verbal

aggression and psychological intimidation can be precursors of physical aggression for couples. Results indicated that both an individual's and his/her partner's psychological aggression did, indeed, predict first instances of physical aggression in early marriages. Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz and Kaukiainen (1992), contend that physical acts are usually preceded by verbal insults or threat of physical harm (as reported by Campbell, Sapochnik, & Muncer, 1997).

Sabourin, Infante, and Rudd (1993) examined the role of verbal aggression in violently aggressive and non-aggressive couples. They reported several important findings in relationships where verbal aggression escalated to physical aggression: 1) The spouses had limited range of ability in arguing; 2) They used a one-upmanship retaliation style; and 3) each spouse perceived him- or herself as a victim avoiding spousal control. The study also concluded that a physically aggressive husbands' perceptions of his wife's verbal aggression is not in agreement with her self-report. Further, verbal aggression reciprocity determines whether distressed couples engage in physically aggressive behavior. Another link to consider is the reciprocal effect physical aggression has on psychological aggression; threats from verbal aggression can also magnify in meaning when previously accompanied by physical aggression (O'Leary, Malone, & Tyree, 1994). Jacobson and Christensen (1996) describe a behavioral model for the evolution of relationship aggression. They hypothesize that after a "courtship" period," initial attractions may tend to become dissatisfactory or even incompatible to one or both partners. As patience and tolerance thins, one partner (or both) may begin to withdraw, and one partner (or both) may develop an aversive manner of interacting in order to get the other partner to respond. The coercive partner

is reinforced for the aversiveness, while the other gets negative reinforcement for responding. As conflicts increase, partners become accustomed to being aversive in order to get a response and the other partner must relinquish in order to have the aversiveness end. As the pattern continues, the partners learn a "one-up-manship" approach, reacting to aversive treatment in a more pronounced coercive manner.

Many studies have not found a prediction of the progression of marital aggression but have found correlations between verbal and physical abuse. Browne and Williams (1993) reported that during ongoing violent relationships, assaultive episodes often involve a combination of assaultive acts: verbal abuse, sexual abuse, and threats. Julian et al. (1999) may have clarified and confirmed the link between physical and verbal aggression when they reported that the path models for verbal aggression and physical aggression were similar, having the same significant paths for both female and male models. They reported that mental status mediated physical aggression, with marital satisfaction, physical abuse inflicted by parents, and physical violence witnessed by child as variables. The current study attempts to identify whether psychological and physical aggression are linked, and if each is linked to marital satisfaction.

Relationship aggression by gender. Carlson (1999) reported that the genders differ in what justifies acts of relationship aggression. Women and men may view demonstrations of their own and their spouse's aggression differently.

Byrne and Arias (1997) found that the women in their study tended to report using violence toward their partners as means of showing anger and retaliation for emotional hurt. Another study seems to contradict Byrne and Arias's findings.

Campbell, Sapochnik, and Muncer (1997) report the women in their study tended to discuss anger as a form of disclosure rather than as threats of aggression, and women tended to view aggression as an expressive social representation as demonstrated by a loss of self-control. In marital relationships, women tend to find events, negligence, lack of consideration, and personal criticism anger-provoking, indicating relationship quality is important. In another study that supports relationship quality as important to women, Fehr, Baldwin, Collins, Patterson and Benditt (1999) reported that women may tend to avoid overt negative expressions of anger when they are fearful they will lose the relationship. Women tend to expect their partners to exhibit negative attributes, such as expecting their partner to deny responsibility and cover bad intent and selfishness (Byrne & Arias, 1997; Fehr et al., 1999). Byrne and Arias found that physical aggression and marital violence were significantly related to negative responsibility and causal attributions among wives regarding their husbands but not vice versa.

Men tend to express violence as a form of control (Campbell, Sapochnik, & Muncer, 1997). Men tend to expect their partner to express hurt feelings, avoid or reject them during direct negative interactions (Fehr et al., 1999). Men are more likely to report using violence in retaliation for being hit first and when feeling jealous (Byrne & Arias, 1997).

Archer and Haigh (1999) concluded that for both sexes, only when aggression toward a partner becomes compatible with the person's value system does the person act, justifying the aggression. In a meta-analytic review of 83 articles assessing relationship aggression, Archer (2000) reports two main findings. One is that females

initiate and participate in aggressive acts toward their relationship partners significantly more frequently than do men. The second finding is that women are injured as a result of relationship aggression more often and more severely than are men.

Marital satisfaction. Are married American Indian adults less satisfied than the average married adult with their relationships because of their involvement in relationship aggression? Couples who report the highest degree of marital satisfaction tend to have stronger communication styles, feel satisfied with affection shown by his/her spouse, and have few arguments over finances (Fowers & Olson, 1992). At the other end of the spectrum, maritally dissatisfied couples tend to be more critical, complain more, and express more displeasure and hostility than couples identified as satisfied in their relationships (Feeney, Noller, & Roberts, 1998). Global dissatisfaction early in marriage may be correlated with angry and aggressive responses to marital conflict. This may establish a context for further and repeated violence. Julian et al. (1999) note that women reported higher marital satisfaction when their husbands were less verbally aggressive toward them than women whose husbands were more verbally aggressive, while men reported higher levels of marital satisfaction when they were less verbally abusive toward their wives. This same study reported that marital satisfaction was a stronger predictor of verbal aggression than physical aggression for males. For women, marital discord was directly and significantly related to both psychological and physical aggression (O'Leary, Malone, & Tyree, 1994). O'Leary et al. (1989) determined that individuals who are married to

consistently aggressive spouses are less satisfied in their marital relationships than those in consistently non-aggressive relationships.

Sabourin et al. (1993) found that in non-violent yet distressed marriages, both males and females had the same level of marital satisfaction, but in violent marriages, marital satisfaction was greater for men than for women. They also found that the perceived meaning behind the aggressive act influences marital satisfaction, with both women and men reporting higher marital satisfaction when severity of the aggressive act was minimized by attributing causes of spousal aggressive behavior to external factors (drug use, stress, etc.).

American Indian Relationship Aggression. Are American Indian women and men aggressive in relating to others? According to the Bureau of Justice (1996), domestic violence is statistically consistent across racial and ethnic boundaries. Existing studies regarding American Indian relationship aggression leaves the picture incomplete. The 1985 National Family Violence Survey reported that out of a sample of 204 American Indian couples (no identifying tribes or other demographics reported), 15.5% reported physical aggression in their relationships and 7.2% reported severe violence, compared to 14.8% and 5.3% of their Euro-American counterparts, respectively (as reported by Bachman, 1992). Wallace et al. (1996) reported that 75% of female American Indian/Alaska Native (AI/AN) homicide victims were killed by someone they knew, compared to 65% of their Euro-American counterparts, and one-third AI/AN female homicide victims were killed by a family member. A similar finding was reported by Fairchild, Fairchild, and Stoner (1998); 53% of Navajo

women studied (n=371) reported at least one episode of physical aggression by a male partner, with 16.4% reporting current abuse.

Oklahoma American Indian Aggression. Are Oklahoma American Indian women and men aggressive in relating to others? Using a common assumption that homicide and suicide statistics are indicators of aggression in a culture, death rates for homicide and suicide may assist in clarifying the picture. In 1998, the rates of deaths by accident and by suicide in Oklahoma were substantially higher for American Indians than the rates for Euro-Americans and African Americans. The rates for Euro- and African Americans for death by accidents were 5.7% and 4.9% (respectively) as compared to 9% for American Indians. Death by suicide rates were less than 1% for both Euro- and African Americans, while 1.6% for American Indians (Oklahoma State Department of Health, 2000).

Oklahoma American Indians experience one and one-half times more deaths by accident and 5 times more deaths by suicide than do their Euro-American counterparts. They also experience almost twice as many deaths by accident and 2 ½ times as many deaths by suicide as their African American counterparts. The top three Oklahoma counties with the highest populations of American Indian people are Tulsa County, Oklahoma County, and Cherokee County; domestic violence report rates for these counties indicate that they reported 34% to 67% higher incidences of domestic violence per capita than the Oklahoma state averages for 1989 through 1992. (Oklahoma State Department of Health, 2000). It may be assumed that American Indians in Oklahoma experience and exhibit more aggressive behavior than other majority and minority populations.

Many tribes may discourage tribal members from seeking assistance outside family or clan ties. This practice may benefit individuals in communities where traditional ties are strong; however, when community and family are in distress, this custom may prevent recipients and perpetrators of relationship aggression from getting assistance. As traditional practice for some Oklahoma tribes, family and clan members were obligated to level the balance of power between a woman and man through revenge. When a man or woman had dishonored or harmed his or her partner, family and clan members would respond. In theory, crimes against an individual were also against the clan, and all individuals in the clan were responsible to give or receive punishment in place of the actual perpetrator (Oberg, 1934). Though tribes had different laws and mores, most practiced this obligation to and protection of clan and family members. Today, the residuals of this traditional practice exists in various degrees, and the same interactions of "kin" that protect can also empower perpetrators in communities where family and clan ties are weaker for some than others (Figueredo et al., 2001). A woman or man who seeks assistance from the outside may be ostracized from family and clan; many times an "informant" to the outside mainstream world who reports another tribal member is viewed as worse than the perpetrator of relationship aggression (Duran & Duran, 1995).

In finding assistance for relationship aggression, resources may be difficult to obtain: telephones, childcare, and transportation may be difficult to find in remote areas. Language may be a barrier; many American Indian women and men speak English as a second language and may not feel proficient to convey their dilemmas. LaFrombois, Berman, and Sohi (1994) discuss that enduring misfortune has become

an accepted way of life among American Indian people; this survival mechanism may contribute to reluctance in seeking help when assaulted. Institutional barriers are also noted as factors that keep American Indian women and men in abusive relationships. These factors include barriers such as the absence of shelters and agencies in American Indian neighborhoods and accessibility in rural settings, helpers who are not familiar with tribal lifestyles and customs, and therapists who neither understand the tribal language nor understand the nuances of communication (Williams, 1994).

For American Indian males, abuse is devastating. Oscar Arredondo shared observations he made when working with male violence perpetrators in the Minneapolis Division of Indian Works Violent Partner Project. He noted that common factors for Indian men in the program included the role of chemical dependency in their violence; their lack of communication skills, especially regarding their emotions; problems with self-esteem; experiences in growing up in abusive homes or foster homes; more general exposure to violence on the reservation or in their communities; and their lack of literacy and education. He further concluded that these men were not taught to use physical aggression as a means to maintain control of their spouse, as studies with Euro-American violent perpetrators report. He comments that they were taught to see violence as a plausible way to resolve conflict. These men were mistrustful, remembering stories of their grandfathers and uncles being shot or beaten for being Indian. They reported feeling resentment about recognition of their own victimization, reporting they did not receive sympathy for growing up in alcoholic homes or being punished for speaking their languages in front of boarding school

teachers. Arredondo acknowledged the theory that Indian men have taken on the identities of their dominant culture, destroying their own (Warters, 2000).

A recent study may assist in understanding Oklahoma American Indian relationship aggression. Robbins et al. (2002) examined relationship aggression of Cherokee men (n = 77) and women (n = 85), ages 17 to 80 years old, (mean = 38) . Participants self-identified as Cherokee, and traditionality was determined by Cherokee language fluency. Researchers gathered data in participants' tribal communities, further insuring that the participants were somehow connected to their cultures. Fifty-eight percent of respondents reported being married only once, and the average years married was 13. The average household consisted of the respondent and spouse, 1.31 children, and other relatives, including parents, grandchildren, and siblings, making the total 5.73 persons per household on average. Sixty-nine percent of respondents were employed, with 60% of their spouses employed, most in manual labor jobs such as working in local chicken factories or nurseries. Over 50% of households reported a total income below poverty level, and 24.69% reported an annual income $10,000 or below.

Data from the Family History of Distress and Global Distress scales from the Marital Satisfaction Inventory-Revised (Snyder, 1998) were examined to determine whether a relationship existed between each scale and male and female aggression. Socioeconomic status was also analyzed to determine if there was a relationship to aggression in the marriage. Results indicated that Cherokee males and females did not differ in levels of relationship aggression. Both males and females exhibit equal aggression toward their spouses, with a mean T-score of 52.29 (minimum possible

score of 40 to maximum score of 70). Aggression scores did not correlate significantly with socioeconomic status or family history of distress scores. Aggression scores did significantly positively correlate with global distress ($r = .547$, one tailed $p < .0001$), indicating that, in a Cherokee relationship, if aggression is present, marital distress will likely coincide (Robbins et al., 2002). Though all tribes have differing histories and specific cultural beliefs, information regarding Cherokee relationship aggression and marital satisfaction may assist in understanding these areas of focus with other Oklahoma American Indian adults.

Effects of colonization. Relationship aggression has not always been pervasive in American Indian tribal cultures; it rarely occurred before European colonization (Duran & Duran, 1995). Traditionally, family structures insured minimal abuse among intimate partners, with shared and well-defined positions of power for both men and women, strong guidance from social and religious practices, and minimal outside pressure from a changing society. Both men and women's status in their tribes were clearly defined. Many sources have identified the introduction of alcohol, foreign religious systems, and the European hierarchical family structure as attributing to the destruction of the traditional marital framework. Because of previous and continued forced changes in traditional marriage systems, family structures, and removal of children to foster homes and boarding schools, the American Indian family system has been weakened. Forced removal from ancestral lands, constant poverty and subsistence deprivation, and suppression of religious and cultural practices have stripped American Indian tribal people of identity. These factors have contributed

serious breakdown of the structure of the American Indian family (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2000).

Historical trauma. If relationship aggression is present, what effect does the presence of an historical trauma play? Each American Indian tribe has independently suffered its own traumatic events throughout history. This historic trauma affects future generations, transferring the effects without a completion of the grief process (Duran & Duran, 1995). Five general areas of historic generational trauma appear as common for many tribes: (a) forced removal from traditional, sacred homelands and tribal ways; (b) the killing of tribal chiefs, leaders, and important persons; (c) mutilation, massacres, and mass burials; (d) the forced removal of children to boarding schools and foster homes wherein they were abused, starved, exposed to horrendous health conditions and to a wide variety of diseases, and where they often died; and (e) denial of spiritual and cultural practices that define individuals as tribal members (Choney, Berryhill-Paapke, & Robbins, 1995; Napoleon, 1996; Yellow Horse-Brave Heart, 1998).

This multigenerational trauma response involves constellations of features identified in the literature on PTSD and psychic trauma and has been paralleled with the massive generational group trauma identified for Jewish Holocaust descendants (Yellow Horse-Brave Heart, 1998). "For American Indians, historical unresolved grief involves the profound, unsettled bereavement that results from generations of devastating losses which have been disqualified, compounded by prohibition of indigenous ceremonies and the larger society's denial of the magnitude of its genocidal policies" (Choney, Berryhill, & Robbins, p. 289).

Since Europeans first came to the lands now known as America, the indigenous populations have been forced to adapt foreign cultural ways. More devastating, they have been forced to abandon their own cultures through overt and covert persuasion. "The government used boarding schools, missions, agents, treaties, and removal to undermine the structure of tribes, which eventually impacted the unity and stability of the family..." (Subia-Bigfoot, 2000). American Indian people became conditioned not to make demands or fight back, losing children and elders, food and shelter, land, religion, language, and identities when they did.

Forced removal from traditional lands occurred almost from the onset of European invasion. Not only did this strip sacred lands from tribes but it also removed their way of life and health by removing them from their customary economic, dietary, and medicinal sustenance. Additionally, having to deal with sudden changes in geography and climate likely increased vulnerability and compromised physical and mental health. Without time and the healing effect of spiritual ceremonies, many of which would be impossible without access to traditional ceremonial and healing herbs, the effects of forced removal could never be sufficiently processed nor physically or emotionally overcome (Yellow Horse-Brave Heart, 1997). Though the American Indian tribes that were relocated or living in Oklahoma were characterized by a vast array of cultural differences, and many tribes were ancient enemies; the United States government placed these tribes in neighboring proximities in Oklahoma when the tribes were removed from their ancestral homes. All tribes not native to Oklahoma experienced their own "trail of tears," while tribes whose areas included Oklahoma land area experienced forced "invasions."

American Indian tribes experienced the decimation of more than 90% of their populations during the first two centuries of colonization (Choney, Berryhill-Paapke, & Robbins, 1995). The numbers, incidents, and names are numerous; with these massacres, each living American Indian person experienced the loss of tribal leaders, family members, and friends. It is well researched that the experience of the loss of a loved one is a significant stressor that is difficult and long in overcoming. In addition to loss through death, surviving tribal members many times were denied or forbidden to bury their dead and grieve, often having to fear for their own lives (Napoleon, 1996).

One medium for this cultural genocide was the practice of removing American Indian children from their families and tribes and sending them to boarding schools to be "educated." Boarding schools began as early as 1700. By 1887, more than 200 boarding schools existed with an enrollment of over fourteen thousand American Indian children (Subia-Bigfoot, 2000). Children of all ages were removed from their families and tribes en mass and moved to these schools in which they were punished for speaking their own languages or practicing their own traditional beliefs. "Common experiences for children in boarding schools included: harsh and cruel punishment for behaviors defined as infractions or rule-breaking, being whipped and beaten for typical behavior appropriate for children who were scared or frightened, denial of contact with family for months and sometimes years, denial of medical care, use as indentured servants, punished for using their Native languages, limitations placed on amount of food, clothing, and shelter they received, non-notification of parents upon child's death, and burial on school grounds without markers or ceremony (Choney,

Berryhill-Paapke, & Robbins, 1995; Subia-Bigfoot, 2000). Children who were raised in boarding schools lost their traditional family environment, including experiences in working out compromises with elders, siblings, or extended family members. The detrimental effects of boarding schools were intergenerational, affecting those whose parents and whose grandparents attended as well as those forced to attend (Dauphinais, 1993). Not until the 1970's did the Bureau of Indian Affairs begin closing most Indian boarding schools. Four boarding schools remain active, with tribal governance, in Oklahoma today.

In many American Indian societies, the death of a loved one or other losses are honored by spiritual ceremonies and mourning. Traditional American Indian ceremonies effectively paralleled grief-management, but these practices were challenged first by Christianity and then prohibited by the government. For over a century and until the passing of the American Indian Religious Freedom Act in 1978, traditional religious ceremonies that addressed historical and current grief were banned. Tribal people had to adapt to Christianity, as some did, or practice their traditional ceremonies under penalty (Subia-Bigfoot, 2000). Although religious ceremonies were still conducted secretly, many losses went unresolved. Additionally, the rapidity and severity of historical losses has been compounded by current high death rates from psychosocial and health problems, further complicating the grief process (Duran & Duran, 1995; Yellow Horse-Brave Heart, 1998).

What happens to a people who experience generations of trauma? American Indian psychologists and those psychologists who have researched American Indian mental health issues propose some of the factors that are beginning to be explained as

the residuals of historic trauma include high-risk behaviors: high interpersonal aggression (National Indian Justice Center, 1990), high rates of substance abuse (Taylor, 2000), high sexual risk behavior (Walters & Simon, 1999), higher than average amounts of depression (Duran & Duran, 1995), a stoicism and resignation to live under the most unbearable conditions (LaFromboise, Berman, & Sohi, 1994), an avoidance of discussion of problems or emotional distress (Duran & Duran, 1995); and self-defeating blame (Napoleon, 1996).

Attachment theory (Bowlby,1988) may contribute to postcolonial theory. It proposes that human beings learn how to connect with others in infancy. Through repeated experiences of feeling protected by the close proximity of a primary caretaker during periods of danger and independent exploration during safe periods (with the assurance of the caretaker's availability), a person forms a secure internal knowledge of oneself and attachment relationships. Should the infant feel unsafe or not able to connect with the caretaker, insecure attachment patterns solidify. These secure or insecure patterns help mold emotions and defense responses in relation to significant others (Bretherton, 1985). Securely attached children are more comfortable in interaction with others and show higher emotional resiliency (Bowlby, 1988). Insecurely attached children exhibit avoidant, anxious/ambivalent, or an inconsistent pattern of attachment behaviors(Bowlby, 1988; Crittendon, 1988; Hazan and Shaver, 1987). Children who display an Avoidant attachment style show signs of insecure attachment and distress during separation from the caregiver, and resistance or lack of reconnection when the caregiver returns. These children tend to be more anxious and fearful in secure environments and angry or attention-seeking in less secure

environments. Children who display an Anxious/Ambivolent attachment style tend to be inconsolably distressed without the caregiver and cling to the caregiver upon return, fearful of the environment, and emotionally labile (Bowlby, 1988). Crittendon (1988) identified a third Insecure attachment style. These children show contradictory behaviors with the caretaker: both showing that they wish to attach yet hesitating or checking before the attachment. They tend to have caretakers with unresolved traumas, abuse, depression, or are extremely neglectful.

Several studies have found relevant results when examining adult attachment utilizing attachment theory. Avoidant adults tend to fear intimacy and avoid emotional highs and lows, be less warm and gregarious, and tend to be jealous. They tend to be low in agreeableness and openness to feelings, and report higher levels of defensiveness, anxiety, and depression. Avoidant adults demonstrate resistance when prompted to access negative memories. They tend to reject because they expect rejection from others or to avoid disappointment. In anxiety-provoking situations, they tend to react away from partners or offer less emotional support (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995; Shaver & Brennon, 1992; Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan; 1992). Leveridge (1998) found social isolation, family conflict avoidance, defensiveness, and family disengagement as qualities present in adults with Avoidant attachment style.

Anxious/Ambivalent adults attach quickly but don't trust their relationships. They tend to readily access negative memories and not repress negative affect and cannot inhibit emotional spreading. They are more likely than adults with Avoidant style to express anxiety. They experience high levels of depression and low openness

to values (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Leveridge, 1998; Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995; Shaver & Brennon, 1992; Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan; 1992).

In studies involving attachment and children who experience long-term traumatic events (such as war or continued abuse), avoidant attachment styles tend to dominate the children's interactions with others (Van der Kolk, 1987). The intergenerational trauma experienced by American Indian tribes is parallel to events described in these studies.

Today, many tribes live and interact in the same rural and urban areas. They interact in work and social settings. They attend general cultural and sporting events, such as dances and ball tournaments. They commonly share "Indian humor," attend Indian churches, and marry members of other tribes. Despite historic trauma, they carry on their day to day lives, and though resilient in surviving colonialism, deal with hardships, including relationship conflict.

Traditionality and acculturation. The process of acculturation, according to Coleman (1995), is a mechanism for cross-cultural contact; when individuals are confronted with a new culture, he or she is influenced by the dominant culture to take on attitudes and behaviors similar to the majority. There is no general consensus among researchers concerning the relationship of acculturation level and psychological distress. Hovey and King (1996) found that levels of acculturation and acculturative stress were unrelated. Thus, it may be inaccurate to assume that individuals who are less acculturated experience more acculturative stress than individuals who are more acculturated. Choney, Berryhill-Paapke, and Robbins (1995) suggest that American Indian people who are traditionally connected will be less

prone to stresses from the mainstream world. They proposed a model to explain American Indian acculturative process that occurs in four domains: cognitive, behavioral, affective/spiritual, and social/environmental. American Indians may have different levels of accommodation in each level. Glass, Bieber, and Tkackuk (1996) reported a bicultural group experienced more difficulties in coping and in interpersonal relationships than the traditional and acculturated groups.

Alcohol and drug use. If relationship aggression is present for Oklahoma American Indian adult women and men, what effect does alcohol or drug use during aggressive acts play? Berrios and Grady (1991) report that of American Indian women reporting domestic violence, 48% of men who are physically aggressive had repeatedly used alcohol or drugs, and that alcohol was directly associated with aggression 43% of the time. They comment that alcohol is the utmost critical health hazard for American Indian people. Chester et al. (1994) report that the lifetime prevalence of alcoholism among American Indian people has been estimated from 28% to 65%, depending on the definition of alcoholism and the sample group. A 1979 study on the Pine Ridge Reservation found that 100% of abuse studied occurred under the influence of alcohol (77%) or drugs (23%) (Powers, 1988). Durst (1991) reported that 57% of the Alaskan Native women reported active physical abuse by a partner, with alcohol involved in 80% of the cases. Verlarde-Castillo (1992, as reported by Chester et al., 1994) report that 85% of Hopi women receiving counseling for abuse stated that their partners drank excessively, and 55% reported that abuse occurred most often when their partners were intoxicated. Such numbers indicate that the relationship between alcohol and drug use plays an important role in relation to spouse

abuse and domestic violence. Brown (1988) reported that children raised in a family setting of alcohol use display many of the same behavioral and emotional patterns as the alcoholic.

Influence of exposure to family relationship aggression in childhood. Does exposure to relationship violence in childhood influence both Oklahoma American Indian women and men to initiate violence in their own adult relationships?

The intergenerational cycle of violence hypothesis (social learning theory of violence) indicates the individual is conditioned to express anger and to ventilate frustration. Personal and violent crimes by offspring are related to aggression and conflict in the home. Studies have found that birth complications combined with maternal rejection in the first year of life predicted violent offending at age 18 (Raine, Brennan, & Mednick, 1994; Serbin et al., 1998). Adult violent offenders report they were subjected to violence in their childhood (Julian et al.,1999). Serbin et al. (1998) reported results from the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project, with participants consisting of 1,700 inner-city children in low-income neighborhoods. Reports indicate that mothers who were aggressive during childhood were consistently at-risk for a list of variables that lend themselves to relationship dissatisfaction and aggression: high-risk sexual behavior in adolescence, teen pregnancy, school dropout, and inability to escape from lower socioeconomic disadvantages. Second generation children of these women had significantly more aggressive behaviors, including visits to the emergency room for treatment of acute illnesses, injuries, and asthma than did children of teen mothers from a non-deviant comparison group. This study concluded that aggression in girls, particularly aggression combined with withdrawing behavior, is related to

problems of interpersonal relations and contribute to intergenerational cycles of violence. Wallace (1996) reports that a learned helplessness or psychological incapacity to leave abusive relationships results from experiencing parents' marital aggression during childhood. Perpetrating marital violence has been associated with exposure to either child abuse or marital violence in the family-of-origin (Doumas, Margolin, & John, 1994). Doumas, Margolin, and John reported that intergenerational aggression patterns differed for males and females. They reported exposure to marital aggression in the family-of-origin is predictive of both marital and parental aggression in the second generation males, while child abuse potential in the second generation was predictive of aggression in the third generation males. They found that exposure to aggression is not predictive of aggressive behavior across any of the three generations for females, however, a history of marital aggression in the first generation was predictive of being the recipient of marital aggression for the second generation. Another study may add to the picture. Abused or neglected girls are more likely to become violent later in life than boys. Also, antisocial women tend to have more relatives who are deviant (Rivera & Widom, 1990).

Julian et al. (1999) concluded the link between family of origin violence and relationship aggression is mediated by the husband's mental status. Men who are physically aggressive indicate greater exposure to parental physical aggression as children (Widom, 1989a, as reported by Julian et al., 1999). Choice, Lampke, and Pitman (1995) report ineffective conflict resolution and marital distress mediate wife-battering for men who experienced parental violence as teenagers.

In a study regarding physical discipline and cultural differences, Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates, and Pettit (1996) report they found parents' physical discipline and children's externalizing behavior in the form of aggression correlated for Euro-American children, but not for African American children. The conceptualization of authoritarian parenting may not generalize across ethnic and cultural groups and may vary according to how the children perceive the parenting. However, when children were classified into three mutually exclusive groups, the physically abused group displayed higher externalizing scores than both the African American and Euro-American children's groups. Findings support Weiss et al.'s (1992) report that experience of physical abuse is a predictor for acting out aggressively, and these findings do not significantly vary across socioeconomic or ethnic groups (as reported by Deater-Deckard et al., 1992).

Aggression according to age. For Oklahoma American Indian adults, does age influence involvement in relationship aggression? For the general population, gender differences in aggression do not emerge until toddlerhood, and not until pre-school age do children exhibit defined differences, with boys displaying more physical aggression (Bjerk, 1992). The nature of aggression varies in men and women through certain developmental stages, such as higher rates of antisocial behavior during adolescence for both than during other developmental stages (Loeber & Hay, 1997). Research on the correlation of menstruation onset for women and development of behavior problems is divided. In a series of research studies, Serbin et al. (1998) found that aggression in girls is related to problems in later life interpersonal relations. These problems begin in childhood and continue through the formation of new families

(Serbin et al., 1998). Highly aggressive girls are at risk for both school dropout and teen parenting. Education level was the buffer for these results. The higher the education level, the weaker the correlation of aggressive or abusive parenting (Serbin et al., 1998).

With adults, all forms of physical aggression decrease dramatically with age (O'Leary et al., 1989). Oklahoma statistics for the end of the month of June, 1999, report that the general population rates of incarceration for violent acts increase with each age category, topping in the 36-40 age category and drastically dropping after age 45. These numbers can be misleading; age of incarceration may not reflect the age of the perpetrator when the violent act was done. However, an assumption can be made from these statistics: a large majority who enter Oklahoma prisons by the age of 45 are offending or perpetrating crimes at ages younger than 45 (Oklahoma State Department of Corrections, 1999). Physiological variables also change with age. High levels of testosterone and low levels of serotonin and cortisol are linked with aggressive acts (Blackburn, 1993). Dabbs and Hargrove (1997) found that age negatively relates to aggressive dominance in a female prison population, yet the relationship was mediated by changes in testosterone; the decrease in testosterone with age influenced aggression. For American Indian women, the variable of age—specifically being less than 40 years of age—is a significant predictor of domestic violence (Fairchild, Fairchild, & Stoner, 1998).

Age may also play a role in reporting relationship aggression. Carleson (1999) reported that the older the person, the greater the likelihood of labeling an act of physical aggression as abuse, and thus reporting it. However, Carlson's study was

with college students, and older graduate students' education level may be important variable to consider.

Education level. For married Oklahoma American Indian adult women and men, do years of education influence involvement in relationship aggression? The role of education plays a vital influence on whether relationship disagreements evolve into relationship aggression. Skill deficiency in defending and attacking ideas or positions rather than one's spouse increases the likelihood of verbal and physical aggression. Aggressive behavior escalates in response to perceived attack. This negative reciprocity can prevent couples from finding relief from distress through changing their negative confrontational patterns (Sabourin et al., 1993).

Time in the relationship. For Oklahoma American Indians, do number of years in the relationship influence involvement in relationship aggression? O'Leary et al (1989) found that of their 272 couples, 57% of the couples reported at least one instance of relationship aggression in the year prior to marriage, with females having significantly higher rates of initiation than their future husbands: 44% to 31%, respectively. The follow-up study at eighteen months of marriage showed the rates had dropped to 44% of couples reporting aggression. At this time, female initiated aggression continued to exceed male aggression: 36% to 27%, respectively. At thirty months of marriage, aggression rates continued to drop, with 41% of couples reporting aggression, with 32% females and 25% male initiating aggressive behavior reported. The rates of engaging in exclusive, non-reciprocal acts of aggression was reported at 26% female perpetrated and 13% male perpetrated at the pre-marriage time, and lowered to 16% for females and 9% for males at the thirty month point.

In another study that may further add to the picture, O' Leary et al. (1989) reported higher rates of all forms of aggression including higher levels of aggression against partners in the absence of partner aggression for women than men. The stress of establishing boundaries and rules in early relationships may not be overtly understood by both partners and may lead to misunderstandings in perceptions and inaccurate causal attributions.

Socioeconomic status. For Oklahoma American Indian women and men, does socioeconomic status influence involvement in relationship aggression? Fairchild, Fairchild, and Stoner (1998) reported that a predictor of domestic violence for American Indian couples was living in a household that received governmental financial assistance, indicating low socioeconomic status.

Recent concerns in research. One concern in research with American Indian tribes today is the practice of generalizing data from specific or "pan-Indian" samples to specific tribes. Though it should be acknowledged here that each specific indigenous person, each clan or band, each tribe, and each geographically identified group (i.e., in Oklahoma: plains or woodland) has unique characteristics, variables in this study have been experienced in differing degrees by all Oklahoma tribes (e.g. removal, the boarding school experience, urbanization, loss of languages, unemployment, and loss of traditional ceremonies). Certain beliefs exist across tribal boundaries. Over the last decade, similarities such as traditional reverence for elders, valuing extended family, and connections with nature may have been forgotten by research in the endeavor to describe individual cultures. This study's approach is to

examine relationship aggression, marital satisfaction, and other variables that are common issues for all Oklahoma people.

Relationship aggression has been researched in multitudinous ways. Archer (2000), Frieze (2000), O'Leary (2000), and White (2000) offer thorough discussions of issues and problems facing researchers in this area. They discuss two differing viewpoints that guide research. One is the mutuality of relationship aggression, consisting of research mainly conducted by family conflict researchers. Another addresses the power differential between the sexes, that men are the oppressors and women are victims, consisting of research mainly conducted by feminist researchers. Archer addresses the impact of moderator variables in the sex differences in partner aggression, source of the data reported in current and past studies, measurement shortcomings, and type of report (partner- or self-report) as some areas for concern. White (2000) discussed issues of concern when viewing female and male relationship aggression and current research; severity of physical assaults, indirect methods of aggression, exclusion of sexual assault, generalizability of sampling that is over-represented by studies regarding college and high school relationships. They identify shortcomings in assessing meaning, whether an act was independent or embedded in ongoing pattern of abusive acts, and the shortcomings of the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979). O'Leary (2000) discussed the perception of male and female aggression, giving examples such as men murder their partners and commit acts of sexual aggression more often than do females. Frieze (2000) discussed the need to expand the definitions of relationship violence, including into the definition the acts of

stalking and unwanted sexual coercion, for example. This study has focused on relationship aggression with non-clinical samples.

Statement of the Problem

Though relationship aggression may occur among Oklahoma American Indians, previous studies have not established which variables may coincide with or predict it. This study will examine marital satisfaction and relationship aggression among married American Indian adults in Oklahoma. It will investigate the existence and type of relationship aggression, whether aggressive types are linked, marital satisfaction, the impact of differences in traditional and non-traditional cultural beliefs, differences in age groups of participants and of spouses, impact of family-of-origin relationship aggression, the impact of the presence of alcohol or drugs during aggressive acts, the impact of historic trauma, differences in levels of education on relationship aggression, and number of years in the relationship.

General Replication Hypotheses

Results from prior research support the following hypotheses for general populations. These will be tested for the non-clinical American Indian sample using the alpha .05 level of significance:

1. For both American Indian men and women, age will significantly negatively correlate with presence of relationship aggression.
2. Exposure to relationship violence in childhood will significantly influence both married adult American Indian men and women (presence of parents'

relationship violence in childhood will positively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression).

3. Presence of alcohol or drug use will significantly positively influence participant's acting out relationship aggression.
4. Years of education will significantly negatively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression. The higher the education level, the lower the amount of relationship aggression will be present.
5. Months/years in the relationship will significantly negatively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression. The more time in the relationship, the lower the amount of relationship aggression.
6. Socioeconomic status will significantly negatively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression. The higher the socioeconomic level, the lower the amount of relationship aggression.

Specific Hypotheses for American Indian Couples

Specific hypotheses for the non-clinical American Indian adult sample will be tested using the .05 level of significance:

1. Married adult Oklahoma American Indian men and women will be involved in participating in negotiation, psychological aggression, and physical aggression in amounts similar to those of the Oklahoma Euro-American sample.

2. For both married adult Oklahoma American Indian men and women, types of relationship aggression will be linked: physical assault will not occur independently of psychological aggression.
3. Both American Indian men and women will participate in relationship aggression equally.
4. Both married adult American Indian men and women involved in relationship aggression will be significantly less maritally satisfied than those not involved in relationship aggression .
5. Acculturative status of adult American Indian men and women will significantly influence relationship aggression.
6. The presence of historic trauma in married adult American Indian men' and women' family backgrounds will significantly positively influence participant's acting out relationship aggression.
7. What sets of variables predict physical aggression best for Oklahoma American Indians?
8. What sets of variables predict psychological aggression best for Oklahoma American Indians?
9. What sets of variables predict marital satisfaction best for Oklahoma American Indians?

Method

This section presents an explanation of the methodology used in this investigation. It begins with a description of participant selection and the study's

design, including a description of variables and methods of statistical analysis. Next, instrumentation is described. The section concludes with a description of the procedures used in collecting data.

Participants

Participants consisted of American Indian men (n=42) and women (n=52) and Euro-American men (n=42) and women (n=48) residing in Oklahoma. All American Indian participants identified themselves as tribal members. Additionally, all participants must have been married or in a live-in relationship for at least one year. American Indian adults (aged 18 and above) were in relationships with other American Indian adults, and Euro-American adults (aged 18 and above) were in relationships with other Euro-American adults.

Design

Marital satisfaction of both American Indian and Euro-American groups was compared to determine whether a significant difference existed between the ethnic groups and between genders utilizing two-way ANOVAs. The variables physical aggression, psychological aggression, and negotiation describe conflict modes that the participant enacts in his/her marital relationship. These variables are operationalized by scale scores for each mode from the Conflict Tactics Scale (2^{nd} edition) and the participant's marital satisfaction, operationalized by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale total score. Data were examined to see if any correlations existed utilizing bivariate correlation. Each of these variables were then examined to determine whether other variables were related. These additional variables include: spouse's physical aggression, spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's negotiation, participant's

exposure to parent's physical, participant's exposure to parents' psychological aggression (again, operationalized by scale scores from the CTS-2), alcohol use prior to/during conflict, spouse's alcohol use, drug use prior to/during conflict, spouse's drug use, participant's family or friends taking revenge on participant's spouse due to conflict, spouse's family or friends taking revenge on participant due to conflict (all operationalized by CTS-2 scores) , traditionality (operationalized by LPS-B scores), and existence of historic trauma in participant's family (operationalized by Historic Trauma Questions endorsement). Demographic variables included: age, spouse's age, years married, education level, spouse's education level, total household income, and number of dependents upon this income.

Instrumentation

Participants completed a modified version of the Conflict Tactics Scale, 2nd edition (CTS-2), the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), and Oklahoma American Indian Historic Trauma Questions. In addition, the American Indian participants completed the Life Perspectives Scale, Revised edition (LPS-B). These instruments were chosen because they most effectively measure variables important to this study.

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS-2; Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, and Sugarman, 1996). Three of the CTS-2 scales: Psychological Aggression, Physical Aggression, and Negotiation are self-report measure that indicate the extent to which participants engage in psychological and physical aggression as well as their use of reasoning or negotiation to deal with conflicts. The Parents' Violence subscale, which measures both psychological and physical violence on the CTS-2, was also used to assess childhood exposure to relationship violence. For the CTS2, the internal

consistency reliability ranges from .79 to .95 (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996).

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976). This 32-item measure of marital adjustment was used to differentiate adjusted, maritally satisfied from maladjusted, maritally dissatisfied couples. Scores range from 0 to 150, with lower scores indicating less favorable marital adjustment. Scores below 98 have frequently been used to identify marital discordant spouses (Eddy, Heyman, & Weiss, 1991). The psychometric properties of this instrument have been well established.

The Life Perspectives Scale-B (LPS-B), (Berryhill, 1998). This 51-item instrument is a theoretically-driven American Indian acculturation measure used in this study to determine the level of traditionality (identification with American Indian culture) of American Indian participants. Berryhill (1998) reported the psychometric properties: items were initially judged by a number of American Indian people on face and content validity. For the LPS-B, the overall Cronbach alpha was .85. The overall mean was 3.13, with a standard deviation of .36. All subscales correlated with total LPS-B score ($r = .44$ to $r = .66$ [$p < .01$, 2-tailed]). Berryhill reported that the LPS-B had a two factor structure that did not reflect multidimensional levels of acculturation but did appear to measure an overall dimension of participants' identification with Indian culture. Berryhill commented on the need to establish reliability data on the LPS-B. Though generalizeability may be a limitation, the LPS-B was used in the current study because its originally-sampled norms with an Oklahoma American Indian population are meaningful.

Oklahoma American Indian Historic Trauma Questions. For this study, fifteen questions regarding traumatic historical events common to many American Indian families (i.e., family member's death during removal to Oklahoma) were selected. These questions are supported by current research on specific American Indian historical and intergenerational trauma (Choney, Berryhill & Robbins, 1995; Duran & Duran, 1995; Napoleon, 1996; Yellow Horse Brave Heart, 1997). The compilation of questions was guided key cultural and psychological professionals as well as previous research (e.g., American Indian psychologists and therapists, elders, tribal leaders, and historians). For convenience, these questions will be referred to as the Oklahoma American Indian Historic Trauma Questions (HTQ) throughout the remainder of the text. All Oklahoma American Indian and Euro-American participants answered the HTQ's.

Demographics information included ethnicity (American Indian or Euro-American), gender, age, spouse's age, education level, spouse's education level, number of years in relationship, income and number of dependents.

Procedure

The American Indian participants were recruited to participate at booths set up at various American Indian general gatherings (benefit dances, Christmas gatherings) as well as public sites (a public library, office building lobbies, businesses frequented by the public). The Euro-American participants were recruited to participate at the booths set up at these various public sites but not the American Indian gatherings. Signs posted at the various sites and announcers at the American Indian gatherings announced the study. Participants were instructed to read and keep the informed

consent form, which included the purpose and procedure of the study, rights and guarantees, and telephone numbers of the researcher, researcher's supervisor, and University of Oklahoma's Research Administration Office (to insure all questions were addressed and rights were guaranteed). Participants then completed a demographics questionnaire, three instruments (if American Indian) or two instruments (if Euro-American), and answered a series of fifteen questions. Participation was voluntary. Participants were provided with secluded table space to complete their packet and were offered a chance to enter a drawing for prizes upon completion of their packets.

Results

In this study, data from the Oklahoma American Indian sample were examined to determine which variables, if any, were related to relationship aggression and marital satisfaction for Oklahoma American Indian couples, and whether significant relationships, either correlation or differences between groups, existed in comparison to the Oklahoma Euro-American sample. For between group differences, an omnibus MANOVA was performed, followed with two-way ANOVAs to confirm significant variables. Predictor variables were then examined for best possible combinations to explain relationship aggression and marital satisfaction. Multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the sets of predictors that worked best together (PROC RSQUARE, SAS, 1990). To address multicolinearity among independent variables, the model with the lowest mean square error was first examined. This method reflects the pattern of intercorrelations among predictors and is superior to the bivariate

correlation test (Berry & Feldman, 1985). Additionally, because the purpose of this study was to explore the effect of these variables in clinically significant ways, the decision was made with each set to retain significant variables. The best fitting model with the variables that combine to predict the presence of relationship aggression or marital satisfaction and that has the least error is most likely to be replicable. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests.

Demographic data were examined and evaluated to determine whether important differences existed between the Oklahoma American Indian and Oklahoma Euro-American groups as well as between the Oklahoma American Indian women and men samples (for descriptive statistics, see Table 1). Demographics between ethnic groups were compared, and findings indicated participant household income for the two groups significantly differed, with the American Indian group's income significantly lower than that of the Euro-American group's (see Table 2). The analysis found no significant differences between samples for participant's age, spouse's age, years married, education, spouse's education, or number of dependents upon household income (see Table 2).

The Oklahoma American Indian sample's demographics were also compared by gender. Men reported significantly higher household income averages than did women. No significant differences between women and men existed for age, spouse's age, years married, education, spouse's education, and number of dependents upon household income (see Table 3).

Next, the variables (spouse's physical and psychological aggression, parents' physical and psychological aggression, negotiation, revenge, drug use, alcohol use,

historic trauma, and traditionality) were compared by gender. Spouse's drug use before or during a conflict proved to significantly differ, with the women's spouse's drug use significantly higher than the men's (see Table 3). No other significant differences existed.

General hypotheses

The following general hypotheses were generated from a review of relevant research conducted with samples from among the general population.

General Hypothesis 1

The first general hypothesis tested the assumption that age would significantly correlate with presence of relationship aggression for the Oklahoma American Indian sample. For the total population and men, age did not correlate with physical aggression but did significantly correlate with psychological aggression; the older the participant, the lower the amount of participant's psychological aggression (see Table 4 and 5). For women, age did not correlate with physical aggression or psychological aggression (see Table 5).

General Hypothesis 2

The second general hypothesis tested the assumption that exposure to parents' relationship aggression during childhood would significantly correlate with current relationship aggression. For the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, parents' physical aggression significantly correlated with physical aggression and psychological aggression. Parents' psychological aggression significantly correlated with physical aggression and psychological aggression (see Table 4).

For Oklahoma American Indian women, parents' physical aggression did not significantly correlate with physical aggression in this current relationship, but did correlate with psychological aggression. Parents' psychological aggression also did not correlate with current physical aggression but did with psychological aggression (see Table 5).

For Oklahoma American Indian men, parents' physical aggression significantly correlated with current physical aggression and psychological aggression. Parents' psychological aggression significantly correlated with current physical aggression and psychological aggression (see Table 5).

General Hypothesis 3

The third general hypothesis tested the assumption that the presence of alcohol or drug use before or during a conflict would significantly correlate with relationship aggression. For the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, alcohol use significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = .34, p <.0001], spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = .44, p <.0001], injury from physical conflict [r (93) = .44, p <.0001], and spouse's injury [r (93) = .49, p <.0001]. Spouse's use of alcohol significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = .28, p <.002], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = .44, p <.0001], injury from physical conflict [r (93) = .33, p <.0001], and spouse's injury [r (93) = .35 <.0001], (see Table 4).

For Oklahoma American Indian women, alcohol use positively correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) =

.42, p <.001], spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = .44, p <.0001], injury from physical conflict [r (51) = .47, p <.0001], and spouse's injury [r (51) = .57, p <.0001]. Spouse's use of alcohol significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) = .34, p <.006], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = .54, p <.0001], injury from physical conflict [r (51) = .37, p <.003], and spouse's injury [r (51) = .37, p <.002], (see Table 5).

For Oklahoma American Indian men, alcohol use significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = .26, p <.05], spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = .41, p <.001], injury from physical conflict [r (41) = .43, p <.002], and spouse's injury [r (41) = .43, p <.002]. Spouse's use of alcohol significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = .31, p <.02], injury from physical conflict [r (41) = .30, p <.03], and spouse's injury [r (41) = .32, p <.02]. Spouse's use of alcohol did not significantly correlate with spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = .24, p <.09], (see Table 5).

The total Oklahoma American Indian sample reported that drug use significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = .26, p <.006], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = .26, p <.003], injury from physical conflict [r (93) = .39, p <.0001], and spouse's injury [r (93) = .41, p <.0001]. Spouse's drug use significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = .33, p <.0001], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = .37, p <.0001],

injury from physical conflict [r (93) = .36, p <.0001], and spouse's injury [r (93) = .38, p <.0001], (see Table 4).

For the Oklahoma American Indian women, drug use significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) = .34, p <.007], spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = .29, p <.02], injury from physical conflict [r (51) = .37, p <.003], and spouse's injury [r (51) = .42, p <.001]. Spouse's drug use significantly correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) = .36, p <.003], spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = .44, p <.0001], injury by physical conflict [r (51) = .38, p <.003], and spouse's injury [r (51) = .39, p <.002], (see Table 5).

For the Oklahoma American Indian men, drug use significantly correlated with psychological aggression. Drug use did not significantly correlate with physical aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = .14, p <.31], or spouse's psychological aggression[r (41) = .22, p <.09]; however, drug use did significantly correlate with injury from physical conflict [r (41) = .42, p <.003], and spouse's injury [r (41) = .40, p <.005]. Spouse's drug use significantly correlated psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = .29, p <.04], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = .29, p <.03], but not with physical aggression. Spouse's drug use did significantly correlate with injury from physical conflict [r (41) = .35, p <.01], and spouse's injury [r (41) = .36, p <.01], (see Table 6).

General Hypothesis 4

The fourth general hypothesis tested the assumption that education level would significantly correlate with relationship aggression. For the total Oklahoma

American Indian sample, women, and men, education level did not significantly correlate with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [Total sample: r (93) = -.03, p <.79; Women's: r(51) = .02, p <.87; Men's: r(41) = -.12, p< .38], or spouse's psychological aggression [Total sample: r (93) = -.07, p <.43; Women's: r(51) = .03, p <.80; Men's: r(41) = -.14, p < .27], (see Tables 4, 5, and 6).

General Hypothesis 5

The fifth general hypothesis tested the assumption that the number of years in a relationship would significantly correlate with relationship aggression. For the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, the number of years married did not correlate with physical aggression or spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = -.10, p <.23], but did significantly correlate with psychological aggression and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = -.17, p <.02]; the more time in a relationship, the less amount of aggression a participant expresses (see Table 4). For Oklahoma American Indian women, years married did not significantly correlate with physical, psychological, spouse's physical [r (51) = -.10, p <.34], or spouse's aggression [r (51) = -.16, p <.12], (see Table 5). For Oklahoma American Indian men, the number of years married significantly correlated with psychological aggression but did not with physical aggression, spouse's physical [r (41) = -.08 p < .49], or spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = -.18, p <.11], (see Table 5).

General hypothesis 6

The sixth general hypothesis tested the assumption that household income would significantly correlate with relationship aggression. This variable is particularly

interesting; the Oklahoma American Indian sample earned significantly lower income than did the Oklahoma Euro-American sample. For the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, household income correlated with physical aggression and spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = -.28, p <.001], psychological aggression, and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = -.23, p <.003]. For the Oklahoma American Indian women, income correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) = -.31, p <.006], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = -.22, p <.04], (see Table 5). For Oklahoma American Indian men, income correlated with physical aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = -.27, p <.03], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = -.30, p <.01]. For men, income did not correlate with psychological aggression (see Table 5).

Specific hypotheses

The following specific hypotheses were generated from a review of research conducted with American Indian populations as well as non–empirical observations mentioned in the literature:

Specific Hypothesis 1

The first specific hypothesis tested the assumption that adult Oklahoma American Indian women and men would participate in negotiation (settlement of conflict in a non-aggressive manner), psychological aggression, and physical aggression in amounts similar to those of the Euro-American sample. Primary analysis considered the manner of solving conflict (negotiation, psychological aggression and physical aggression) as acted out by the participant and spouse, and by ethnicity (American Indian or Euro-American). Results indicated a statistically significant

difference was found between ethnic groups' use of negotiation. The Oklahoma American Indian sample reported lower negotiation scores. Physical aggression was also found to be significant; accordingly, injury from conflict was significantly different between the two groups (see Table 2). The Oklahoma American Indian sample reported significantly higher physical aggression and injury. No statistically significant difference was found for psychological aggression. The two groups differed in spouse's negotiation, spouse's physical aggression, and spouse's injury (see Table 2). The Oklahoma American Indian sample reported lower scores on spouse's negotiation, and higher scores on both spouse's physical aggression and spouse's injury.

Specific Hypothesis 2

The second specific hypothesis explored the assumption that for both Oklahoma American Indian women and men, types of relationship aggression would be linked; physical aggression and psychological aggression would not occur independently of each other. For the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, physical aggression correlated with psychological aggression (see Table 4).

For the Oklahoma American Indian women's sample, physical aggression correlated with psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [$r(51) = .44$, $p < .0001$], spouse's psychological aggression [$r(51) = .70$, $p < .0001$], injury from conflict [$r(51) = .67$, $p < .0001$], and spouse's injury [$r(51) = .67$, $p < .0001$], (see Table 5).

For the Oklahoma American Indian men's sample, physical aggression correlated with psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [$r(41) = .78$, p

<.0001], spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = .50, p <.0001], injury from conflict [r (41) = .57, p <.0001], and spouse's injury [r (41) = .56, p <.0001], (see Table 5).

Specific Hypothesis 3

For the third specific hypothesis, both American Indian men and women will participate in relationship aggression equally, results from an ANOVA indicated that no significant difference existed between the genders for the variables physical aggression, psychological aggression, and negotiation (see Table 3), thus supporting this hypothesis.

Specific Hypothesis 4

The fourth specific hypothesis tested the assumption that both American Indian men and women involved in relationship aggression would be significantly less maritally satisfied than those not involved in relationship aggression. Bivariate correlation analysis indicated that, for the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, marital satisfaction correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = -.29, p <.01], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = -.42, p <.0001], indicating less satisfaction with higher levels of aggression (see Table 4).

For the Oklahoma American Indian women sample, marital satisfaction did not correlate with physical aggression, but did significantly correlate with psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) = -.23, p <.03], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = -.31, p <.002], (see Table 5). Again, women's scores indicated lower levels of marital satisfaction with higher levels of aggression.

For men, a similar pattern emerged. Marital satisfaction correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = -.29, p <.01], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = -.42, p <.0001], indicating that men, as women, indicated lower marital satisfaction with higher levels of aggression (see Table 5).

Specific Hypothesis 5

The fifth specific hypothesis explored the assumption that acculturative status, either traditional or nontraditional, of Oklahoma American Indian women and men would significantly influence relationship aggression. For the total, women, and men Oklahoma American Indian samples, no significant correlations were found between traditionality and physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [Total sample: r (93) = -.06, p <.45; Women's: r(51) = .93, p <.39; Men's: r(41) = -.003, p < .98], or spouse's psychological aggression [Total sample: r (93) = -.004, p <.96; Women's: r(51) = -.01, p <.89; Men's: r(41) = -.27, p < .81], (see Tables 4, 5, and 6).

Specific Hypothesis 6

The sixth specific hypothesis tested the assumption that the presence of historic trauma in American Indian women's and men's family backgrounds would significantly influence participants' involvement in relationship aggression.

For the total Oklahoma American Indian sample, historic trauma did not correlate with physical aggression; historic trauma significantly correlated with psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (93) = .26, p <.003], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (93) = .25, p <.001], (see Table 4).

For the Oklahoma American Indian women sample, historic trauma correlated with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (51) = .36, p <.001],, and spouse's psychological aggression [r (51) = .40, p <.0001], (see Table 5).

For the Oklahoma American Indian men sample, historic trauma did not correlate with physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = .09, p <.44], or spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = .05, p <.67],. Historic trauma correlated to negotiation [r (41) = .32, p <.004]. However, Boarding School Attendance (a subset of Historic Trauma) correlated with spouse's physical aggression [r (41) = .33, p <.02], and spouse's psychological aggression [r (41) = .34, p <.01]. Boarding school attendance did not correlate with negotiation [r (41) = -.02, p <.89], (see Table 5).

Multiple Regression Methodology

The proceeding paragraphs discussed simple correlations or relationships between a variable and physical aggression, psychological aggression, or marital satisfaction. These correlations do not take into account the influence of other predictor variables or the inflation of experiment-wise alpha due to the number of correlations conducted. To better ascertain the interrelationships among variables, the data from this study were examined to determine what combinations or sets of variables could predict physical aggression, psychological aggression, and marital satisfaction. Using the mean square error stopping rule, the best set of predictors were identified (Initial Model). Because the purpose was to find a strong, parsimonious set of predictors, each predictor was tested for statistical significance. The predictor

variables that had been contained in the original set and were found to be statistically significant were then determined as the best model (Final Model).

Specific Hypothesis 7

If physical aggression is present for Oklahoma American Indian adults, what is the best combination of variables that will predict physical aggression? For the total American Indian population, an initial six-variable model was chosen. The regression equation for this model indicated all six variables to be statistically significant. The final model contained the six predictor variables: psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression, spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's injury from conflict, and family or friends' revenge on spouse after conflict, and spouse's family or friends' revenge on participant after conflict. This model had an R^2 = .74, and a mean square error of 3.38. The overall equation accounted for 74% of the variance in the total Oklahoma American Indian sample's physical aggression (see Tables and 7).

Next, data was examined by gender to find the best set of predictors for physical aggression. For the Oklahoma American Indian women sample, the same process was performed to find the best set of predictors for physical aggression. The final model was chosen based upon an R^2 = .86, with a mean square error of 2.53. Spouse's physical aggression, injury from physical conflict, family or friends' revenge on spouse after conflict, and drug use before/during conflict were the significant predictors in the final model. (Psychological aggression, household income, and spouse's family or friends' revenge upon participant were found not to be significant predictors proposed in the initial best-set model). The overall equation accounted for

86% of the variance in the total Oklahoma American Indian women's sample's physical aggression (For initial model, see Tables 6 and 8).

For the Oklahoma American Indian men's sample, the final five-variable model predicting physical aggression was chosen based upon an $R^2 = .82$, with a mean square error of 1.38. The regression equation for this model indicated that all five variables were statistically significant. Psychological aggression, spouse's physical aggression, spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's drug use before/during conflict, and presence of historic trauma were the significant predictors contained in the final model. The overall equation accounted for 82% of the variance in the total Oklahoma American Indian men's sample's physical aggression (For initial model, see Tables 6 and 9).

Specific Hypothesis 8

If psychological aggression is present for Oklahoma American Indian adults, what is the best set of variables that will predict psychological aggression? For the best set of predictors of psychological aggression, the final nine-variable model was chosen based upon an $R^2 = .91$, with a mean square error of 4.39. The regression equation for this model indicated all nine predictor variables were significant, and it was determined to be the best predictor set. Spouse's psychological aggression, physical aggression, spouse's physical aggression, spouse's use of alcohol before/during a conflict, spouse's injury during physical conflict, drug use before/during a conflict, spouse's drug use before/during a conflict, spouse's family or friends' revenge upon participant after a conflict, and parents' psychological aggression were the significant predictors. The overall equation accounted for 91% of

the variance in the total Oklahoma American Indian total sample's psychological aggression (see Tables 10 and 11).

Next, data were examined to find the best set of predictors for psychological aggression by gender. For Oklahoma American Indian women, the final five-predictor model was chosen based upon an $R^2 = .89$, with the mean square error of 6.20. Spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's use of alcohol before/during a conflict, spouse's injury during physical conflict, spouse's drug use before/during a conflict, and spouse's family or friends' revenge upon participant after a conflict were the significant predictors in the final model. (Four additional predictor variables had been proposed in the initial model; spouse's physical aggression, physical aggression, parents' psychological aggression, and drug use before/during conflict were found to be non-significant. In the final model, the overall equation accounted for 89% of the variance in the total Oklahoma American Indian women's sample's psychological aggression (see Tables 10 and 12).

For American Indian men, the final five-predictor model was chosen based upon an $R^2 = .93$, with a mean square error of 2.95 (For initial model, see Table 13). Spouse's psychological aggression, physical aggression, spouse's physical aggression, spouse's use of alcohol before/during a conflict, and parents' psychological aggression were the significant predictors in the final model. The overall equation accounted for 93% of the variance in the men's psychological aggression (see Tables10 and 13).

Specific Hypothesis 9

What is the best combination of variables that will predict marital satisfaction for Oklahoma American Indian adults? The final four-predictor model had an

R^2 = .30, with a mean square error of 509.94. Household income, drug use before/during conflict, spouse's psychological aggression, and presence of historic trauma were the significant predictors in the final model. (Physical aggression, spouse's physical aggression, parents' psychological aggression, and parents' physical aggression were not statistically significant). The overall equation accounted for 30% of the variance in the total Oklahoma American Indian sample's marital satisfaction (For initial model, see Tables 14 and 15).

Data were examined to find the best set of predictors for marital satisfaction by gender. For the Oklahoma American Indian women's sample, the best single-predictor model was chosen based upon an R^2 = .14, with a mean square error of 622.921 (see Table 14). The single significant variable that was significant was household income. (Spouse's family and friends' revenge was found to be a non-significant predictor at $p < .05$; it should be noted that spouse's family and friends' revenge was found to be significant at $p < .10$). Household income accounted for 14% of the variance and was identified as the only predictor variable that addressed female marital satisfaction a way that was theoretically meaningful (For initial model, see Tables 14 and 16).

For the Oklahoma American Indian men's sample, the final four-variable model predicting marital satisfaction was chosen based upon an R^2 = .46, with the mean square error of 394.05. The regression equation for this model indicated that all four variables were statistically significant. Psychological aggression, spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's use of alcohol before/during a conflict, and parents' psychological aggression were the significant predictors in the final model. (Physical aggression was proposed in the initial best-set model, but it was found to be

non-significant). The overall equation accounted for 46% of the variance in the Oklahoma American Indian men's sample's marital satisfaction aggression (see Tables 14 and 17).

Discussion

The present study provided an investigation of Oklahoma American Indian relationship aggression. It attempted to clarify relationships among physical aggression, psychological aggression, and marital satisfaction. In addition, the study investigated variables that can specifically predict elevated levels of physical and psychological aggression, such as: spouse's physical and psychological aggression, parents' physical and psychological aggression, negotiation, revenge, drug use, alcohol use, historic trauma, traditionality, and the demographics (age, education, income). The relationships proposed above were supported by research with general populations. Regression analyses related variables to indicate considerable support for integration of their underlying constructs into a clinically relevant understanding of Oklahoma American Indian relationship aggression. It must be stressed, however, that this single study is not sufficient in description and understanding of Oklahoma American Indian relationship aggression; it should be viewed as a beginning springboard in identification of variables that should be further investigated.

The following paragraphs discuss significant differences between an Oklahoma American Indian sample and an Oklahoma Euro-American sample. Simple correlations among physical aggression, psychological aggression, and marital satisfaction are reported. The best set of predictors for physical aggression,

psychological aggression, and marital satisfaction are proposed for Oklahoma American Indian women and men. Each section is interdispersed with discussion of similarities and differences between women's and men's predictor variables.

Physical aggression

Oklahoma American Indian adults are involved in higher levels of physical aggression and sustain higher numbers of incidences of injury as a result of this aggression than do their Oklahoma Euro-American counterparts. Additionally, they are involved in higher rates than reported in other studies of general population samples. For the Oklahoma American Indian sample, 34% of the total (32.7% of women and 35.7% of men) report at least one incident of physical conflict within the past year as compared to the Oklahoma Euro-American sample, 19% of the total (18.7% of women and 19% of men). These findings were consistent with other American Indian studies: Robbins, Stoltenberg, Robbins, & Ross (2002) reported that relationship aggression was significantly higher for an Oklahoma American Indian sample than the nationally-based norm group, and Walters and Simon (1999) reported that 25% of a general American Indian women's sample reported experiencing some type of domestic violence, with 19% reporting physical aggression. Findings of this study also were consistent with other studies for the general population. Strauss (1979) reported that 11.4% of women and 11.3% of men (N = 385) reported the prevalence of physical assault within the past year. Strauss, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, and Sugarman (1996) reported the prevalence of physical assault, as assessed by the physical aggression scale, is 16% for married couples. It should be noted that the high overall rate of aggression found in the present Oklahoma American Indian sample, does not

imply that all Oklahoma American Indians are highly aggressive, but that the experiences that often include the stressors of discrimination and poverty influence the manner in which they interact during relationship conflict.

The Oklahoma samples did not significantly vary in demographic descriptors except income. For Oklahoma American Indians, lower income was related to higher amounts of physical aggression. Fairchild, Fairchild, and Stoner (1998) reported that a predictor of domestic violence for American Indian couples was living in a household that had a low socioeconomic status. For the Oklahoma American Indian sample, 21.3% had an average household income at or below $20,000, as compared to the Oklahoma Euro-American sample's 14.4%. The poverty level for an average family of 5 people in Oklahoma is $19,520, and 14.1% of the total population live at or below the poverty level, (U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services, 2000).

In this study, no significant differences were found in physical aggression between Oklahoma American Indian women and men. Findings are consistent with Robbins et al.(2002), that found no significant differences between Oklahoma Cherokee women and men for relationship aggression. Gender differences in relationship aggression have been addressed in previous studies with general populations. The results of this study support recent trends in research that support the mutuality of physical aggression, while also supporting that women tend to be physically injured during physical conflict at significantly higher rates than do men (Archer, 2000).

The average age for the Oklahoma American Indian sample is 41 years of age. The peak years of use of alcohol by American Indian people are between the ages of

25 and 44 years of age (National Clearinghouse for Alcohol Information, 1985, as reported by Taylor, 2000). This study found that increased alcohol use related to both increased physical aggression and spouse's physical aggression, injury and spouse's injury. Taylor (2000) suggested that alcohol use may be a compensatory mechanism to deal with the loss of traditional culture. Taylor contends that American Indian men and women experienced devastating loss of traditional roles and various forms of expressiveness. Taylor suggests that alcohol use may be a compensatory mechanism to give individuals a sense of empowerment and the feeling of ability to bring effective change into their world.

For the total group and women (but not men) in the Oklahoma American Indian sample, drug use before or during a conflict significantly correlated with physical aggression. Powers (1988) found that in a 1979 study on the Pine Ridge Reservation, 100% of physical aggression occurred under the influence of alcohol (77%) or drugs (23%). Norton and Manson (1995) reported in a study at a domestic violence shelter that 81% of men (reported by their wives) and 41% of women surveyed at a domestic violence shelter reported drug use during physically aggressive conflict. Though caution must be taken when predicting causation, Beauvais (1998) and Trimble (1999) both propose causes for American Indian adults' alcohol and drug use may include feelings of powerlessness, need for tension reduction, and coping with unpleasant and unwanted feelings. The link between alcohol and drug use may be further clarified. Byrne and Arias (1997) found that physical aggression and psychological aggression were significantly related to negative responsibility and causal attributions, and feelings of powerlessness among wives. Campbell, Sapochnik,

and Muncer (1997) and Byrne and Arias (1997) report that men tend to express aggression as a form of control or as retaliation for emotional hurt.

Parents' physical aggression was found to be a significant individual variable related to the participant's own physical aggression for the total sample and for men (but not for women). These results support previous findings that physically aggressive offenders report that during their childhood they witnessed their parents' relationship aggression (Julian et al., 1999; Serbin et al., 1998). Findings concerning general populations of men who experience their parents' relationship aggression support that they are more likely to act physically aggressive during conflicts while women who experience their parents' relationship aggression are more likely to become recipients of relationship aggression rather than act aggressively (Doumas, Margolin, & John, 1994). Role modeling is a major source of learning in American Indian culture (LaFromboise, Trimble, & Mohatt 1993). Thus, it can be reasoned that children who experience parents' physical and psychological conflict as modes of conflict resolution will carry this through into their adult relationships.

With American Indians, according to the postcolonial perspective, trauma can be rooted in unresolved grief and mourning related to loss and destruction of land, community, and loved ones, including ancestral relatives, as well as social and spiritual dislocation (Duran & Duran, 1995). Overwhelming grief and subsequent trauma-related reactions such as posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSF) accumulate as ongoing discrimination impinges on the inability of American Indians to mourn these losses. Duran and Duran (1995) propose that unresolved grief and trauma reactions are

intergenerationally transmitted through dysfunctional family coping patterns, such as physical and psychological aggression.

In this study, historic trauma for both women (in simple correlation) and men (in best predictor model) was related to physical aggression. In a study with American Indian men in a domestic violence project, Arredondo reported that men commonly felt resentment and mistrust in their relationships, tended to lack sympathy for others due to the lack of sympathy they received in their own traumatic experiences (Warters, 1996). Historic trauma was related to spouse's physical aggression. For men, historic trauma also positively correlated with negotiation. Historic trauma reported in this study is trauma operated on a conscious level; consequently, these men who could voice their awareness of the oppression on their ancestors and themselves could be more able to talk about their current relationship conflict. Further, attendance at a boarding school, a specific subset of historic trauma, was positively related to men's spouse's physical aggression. It may be assumed that these men were more likely to accept physical and psychological aggression from others as a means of communication during conflict due to patterns established from the boarding school experience: forced acceptance of outside authority and punishment for individual expression of one's culture (Duran & Duran, 1995).

Predictors of Physical Aggression for Women and Men

For women, the measure of physical aggression was found to be associated with spouse's physical aggression, injury from physical conflict, drug use before/during conflict, and family or friends' revenge on spouse after conflict. These four variables accounted for 86% of the variation in the women's model. While higher

levels of spouse's physical aggression, injury from physical conflict, and drug use related to higher levels of physical aggression, family or friends' revenge on spouse after a conflict predicted lower physical aggression.

In the men's model (accounting for 82% of the variance), spouse's physical aggression, psychological aggression, spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's drug use before/during conflict, and presence of historic trauma were predictor variables. While higher levels of psychological aggression and spouse's physical aggression related to higher levels of physical aggression, higher levels of spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's drug use before/during conflict, and presence of historic trauma were related to lower levels of physical aggression.

For the men's predictor model but not for the women's, physical aggression is predicted by presence of psychological aggression. Murphy and O'Leary (1989) reported that verbal aggression and psychological intimidation can be precursors of physical aggression for couples, and that both an individual's and his/her partner's psychological aggression did, indeed, predict physical aggression. Findings of the present study concur that for men, psychological aggression can be a predictor of physical aggression; however, findings for women do not support this relationship.

For both women and men, spouse's physical aggression is a predictor of physical aggression. A study by Archer and Haigh (1999) concluded that for both sexes, only when aggression toward a partner becomes compatible with the person's value systems does the person reciprocate, justifying the aggression. Though perceptions and causation for acting physically aggressive may possibly differ for women and men, both genders reciprocate their partners' physical aggression.

O'Leary (1993) reported that physical aggression is associated with modeling of physical aggression.

In this study, Oklahoma American Indian women, but not men, reported injury in the presence of physical aggression. Norton and Manson (1995) report that 38% of the women they surveyed at a domestic violence shelter, as opposed to 19% of the men (as reported by their wives), report injuries from physical aggression that were serious enough to need a physician's attention. Thirty-three percent of the women in this study report injury from physical conflict.

For Oklahoma American Indian women, family or friends' revenge on spouse after physical conflict indicates a traditional support system that assists in leveling power differences between women and men. This method may assist in preventing physical aggression; however, it may also perpetuate conflict in more sophisticated ways.

Oklahoma American Indian women report that drug use before or during conflict was linked to their own physical aggression. Men reported higher levels of their spouse's drug use as a predictor of their own lower levels of physical aggression.

Psychological aggression

Findings of this study indicate that the Oklahoma American Indian sample is involved in similar levels of psychological aggression, higher levels of physical aggression, and use lower levels of negotiation than the Oklahoma Euro-American adult sample during conflict. Research suggests Findings indicate Oklahoma American Indian cultures may mediate conflict in ways much differently than the mainstream culture. In a study by Winterowd et. al. (in print), the American Indian

sample tended to exhibit anger suppression and control of outward expression of anger more than the Euro-American norm group. LaFromboise, Trimble, and Mohatt (1993) comment that for many American Indian cultures a high value is placed on restraint of emotions and the acceptance of suffering and to express emotional upset may be seen as weak. Oklahoma American Indian adults may tend to regard emotionally upsetting subjects as taboo, which may hinder their communication in resolution of conflict. Failure to resolve emotional contention through negotiation may lead to perceptual differences that are incompatible with the person's value system, justifying the aggression (Archer & Haigh, 1999). Currently, many traditional means of negotiation are unavailable to American Indians who do not have the support of their extended families and traditional ceremonies. This may account for lower negotiation and higher aggression between relationship partners.

Neither women nor men exhibited higher levels of psychological aggression than the opposite gender. This concurs with Robbins et al. (2002) findings that for Oklahoma American Indians, no differences between genders were found regarding relationship aggression.

The Oklahoma American Indian sample earned a household income that was significantly less than the Euro-American sample. For the total sample, increase in income is related to decrease in participant's and spouse's psychological aggression. Women tended express less psychological aggression with increase in income. Men reported their spouse's psychological aggression decreased with increase in income, but reported no relation between their own psychological aggression and income. Perhaps an explanation may be that American Indian families who have to move to

areas with higher paying jobs tend to lose family and social support. These income-earners, traditionally men, tend to experience greater stress in daily living than their more traditionally connected relatives (LaFromboise & Graff-Low, 1989).

Men, but not women, also reported that the increase of number of years in the relationship related to lower psychological aggression. This may be related to relationship adjustment, lower levels of alcohol use after age 44, and other variables connected with age. For American Indian women, one possible explanation for no relationship between higher number of years in a relationship and lower psychological aggression is that traditionally, they have had the cultural support to rely on family members (grandparents, aunts, uncles, and other community elders). As participants' age increases, the number of people who provide assistance in child rearing, providing physical and emotional backing during times of crisis, and other daily living events decrease (LaFromboise, Trimble, and Mohatt, 1993). Thus, women may tend to experience life stressors well into mid-life and beyond and express their distress through use of psychological aggression.

For women, higher levels of historic trauma related to higher levels of their own and their spouse's psychological aggression. Men report boarding school attendance correlated with their spouse's psychological aggression. As Duran and Duran (1995) hypothesize, the presence of historic trauma may have a negative correlation with outward expression of anger due to the establishment of cultural oppression and the need to protect oneself from discrimination and/or abuse by the dominant culture. This need to protect may generalize to psychological relationship aggression.

This study found that both parents' physical and psychological aggression related to participants' use of psychological aggression during conflict. As mentioned earlier, O'Leary (1993) reported that physical aggression is associated with modeling of physical aggression.

Predictors of Psychological Aggression for Men and Women

For women, the best predictor set model for psychological aggression (accounting for 90% of the variance), included spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's use of alcohol before/during conflict, spouse's injury during physical conflict, spouse's drug use before/during a conflict, spouse's family or friends' revenge upon participant after a conflict. Women reported that the higher level of spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's use of alcohol, and spouse's injury predicted the higher the level of psychological aggression. Women reported that the higher the level of their spouse's drug use and spouse's family or friends' revenge predicted the lower the level of psychological aggression.

In the men's model (accounting for 93% of the variance), the best predictor set model included spouse's psychological aggression, physical aggression, spouse's physical aggression, spouse's alcohol use before/during conflict, and parents' psychological aggression. Men reported the higher the level of spouse's psychological aggression, physical aggression, spouse's use of alcohol, and parents' psychological aggression predicted the higher the level of psychological aggression. Men also reported that the higher the level of spouse's physical aggression, the lower the level of psychological aggression.

For both women and men, spouse's psychological aggression is a predictor of psychological aggression. As discussed earlier, despite reasons for reciprocating psychological aggression, both women and men find reciprocation of psychological aggression justified (Archer & Haigh, 1999).

For both women and men, spouse's alcohol use is a predictor of psychological aggression. Duran and Duran (1995) identifies alcohol use as a method of oppression. They propose that alcohol has been used historically and may be presently utilized to keep social control in possession of the more powerfully dominant (for a complete discussion, see Duran & Duran, 1995, p. 103-109). Because this social experience can be internalized and used in relationships, participants may view their spouse's alcohol use as an opportunity to identify displeasure with their actions and to vent verbal aggression caused by frustration.

Women and men tended to attribute Women tended to generalize causation to anger-related acts by spouse and family members as predictors of their own psychological aggression. For men, psychological aggression related to the more direct causation of the act of physical or psychological aggression. Women may be more sensitive to a wide variety of anger-provoking influences than men (Byrne & Arias, 1997). In the traditional network of American Indian family relations, women have historically taken a more extended and more intimate connections than do men, who are often more responsible for leadership of political and religious affairs (Duran & Duran, 1995).

For men but not women, parents' psychological aggression also predicted their psychological aggression. Doumas, Margolin, and John (1994) reported

intergenerational aggression patterns differed for males and females. They reported for men, exposure to aggression in the family of origin is predictive of marital aggression.

Marital satisfaction

Findings of this study indicate that the Oklahoma American Indian sample is as maritally satisfied as the Oklahoma Euro-American sample.

For the total sample and men, lower marital satisfaction related to higher levels of physical aggression. This finding is supported in studies with general population samples; O'Leary (1993) reported that physical aggression is associated with modeling of physical aggression, having been abused as a child, aggressive personality style, and acceptance of violence as a means of control. Oklahoma American Indian men and women reported that their increased marital satisfaction related to lower levels of both spouse's physical aggression and spouse's psychological aggression. Previous studies report that, in a general sample, maritally dissatisfied couples tend to be more critical, complain more, and express more displeasure and hostility than couples identified as satisfied in their relationships (Feeney, Noller, & Roberts, 1998).

Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

For women, the best predictor model for marital satisfaction (accounting for 14% of the variance), was the single variable: household income. Low socioeconomic status has been linked to relationship aggression (Fairfield, Fairfield, and Stoner, 1998). Because 29% of American Indian adults between ages 18 to 64 live at or below the poverty level in Oklahoma (U.S.Census Bureau, 1990), relationship aggression and marital dissatisfaction should be examined further in the context of socioeconomic status.

This study's findings regarding the lack of meaningful relationship between marital satisfaction and physical and psychological aggression for Oklahoma American Indian women are surprising. O'Leary, Malone, and Tyree (1994), reported that for a general sample of women, marital discord was directly and significantly related to both psychological and physical aggression. Feeney, Noller, and Roberts (1998) reported global dissatisfaction in marriage related with angry or aggressive responses to marital conflict. The Oklahoma American Indian women's sample did not endorse either psychological or physical aggression in the best predictor model for marital satisfaction. Because 86% of the variance remained unexplained, it is possible that many of the variables leading to women's marital satisfaction were not addressed in this study.

In the men's model for marital satisfaction (accounting for 46% of the variance), psychological aggression, spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's alcohol use before/during conflict and parents' psychological aggression were the predictor variables. Men reported that higher levels of psychological aggression predicted higher levels of marital satisfaction. Men reported that higher levels of spouse's psychological aggression, spouse's use of alcohol, and parents' psychological aggression predicted lower levels of marital satisfaction.

Findings regarding higher psychological aggression as a predictor of higher marital satisfaction do not correspond with previous studies. O'Leary (1993) reported that psychological aggression is highly related to marital conflict. Julian et al., (1999) noted that men report higher levels of marital satisfaction when they were less verbally abusive toward their wives. This Oklahoma American Indian men's sample reported

that the higher the level of psychological aggression, the higher the level of marital satisfaction. Findings may possibly be explained through an examination of traditional communication and historic trauma. Because these men reported higher levels of negotiation with higher levels of historic trauma, expression of emotion may be inhibited; however, expression of negative emotion may be a means by which to communicate, and thus, make men feel more connected to their spouse, and more satisfied in marriage.

The present study makes several unique contributions to understanding Oklahoma American Indian relationship aggression. First, it compares levels of aggression and marital satisfaction with an Oklahoma Euro-American sample as well as with general populations. It establishes links between physical aggression, psychological aggression, and marital satisfaction for Oklahoma American Indians, while examining differences between women and men. This study also establishes previously theorized variables (historic trauma, parents' relationship aggression, alcohol or drug use, family or clan revenge, age, and household income), as significant predictor variables for physical aggression, psychological aggression, and marital satisfaction. Further examination of these specific areas is recommended. Studies which examine American Indian relationship communication, American Indian women's marital satisfaction, and the influence of specific areas of historic trauma are identified as areas which need further investigation. Relationship aggression focusing on specific tribes may further clarify differences and suggest specific interventions.

Second, the present findings have implications for the training of professionals in the evaluation, intervention and treatment of Oklahoma American Indian couples

experiencing relationship aggression. Initial evaluation and treatment should carefully explore issues not only related to physical and psychological conflict, but related to drug and alcohol use, current family and social support, known family and clan history, and level of socioeconomic status.

Third, this study tapped into the complex variable of post-colonial historic trauma, which is often overlooked in research. Findings support the contemporary retraditionalization movement, which is extending traditional care taking and cultural transmission roles vital to the continuity of Indian communities (LaFromboise et al., 1994). Relationship aggression programs could be created at a community-based level to provide relationship aggression interventions that are culturally sound, relevant, and empowerment oriented for Oklahoma American Indian adults. Moreover, incorporating traditional roles into the development of community interventions reinforces Oklahoma American Indian resilience and helps to identify protective factors that have already helped many American Indians survive in the face of colonization.

There are many considerations and limitations of the present study. Foremost, as in any Euro-American based approach to research with other cultures, interpretation should be tentative and results should be critically viewed. McDonald (1998) cautioned against unnecessary "Pan-Indianism" in research. This study gathered data from a non-random sample of many Oklahoma American Indian tribes. Though it is established that relationship aggression is a pervasive problem that transcends individual cultural bounds, causes for and responses to relationship aggression may be different among each Oklahoma American Indian tribe. Some authors have noted the

possibility that culturally patterned variations in the expressions of emotions may account for differing report of relationship conflict and dissatisfaction. Within the American Indian cultures as well as between American Indian and mainstream cultures, not all have common categories of emotional expression (Russell et. al., 1995). In addition, the instruments used in this study are culture-bound in their wording and conceptual organization. The length of this instrument was also a consideration.

It is hoped that this study will provide a springboard for further investigations leading to improved approaches to relationship aggression for Oklahoma American Indian adults.

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APPENDIX A:

TABLES

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics: Oklahoma American Indian Sample by Gender

Variable:	Female Mean	/StdDv.	Male Mean	/StDv.
Age	41.08	13.48	44.26	11.49
Spouse's Age	42.56	14.31	41.17	11.82
Years Married	14.29	12.81	15.38	10.33
Education	3.94	1.09	4.24	0.76
Spouse's Education	3.73	1.10	4.14	0.93
Household Income	4.10	3.25	5.88	3.30
Dependents	1.29	1.30	1.60	1.64
Negotiation	17.37	9.90	18.29	8.41
Spouse's Negotiation	15.85	9.65	16.26	8.51
Psychological Aggression	5.88	7.29	5.45	5.94
Spouse's Psychological Aggression	6.25	7.82	6.29	7.46
Physical Aggression	2.25	4.11	1.48	2.58
Spouse's Physical Aggression	2.75	5.65	2.31	4.43
Injury	4.69	9.96	2.55	6.09
Spouse's Injury	4.63	9.43	2.43	5.23
Parents' Psychological Aggression	6.37	8.79	6.21	8.58
Parents' Physical Aggression	5.02	9.56	4.57	11.31
Family Friends'Revenge	.37	1.07	.17	0.58
Spouse's Family Friends'Revenge	.52	1.34	.24	0.79
Alcohol Use	.67	1.56	.93	1.72
Spouse's Alcohol Use	.88	1.69	.60	1.43
Drug Use	.40	1.19	.24	0.85
Spouse's Drug Use	.67	1.48	.17	0.66
Marital Satisfaction	98.90	26.67	106.43	25.64
Traditionality	3.34	0.40	3.33	0.43
Historic Trauma	5.75	2.83	5.93	3.26
Boarding School Trauma	.63	.49	.69	.47

*DAS Mean=111.52, Standard Deviation=16.76

**LPS-B Mean= 3.13, Standard Deviation= .36

Table 1 (Cont.): Demographic Characteristics: Oklahoma American Indian and Euro-American Samples

Variable:	Indian Mean	Indian StdDv	Euro Mean	Euro StdDv.
Age	42.50	12.67	40.08	13.33
Spouse's Age	41.94	13.21	38.82	12.93
Years Married	14.78	11.72	13.98	12.53
Education	4.07	0.96	3.87	1.04
Spouse's Education	3.91	1.04	3.93	0.96
Household Income	4.89	3.37	5.92	3.30
Dependents	1.43	1.46	1.12	1.24
Negotiation	17.78	9.23	20.80	8.29
Spouse's Negotiation	16.03	9.11	20.09	8.86
Psychological Aggression	5.69	6.68	4.61	5.27
Spouse's Psychological Aggression	6.27	7.62	4.78	5.50
Physical Aggression	1.90	3.51	1.01	2.75
Spouse's Physical Aggression	2.44	5.21	0.94	2.56
Injury	3.73	8.48	1.20	3.59
Spouse's Injury	3.65	7.88	1.00	2.77
Parents' Psychological. Aggression	6.30	8.65	6.62	7.96
Parents' Physical Aggression	4.82	10.32	2.41	6.44
Family Friends'Revenge	0.28	0.88	0.12	0.58
Spouse's Family Friends'Revenge	0.39	1.13	0.10	0.52
Alcohol Use	0.79	1.63	0.28	0.81
Spouse's Alcohol Use	0.76	1.58	0.34	0.82
Drug Use	0.33	1.05	0.14	0.65
Spouse's Drug Use	0.45	1.21	0.13	0.56
Marital Satisfaction	102.27*	26.35	110.46	19.18
Traditionality	3.34**	0.41	-----	-----
Historic Trauma	5.83	3.02	1.93	1.86
Boarding School	0.66	0.48	0.07	0.25

*DAS Mean=111.52. Standard Deviation=16.76 **LPS-B Mean= 3.13. Standard Deviation= .36

Table 2: Analysis of Variance for Oklahoma American Indians and Oklahoma Euro-Americans

Source	df	F	p
Age	183	1.60	.21
Spouse's Age	183	.54	.46
Years Married	183	.20	66
Education	183	1.98	.16
Spouse's Education	183	.09	.76
Household Income	183	4.36*	.04
Dependents	183	2.29	.13
Negotiation	183	5.45*	.02
Spouse's Negotiation	183	9.36**	.003
Psychological Aggression	183	1.47	.23
Spouse's Psych. Agg.	183	2.29	.13
Physical Aggression	183	3.69*	.05
Spouse's Physical Agg.	183	7.18**	.01
Injury from Conflict	183	6.86**	.01
Spouse's Injury	183	1.84	.18
Parents' Psych. Agg.	183	9.10**	.003
Parents' Physical Agg.	183	.07	.79
Family/Friends'Revenge	183	1.95	.17
Spouse's F/F's Revenge	183	5.06*	.03
Alcohol Use	183	7.15*	.01

Table 2 (Cont.): Analysis of Variance for Oklahoma American Indians and Oklahoma Euro-Americans

Source	df	F	p
Spouse's Alcohol Use	183	4.84*	.03
Drug Use	183	2.06	.15
Spouse's Drug Use	183	5.03*	.03
Marital Satisfaction	183	5.77*	.02
Historic Trauma	183	110.20**	.0001
Boarding School Trauma	183	110.15**	.0001

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 3

Analysis of Variance for Oklahoma American Indian Women and Men

Source	df	F	p
Age	93	1.48	.23
Spouse's Age	93	.26	.62
Years Married	93	.20	.66
Education	93	2.22	.14
Spouse's Education	93	3.73	.06
Household Income	93	6.91**	.01
Dependents	93	1.02	.32
Negotiation	93	.23	.63
Spouse's Negotiation	93	.05	.83
Psychological Aggression	93	.10	.76
Spouse's Psych. Agg.	93	.001	.98
Physical Aggression	93	1.23	.29
Spouse's Physical Agg.	93	.17	.68
Injury from Conflict	93	1.49	.23
Spouse's Injury	93	1.84	.18
Parents' Psych. Agg.	93	.01	.93
Parents' Physical Agg.	93	.04	.84
Family/Friends'Revenge	93	1.17	.28
Spouse's F/F's Revenge	93	1.45	.23
Alcohol Use	93	.57	.45

Table 3 (Cont.)

Analysis of Variance for Oklahoma American Indian Women and Men

Source	df	F	p
Spouse's Alcohol Use	93	.78	.38
Drug Use	93	.58	.45
Spouse's Drug Use	93	4.24*	.04
Marital Satisfaction	93	1.91	.17
Traditionality	93	.03	.91
Historic Trauma	93	.08	.78
Boarding School Tr.	93	.32	.56

*p < .05

**p < .01

Table 4: Intercorrelations Between Variables: Total Oklahoma American Indian Sample

	Physical Aggression	Psychological Aggression	Marital Satisfaction
1.Age	-.03 (.69)	-.16 (.03)	.16 (.12)
2.YrsMrd	-.12 (.15)	-.20 (.01)	.16 (.12)
3.Ed	-.08 (.35)	-.14 (.09)	.15 (.14)
6.Inc	-.26 (.002)	-.20 (.01)	.35 (.001)
7.Deps	.04 (.65)	.10 (.22)	.11 (.27)
8.Nego	-.51 (.06)	.15 (.04)	-.06 (.53)
9.SpNego	-.17 (.03)	.11 (.14)	.05 (.61)
10.PsycAg	.44 (.0001)	—	-.30 (.003)
11.SpPsycAg	.46 (.0001)	.78 (.0001)	-.38 (.0001)
12.PhysAgg	—	.44 (.0001)	-.25 (.014)
13.SpPhysAgg	.72 (.0001)	.42 (.0001)	-.31 (.003)
14.Inj	.64 (.0001)	.42 (.0001)	-.15 (.157)
15.SpInj	.63 (.0001)	.49 (.0001)	-.16 (.114)
16.ParPsyc	.22 (.011)	.55 (.0001)	-.27 (.01)
17.ParPhys	.26 (.003)	.47 (.0001)	-.14 (.16)
18.Rev	.30 (.001)	.35 (.0001)	-.07 (.48)
19.SpRev	.37 (.0001)	.36 (.0001)	-.31 (.002)
20.Alc	.38 (.0001)	.51 (.0001)	-.22 (.03)
21.SpAlc	.33 (.0001)	.51 (.0001)	-.20 (.05)
22.Drg	.30 (.002)	.29 (.001)	.05 (.611)
23.SpDrg	.29 (.002)	.36 (.0001)	-.14 (.18)
24.MS	-.21 (.008)	-.34 (.0001)	—
25.Trad	.05 (.51)	-.004 (.96)	-.13 (.21)
26.HxTr	.15 (.06)	.25 (.001)	-.31 (.003)
27.Brdng Schl	.29 (.003)	.28 (.002)	-.002 (.98)

Note: Correlation coefficients are reported with p values in parentheses. Significant numbers are bolded

Table 5: Intercorrelations Between Variables by Gender

	Physical Aggression		Psychological Aggression		Marital Satisfaction	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
1.Age	.10 (.38)	-.20 (.09)	-.28 (.25)	-.22 (.05)	.06 (.53)	.15 (.18)
3.Years Married	-.09 (.42)	-.16 (.19)	-.17 (.09)	-.25 (.03)	.12 (.20)	08 (.45)
4.Education	01 (.92)	-.24 (.08)	-.14 (.22)	-.14 (.27)	.06 (.59)	.23 (.07)
5.Income	-.26 (.02)	-.263(.04)	-.21 (.04)	-.22 (.07)	.25 (.01)	.11 (.34)
7.Dependents	.06 (.63)	.01 (.92)	.09 (.41)	.10 (.41)	.17 (.10)	-.13 (.26)
8.Negotiation	-.13 (.22)	-.17 (.16)	.19 (.06)	.07 (.52)	-.002 (.99)	-.21 (.06)
9.Spouse's Nego.	-.12 (.26)	-.23 (.06)	.17 (.10)	.01 (.90)	.02 (.81)	-.13 (.23)
10.Psych. Agg.	.46 (.0001)	.48 (.0001)	—	—	-.31 (.002)	-.37 (.001)
11.Sp.PsycAgg.	.44 (.0001)	.50 (.0001)	.82 (.0001)	.76 (.0001)	-.31 (.002)	-.42 (.0001)
12.PhysAgg	—	—	.46 (.0001)	.48 (.0001)	-.15 (.166)	-.28 (.02)
13.SpPhysAgg	.70 (.0001)	.78 (.0001)	.46 (.0001)	.40 (.001)	-.23 (.03)	-.29 (.02)
14.Injury	.67 (.0001)	.57 (.0001)	.46 (.0001)	.41 (.001)	-.17 (.11)	-.20 (.09)
15.Spouse's Injury	.67 (.0001)	.56 (.0001)	.54 (.0001)	.44 (.0001)	-.18 (.09)	-.17 (.15)
16. Par. Psyc. Agg	.17 (.133)	.27 (.03)	.54 (.0001)	.58 (.0001)	-.22 (.03)	-.42 (.0001)
17.ParPhys	.20 (.092)	.34 (.011)	.48 (.0001)	.47 (.0001)	-.27 (.009)	-.20 (.099)
18.Revenge	.33 (.009)	.23 (.110)	.41 (.001)	.27 (.040)	-.13 (.26)	-.10 (.44)
19.Spouse's Rev.	.38 (.002)	.33 (.021)	.39 (.001)	.32 (.01)	-.21 (.06)	-.18 (.15)
20.Alcohol Use	.34 (.006)	.43 (.002)	.46 (.0001)	.57 (.0001)	-.14 (.21)	-.43(.0001)
21.Spouse's Alc.	.28 (.026)	.41 (.004)	.58 (.0001)	.42 (.001)	-.15 (.17)	-.40 (.001)
22.Drug Use	.41 (.001)	.11 (.44)	.30 (.01)	.30 (.02)	-.01 (.96)	03 (.83)
23.Spouse's Drug	.30 (.02)	.24(.10)	.42 (.0001)	.27 (.04)	-.14 (.19)	-.08 (.53)
24.Marital Sat.	-.15 (.17)	-.28 (.02)	-.31 (.002)	-.37 (.001)	—	—
25.Traditionality	.04 (.70)	.06 (.64)	-.02 (.86)	.04 (.72)	-.13 (.17)	-.01 (.96)
26.Historic Trauma	.31 (.006)	-.09 (.47)	.32 (.002)	.09 (.43)	-.26 (.01)	-.19 (.09)
27.Boarding School	.33 (.01)	.23 (.11)	.32 (.009)	.23 (.083)	.02 (.849)	-.11 (.40)

Note: Correlation coefficients are reported with p values in parentheses. Significant numbers are bolded.

Table 6: R-square Multiple Regression for Physical Aggression: Oklahoma American Indian Sample

Model	R-square	MSE	Variables in Model
Total Sample			
Initial	.74	3.44	Spouse's Physical Aggression, Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Injury, Revenge, Spouse's Revenge
Final	.74	3.44	(Same as Initial)
Women			
Initial	.88	2.39	Spouse's Physical Aggression, Psychological Aggression, Drug Use, Injury, Revenge, Parents' Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Revenge
Final	.86	2.53	Spouse's Physical Aggression, Drug Use, Revenge, Injury
Men			
Initial	.82	1.38	Spouse's Physical Aggression, Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Drug Use, Historic Trauma
Final	.82	1.38	(Same as Initial)

Table 7: Regression Analysis for Physical Aggression: Final Model for Total Oklahoma American Indian Sample

Degrees of Freedom	MSE	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
6	3.44	42.11	.0001	.74	.73

Six Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Spouse's Physical Agg.	.46	.67	8.94	.0001
Psychological Agg.	.27	.52	3.91	.0001
Spouse's Psych. Agg.	-.21	-.45	-3.23	.002
Spouse's Injury	.19	.42	4.49	.0001
Revenge	-1.99	-.50	-5.10	.0001
Spouse's Revenge	.59	.19	2.03	.04

Table 8: Regression Analysis for Physical Aggression: Final Model for Women's Sample

Degrees of Freedom	MSE	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R
4	2.53	73.30	.0001	.86	.85

Four Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Spouse's Physical Agg.	.52	.05	.71	11.18	.0001
Injury	.29	.04	.70	7.30	.0001
Revenge	-3.38	.36	-.88	-9.52	.0001
Drug Use	1.22	.25	.35	4.98	.0001

Table 9: Regression Analysis for Physical Aggression: Final Model for Oklahoma American Indian Men's Sample

Degrees of Freedom	MSE	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
5	1.38	33.45	.0001	.82	.80

Five Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Probability >|T|
Spouse's Physical Agg.	.62	.08	1.07	7.90	.0001
Psychological Agg.	.42	.07	.97	6.21	.0001
Spouse's Psych. Agg.	-.28	.07	-.82	-3.90	.0001
Spouse's Drug Use	-1.04	.35	-.27	2.97	.005
Historic Trauma	-.12	.06	-.15	-2.16	.04

Table 10: R-square Multiple Regression for Psychological Aggression: Oklahoma American Indian Sample

Model	R-square	MSE	Variables in Model
Total Sample			
Initial	.91	4.39	Physical Aggression, Spouse's Physical Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Injury, Spouse's Revenge, Spouse's Alcohol Use, Drug Use Spouse's Drug Use, Parents' Psychological Aggression
Final	.91	4.39	(Same as Initial)
Women			
Initial	.91	5.71	Spouse's Physical Aggression, Physical Aggression, Drug Use, Parents' Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Drug Use, Spouse's Injury, Spouse's Alcohol Use, Spouse's Family/Friends' Revenge
Final	.89	6.20	Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Drug Use, Spouse's Injury, Spouse's Alcohol Use, Spouse's Family/Friends' Revenge

Table 10: R-square Multiple Regression for Psychological Aggression: Oklahoma American Indian Sample (Cont.)

Model	R-square	MSE	Variables in Model
Men			
Initial	.93	2.95	Physical Aggression, Spouse's Physical Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Parents' Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Alcohol Use
Final	.93	2.95	(Same as Initial)

Table 11: Regression Analysis for Psychological Aggression: Final Model for Total Oklahoma American Indian Sample

Degrees of Freedom	MSE	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
9	4.39	96.37	.0001	.91	.90

Nine Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Spouse's Psychological Agg.	.60	.05	.69	11.42	.0001
Physical Aggression.	.43	.10	.23	4.17	.0001
Spouse's Physical. Agg.	-.35	.07	-.27	-4.71	.0001
Drug Use	-.73	.32	-.11	-2.29	.02
Spouse's Drug Use	-.55	.28	-.10	-1.94	.05
Spouse's Alcohol	.91	.20	.22	4.70	.0001
Spouse's Injury	.25	.05	.30	4.98	.0001
Spouse's Fam/Frs' Revenge	-.88	.27	-.15	-3.29	.001
Parents' Psychological Agg.	.13	.04	.17	3.56	.001

Table 12: Regression Analysis for Psychological Aggression: Final Model for Oklahoma American Indian Women's Sample

Degrees of Freedom	MSE	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
5	6.20	78.07	.0001	.89	.88

Five Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Spouse's Psychological Agg.	.64	.07	.69	8.74	.0001
Spouse's Alcohol Use	1.27	.32	.29	4.01	.0001
Spouse's Drug Use	-.87	.34	-.18	-2.55	.01
Spouse's Injury	.27	.06	.36	4.58	.002
Spouse's Fam/Frs' Revenge	-1.27	.39	-.23	-3.23	.002

Table 13: Regression Analysis for Psychological Aggression: Final Model for Men's Sample

Degrees of Freedom	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
5	90.66	.0001	.93	.92

Five Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Probability >|T|
Spouse's Psychological Agg.	.65	.07	.81	8.93	.0001
Spouse's Physical Agg.	-.59	.12	-.44	-4.88	.0001
Physical Aggression	.78	.17	.34	4.51	.0001
Parents' Psychological Agg.	.15	.04	.22	3.66	.001
Spouse's Alcohol Use	.46	.21	.11	2.13	.04

Table 14: R-square Multiple Regression for Marital Satisfaction: Oklahoma American Indian Sample

Model	R-square	MSE	Variables in Model
Total Sample			
Initial	.30	509.94	Household Income, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Drug Use, Historic Trauma
Final	.30	509.94	(Same as Initial)
Women			
Initial	.19	597.30	Spouse's Family/Friends' Revenge, Household Income
Final	.14	622.92	Household Income
Men			
Initial	.49	384.82	Physical Aggression, Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Alcohol Use, Parents' Psychological Aggression
Final	.46	394.05	Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Psychological Aggression, Spouse's Alcohol Use, Parents' Psychological Aggression

Table 15: Regression Analysis for Marital Satisfaction: Final Model for Total Oklahoma American Indian Sample

Degrees of Freedom	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
4	9.40	.0001	.30	.27

Four Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Spouse's Psychological Agg.	-1.02	.36	-.29	-2.82	.006
Household Income	2.05	.74	.26	2.75	.007
Drug Use	6.39	2.41	.25	2.66	.009
Historic Trauma	-2.26	.83	-.26	-2.73	.008

Table 16: Regression Analysis for Marital Satisfaction: Final Model for Oklahoma American Indian Women's Sample

Degrees of Freedom	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
1	8.25	.006	.14	.12

Five Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Household Income	3.09	1.08	.38	2.87	.006

Table 17: Regression Analysis for Marital Satisfaction: Final Model for Oklahoma American Indian Men's Sample

Degrees of Freedom	F Value	>F	R^2	Adj. R^2
4	7.86	.0001	.46	.40

Four Variable Model:	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	Standardized Estimate	T for H: Parameter=0	Prob. >|T|
Psychological Aggression	4.21	1.43	.97	2.95	.006
Spouse's Psychological Agg.	–3.42	.86	-.99	-3.98	.0001
Parents' Psychological Agg.	-7.38	2.59	-.44	-3.01	.005
Spouse's Alcohol Use	-1.31	.54	-.44	-2.40	.02

APPENDIX B:

PROSPECTUS

Intimate Relationship Aggression and Marital Satisfaction of Muscogee (Creek) American Indian and Euro-American Samples: A Research Proposal

Sharla Robbins

University of Oklahoma

Counseling Psychology Program

Intimate Relationship Aggression and Marital Satisfaction

Of Muscogee (Creek) American Indian and Euro-American Samples:

INTRODUCTION

Researchers have searched aggression in marital relationships to find causal links, progression, and effects on marital satisfaction as well as mental well being. A vast majority of research on aggression has focused predominantly on male perpetrators. These studies have been, and still are, necessary to the improvement of relationships as well as to safety of women; a woman's greatest risk of assault is from her intimate partner (Browne, 1993). In 1996, four million American women experienced a serious assault by an intimate partner (American Psychological Association, p.10). Russell (1982) reported that between 21% and 34% of all adult women will be assaulted during their adult lives by an intimate partner (as reported by Browne, 1993). Approximately 95% of reported domestic violence victims in Oklahoma are females (Oklahoma State Department of Health, 2000). Men engage more frequently in more serious forms of violent acts, such as fighting, sexual assaults, and homicides (Rutter & Giller, 1983). Over 50% of female homicide victims are murdered by their partners, and approximately 25% of females visiting hospital emergency rooms are seen for injuries due to domestic violence (Oklahoma Department of Health, 2000).

The stereotypical domestic violence dispute models society's views: the woman is abused or beaten by her husband, who is then viewed by society as a criminal or mentally ill. As a result, the price males pay for physical aggression is high. Social disapproval of physical aggression is greater when the aggressor is male (Miller & Simpson, 1991). As a consequence, men experience more intense feelings of guilt than do women following aggressive acts toward the opposite sex (Miller & Simpson, 1991).

Only recently has female physical aggression been thoroughly researched as a contributing factor in marital discord. Gender roles are becoming less traditional, and women are more and more viewed as equals in intimate relationships. With the leveling- out of respect and responsibility comes difficult problems. Every year, five percent of all domestic violence against men is perpetrated by intimate partners (Bureau of Justice, 1996, p.12). In an analysis of 95 articles regarding spousal abuse, roughly 65% report equal violence between genders: as many females perpetrate violence as males (Bureau of Justice, 1996, p.12). In Browne and Williams' 1993 study, thirty-nine percent of deaths due to relationship aggression during the period between 1976 and 1987 were men killed by female partners. The statistics from these studies indicate that relationship violence is a serious occurrence that can originate from and escalate due to participation by either or both partners.

American Indian Relationship Aggression. According to the Bureau of Justice (1996), domestic violence is statistically consistent across racial and ethnic boundaries. Relationship aggression has not always been so pervasive in American Indian tribal cultures; spousal abuse rarely occurred before European colonization

(Duran & Duran, 1995). Many sources have attributed the introduction of alcohol, Christianity, and the European hierarchical family structure as attributing to destruction of the traditional marital framework. Traditionally, family structures insured minimal abuse among spouses, with shared and well-defined positions of power for both men and women, strong guidance from social and religious practices, and minimal outside pressure from a changing society. Both men and women's status in their tribes were clearly defined. Because of previous and continued forced changes in traditional marriage systems, family structures, and removal of children to foster homes and boarding schools, the American Indian family system has been weakened. Forced removal from ancestral lands, constant poverty and subsistence deprivation, and suppression of religious and cultural practices have stripped American Indian tribal people of identity. These factors have contributed serious breakdown of the structure of the American Indian family (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2000).

Research regarding American Indian domestic violence leaves the picture incomplete. The 1985 National Family Violence Survey reported that out of a sample of 204 American Indian couples (no identifying tribes or other demographics reported), 15.5% reported physical aggression in their relationships and 7.2% reported severe violence, compared to 14.8% and 5.3% of their Euro-American counterparts, respectively (as reported by Bachman, 1992). With the assumption that homicide and suicide statistics are indicators of aggression in a culture, the United States Indian Health Services (IHS) reported 584 suicides and 535 homicides occurred within IHS jurisdiction during the 1991 to 1993 time span. (The IHS Primary, 1997). IHS reported

suicide and homicide as the eighth and ninth leading cause of death among American Indians during the 1970's. With this data, general aggressiveness was moderately correlated with accidents, and though not statistically significant, aggression accounted for 23% of the variance for the correlation with suicide. (Field, 1963, as reported by Young, 1992).

A recent study on marital satisfaction with an Eastern Oklahoma American Indian tribe indicated that a non-clinical sample significantly different on the aggression scale on the MSI-R when compared to the norm group (Robbins, 1999). The American Indian sample experienced significantly higher levels of aggression in their relationship than did the predominantly Euro-American norm group. Additionally, Wallace et al. (1996) reported that 75% of female American Indian/Alaska Native (AI/AN) homicide victims were killed by someone they know, compared to 65% of their Euro-American counterparts, and one-third AI/AN female homicide victims are killed by family members. A similar finding was reported by Fairfield, Fairchild, and Stoner (1998), when they studied 371 Navajo women. They found that 52.5% of these women reported at least one episode of domestic violence by a male partner with 16.4% reporting current abuse.

In 1998, statistics in Oklahoma indicate that the rates of deaths by accident and by suicide were substantially higher for American Indians than the rates for Euro- and African Americans. The rates for Euro- and African Americans for death by accidents were 5.7% and 4.9% (respectively) as compared to 9% for American Indians. Death by suicide rates were less than 1% for both Euro- and African Americans while it was 1.6% for American Indians (Oklahoma State Department of

Health, 2000). Oklahoma American Indians experience one and one-half times more deaths by accident and 5 times more deaths by suicide than do their Euro-American counterparts. They also experience almost twice as many deaths by accident and 2 ½ times as many deaths by suicide as their African American counterparts. It may be assumed that American Indians in Oklahoma experience and exhibit more aggressive behavior than other majority and minority populations in the state. Domestic violence report rates by counties indicate that Tulsa County and Okfuskee County, Oklahoma, were 34% to 67% higher than state averages for 1989 through 1992. The highest populations of Creek people center in Okmulgee County, Okfuskee County, and in Tulsa County (Oklahoma State Department of Health, 2000).

What factors keep American Indian women and men in abusive relationships? Culturally, many tribes discourage tribal members to seek assistance outside family or clan ties. A woman who seeks assistance elsewhere may be ostracized from her family; many times an "informant" to the outside mainstream world who reports another tribal member is viewed as worse than the perpetrator of domestic violence. Resources may be difficult to obtain; telephones, childcare, and transportation may be difficult to find in remote areas. Language may be a barrier; many Indian women and men speak English as a second language and may not feel proficient to convey their dilemmas. LaFrombois, et al. (1994) discuss that enduring misfortune has become an accepted way of life among American Indian people; this survival mechanism may contribute to reluctance in seeking help when assaulted. Institutional barriers are also noted as factors that keep American Indian women and men in abusive relationships. These factors include barriers such as the absence of shelters and agencies in

American Indian neighborhoods and accessibility in rural settings, helpers who are not familiar with tribal lifestyles and customs, and therapists who neither understand the tribal language nor understand the nuances of communication (Williams, 1994).

For American Indian males, abuse is devastating. Oscar Arredondo (1989) shared observations he made when working with male violence perpetrators in the Minneapolis Division of Indian Works Violent Partner Project. He noted that common factors for Indian men in the program included the role of chemical dependency in their violence; their lack of communication skills, especially regarding their emotions; problems with self-esteem; experiences in growing up in abusive homes or foster homes; more general exposure to violence on the reservation or in their communities; their lack of literacy and education. He goes on to conclude that these men were not taught that men were supposed to be in charge, as studies with Euro-American violent perpetrators report; they were taught to see violence as a plausible way to resolve conflict. These men were mistrustful, remembering stories of their grandfathers and uncles being shot or beaten for being Indian. They reported feeling resentment about recognition of their own victimization, reporting they did not receive sympathy for growing up in alcoholic homes or being beaten for speaking their languages in front of boarding school teachers. Arredondo acknowledged that Indian men have taken on the identities of their dominant culture, destroying their own (Minnesota Center Against Violence and Abuse, 2000).

Each American Indian tribe has independently suffered its own traumatic events throughout history. This historic trauma effects the coming generations, without completion of the grief process. Five general areas of historic generational

trauma appear as common for many tribes: (a) forced removal from traditional, sacred homelands and tribal ways; (b) the killing of tribal chiefs, leaders, and important persons; (c) mutilation, massacres, and mass burials; (d) the forced removal of children to boarding schools and foster homes wherein they were abused, starved, exposed to horrendous health conditions and to a wide variety of diseases, and where they often died; and (e) denial of spiritual and cultural practices which define individuals as tribal members (Brave Heart, 1998; Choney, et al, 1995; Debo,1957).

Though the Creek and Cherokee tribes were ancient enemies, the United States government placed the tribes in neighboring proximity in Northeastern Oklahoma when the tribes were removed from their ancestral homes. Both tribes experienced their own "trail of tears." Both tribes experienced massacre of their leaders and abolition of their traditional cultural ways of life. Today, both tribes live and interact in the same rural and urban areas. They interact in work and social settings. A study by Robbins (1999) may assist in understanding Creek relationship aggression. Robbins (1999) examined relationship aggression of Cherokee adults by gender. Participants self-identified as Cherokee and traditionality was determined by Cherokee language fluency. Researchers gathered data in participants' tribal communities, further insuring that the participants were somehow connected to their cultures. Data from the Family History of Distress and Global Distress scales from the Marital Satisfaction Inventory-Revised (Snyder, 1998) were examined to determine whether a relationship exists between each scale and male and female aggression. Socioeconomic status was also analyzed to determine if there was a relationship to aggression in the marriage.

The participants included 162 Northeastern Oklahoma Cherokee married adults: 85 women and 77 men. Ages ranged from 17 to 80 years, with a mean of 38. Fifty-eight percent of respondents reported being married only once, and the average years married was 13. The average household consisted of the respondent and spouse, 1.31 children, and other relatives, including parents, grandchildren, and siblings, making the total 5.73 persons per household on average. Sixty-nine percent of respondents were employed, with 60% of their spouses employed, most in manual labor jobs such as working in local chicken factories or nurseries. Over 50% of households reported a total income below poverty level, and 24.69% reported an annual income $10,000 or below.

Results indicated that Cherokee males and females did not differ in levels of relationship aggression. Both males and females exhibit equal aggression toward their spouses, with a mean T-score of 52.29 (minimum possible score of 40 to maximum score of 70). Aggression scores did not correlate significantly with socioeconomic status or family history of distress scores. Aggression scores did significantly positively correlate with global distress ($r=.547$, one tailed $p=.0001$), indicating that, in a Cherokee relationship, if aggression is present, marital distress will likely coincide (Robbins, 1999). Though these tribes have differing histories and cultural beliefs, information regarding Cherokee relationship aggression and marital satisfaction may assist in understanding these areas of focus with their neighbors, the Muscogee (Creek) Nation people.

The Problem

This study will examine relationship aggression among married Muskogee (Creek) adults in Northeastern Oklahoma. It will investigate the existence of relationship aggression, type of aggressive acts, frequency of aggressive acts, whether aggressive types are linked, marital satisfaction, the impact of differences in traditional and non-traditional cultural beliefs, differences in age groups of participants and of spouses, impact of family-of-origin relationship aggression, the frequency of the presence of alcohol or drugs during aggressive acts, the impact of historical trauma, differences in levels of education on relationship aggression for both participants and spouses, and number of years in the relationship.

Purpose of This Research

The purpose of this research is multifaceted. First, it is to determine whether Northeastern Oklahoma married Muscogee (Creek) adults, both males and females, are involved in amounts of relationship aggression similar to the average Euro-American married male and female. Second, is to determine whether a clinical sample and a non-clinical sample of married Muscogee (Creek) adults differ in their involvement in relationship aggression. Third is to determine what type(s) of relationship aggression occur(s) for each sample, and whether the types are linked. Fourth, does relationship aggression affect marital satisfaction differently in Creek marriages than it does in Euro-American marriages, and differently between the clinical and non-clinical Creek samples? Fifth, this study will determine whether Creek men and women whose families experienced an historical trauma influenced participants' relationship aggression toward their partners.

Significance of the Study

Examining aggression among married adult Creek males and females may lead to valuable information that can decrease marital discord, decrease domestic violence, and increase marital satisfaction for Creek people in therapy. Prevention of family disintegration and divorce may influence other areas of concern, such as child abuse and molestation, single-parenting issues, substance abuse, prevention of incarcerations for violent relationship crimes, and general mental health issues. This study may also assist in clarifying differences and further diminish cultural stereotyping.

General Replication Hypotheses

Results from prior research support the following hypotheses for general populations. These will be tested for the clinical and non-clinical Creek samples using the alpha .05 level of significance:

1. For both Creek males and females, age will significantly negatively correlate with presence of relationship aggression.
2. Exposure to relationship violence in childhood will significantly influence both married adult Creek males and females (presence of relationship violence in childhood will positively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression).
3. Presence of alcohol or drug use will significantly positively influence participant's acting out relationship aggression.

4. Years of education will significantly negatively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression. The higher the education level, the lower the amount of relationship aggression will be present.
5. Months/years in the relationship will significantly negatively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression. The more time in the relationship, the lower the amount of relationship aggression.
6. Socioeconomic status will significantly negatively correlate with participants' acting out relationship aggression. The higher the socioeconomic level, the lower the amount of relationship aggression.

Specific Hypotheses for Creek Couples

Specific hypotheses for both the clinical and non-clinical Creek adult samples will be tested using the alpha .05 level of significance:

1. Married adult Creek males and females in the non-clinical sample will be involved in initiating and participating in negotiation, psychological aggression, and physical aggression in amounts similar to those of the Euro-American sample.
2. Married adult Creek males and females in the clinical sample will be involved in initiating and participating in psychological aggression and physical assault in amounts which significantly differ from the amounts reported for the married adult Creek males and females in the non-clinical sample.

3. For both married adult Creek males and females, types of relationship aggression will be linked: physical assault will not occur independently of psychological aggression.
4. Both Creek males and females will initiate and participate in relationship aggression equally.
5. Both married adult Creek males and females involved in relationship aggression will be significantly less maritally satisfied than those not involved in relationship aggression .
6. Accultrative status of adult Creek males and females will significantly influence relationship aggression.
7. The presence of historic trauma in married adult Creek males' and females' family backgrounds will significantly positively influence participant's acting out relationship aggression.
8.

Definition of Terms

The study of aggression has a long history. Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears's *Frustration and Aggression* (1939) was a landmark publication which helped identify aggression as a construct that is something other than instinctual. Before this publication, psychologists and the general public considered aggression as a part of human character, and thus, unavoidable. This series of studies helped to identify aggressive behavior as futile, it opened up possibilities of handling negative relationship conflicts in ways other than aggressively destructive. Though causes and reactions to emotions that people act on aggressively vary with each

individual, some common patterns occur. Evidence suggests that the level of aggression shown in adult behavior is strongly influenced by certain powerful variables, for example experiencing violent behavior and growing up in poverty. No known personality configuration exists. Perception plays a huge role on whether a person will react aggressively to a negative stimulus (Popplestone & White-McPhearson, 1988). The influential effects on a person when experiencing aggression is difficult to assess, though beginning patterns of behavior have been recently studied.

Defining Aggression: The terms aggression, hostility, conflict, domestic violence, and abuse have all been utilized in the literature to describe conflictual interactions between relational partners. Each of these related terms has been used interchangably in the literature.

Popplestone and White-McPherson's (1988) definition of aggression: "actions that are intended to degrade, harm, injure, or destroy" will define *aggression* for this study; the idea of hostile aggression rather than assertive "aggression" is the focus, including the notion of intent to damage. Aggression is an *act* that is operationalized through a destructive physical or psychological manner of interaction with a spouse or partner.

Physical assault is meant to convey a form of behavior expressed rather than consequences produced or intended. *Psychological aggression* includes coersive verbal behavior meant to convey control, belittlement, or damage to the person receiving the abuse, and threat that is coercive non-verbal behavior not otherwise defined by verbal or physical threat, such as slamming doors or smashing objects.

Defining Marriage: The term *Marriage* will be defined in this study as any cohabitation, whether legally bound or not, for a period of six months or longer. If separated or divorced, the participants must have cohabitated with a partner for a 6 month period in the year directly preceding the study.

Defining Acculturation: For the purposes of this study, *Accultration* will be defined as the lack of desire to identify with American Indian culture and the preference to identify with the majority culture.

Defining Historical Trauma: Brave Heart (1997) defines historical trauma as cumulative trauma which collects and compounds emotional and psychic wounding over the life span and/or across generations. Just as culture subsumes a collective ego-identity, the collective experience of individuals within a culture contributes to this identity. Not only would those directly experiencing a positive or negative event incorporate its occurrence and effects into their ego-identity, they will likely pass this on to generations to come, as a distinguishing aspect of who they are and how they came to be. Exposure to significant and repeated traumas as a collective experience is a very real part of American Indian history. Therefore, just as traditions and beliefs are passed from generation to generation, as are the stories and emotional effects of victories and losses. Vicariously, the traumas of ancestors are re-experienced and the losses remembered and grieved through the generations.

Limitations

Because this study includes data that is self-report of information that may be difficult to divulge, variance in participants' perceptions should be acknowledged.

Information gathered from participants will be assumed to be accurate and reliable data. Projecting intents of participants will be avoided.

The reader is cautioned that the methodology of this research is of Euro-based conceptualization that may not reflect true understanding of adult Creek marital relationships. Duran and Duran (1995) caution that the point of reference to interpret data collected from empirical research studies with American Indians may be not only inaccurate but may also lead to conclusions that lack theoretical and clinical relevance. This study will attempt to report existing situations. Limited interpretation will be stated as tentative hypotheses for future investigations.

In spite of limitations such as geography, time, and funding, attempts will be made to gain a fair, unbiased, and representative sampling of married Creek adults in Northeastern Oklahoma.

Organization of the Study

This investigation will be presented in five chapters. Chapter I introduced the study of relationship aggression and marital satisfaction among married Creek adults in Northeastern Oklahoma. Chapter I also includes the outline of the problem under investigation, including significance of the study, definition of terms, and major hypotheses. Chapter II, the Review of the Literature, includes information about Creek culture and marriage, gender differences in perceptions of relationship aggression, the influence of family-of-origin relationship aggression, and the influence of age, time, and education level on relationship aggression. It examines the effects of alcohol/drug use and historical trauma factors that influence relationship aggression. The links and progression between psychological aggression and physical relationship assault are

reviewed. A review of the cultural and ethnic differences in relationship aggression concludes the review.

Chapter III explains the method used for the research by (a) describing the population and sample; (b) discussing the instrumentation; and (c) explaining how the data will be analyzed. Chapter IV will include the discussion of the results, summary, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter includes a review of literature related to relationship violence. A brief history of Muscogee (Creek) culture and marriage will assist in understanding cultural and historical factors that may contribute to present Creek attitudes toward relationship aggression. This chapter covers relationship aggression's impact on marital satisfaction. Discussion of the literature regarding the link between the types of relationship aggression establishes groundwork for examining links of aggressive acts perpetrated by Creek adult males and females. The review examines gender differences in perceptions of and acting on relationship aggression. The influence of age, exposure to family relationship violence in childhood, the presence of alcohol or drug use, the presence of historical trauma experienced by the participant's family of origin, the influence of education level, and time in the relationship further clarifies variables to be considered in this study and concludes the literature review.

Creek Culture and Marriage. Are married adult Creek males and females in Northeastern Oklahoma involved in relationship aggression? In a study regarding marital satisfaction with a neighboring Oklahoma tribe, Cherokees couples, Robbins

(1999) found that a sample of Northeastern Oklahoma Cherokees significantly differed on two Marital Satisfaction Inventory-Revised (Snyder, 1997) scales. Both Aggression and Global Distress scale scores were significantly different than those of a normative sample. Findings indicate that the Cherokee couples scored higher than the norm sample on the MSI-R. When language fluency, a measure of traditionality, was taken into account, fluent (traditional) Cherokee respondents reported less Family History of Distress than non-fluent. Robbins discussed acculturation stress and high rates of drug and alcohol use as contributors impacting marital relations. Briefly examining historical Creek relationships may give some insights to relationship aggression.

The Mvskokee (Creek) people are ancient, believed to be related to the Algonquins (Corkran, 1967). They have incorporated parts of other tribes, some conquered by the Creeks, into their society, increasing the strength of the nation. The Creek people were known for their hospitality toward those not considered enemies and dangerously fierce toward those who were (Corkran, 1967). Creeks assimilated new members into the tribe, including prisoners of war, who took the place of dead husbands or sons. Since decendency was matrilineal, the father's ethnic background was not relevant. Men of European backgrounds had no difficulty marrying Indian wives, and it wa common for these men to have the backing of their wives' clan. Mixed-blood tribal members had no prejudices held against them (Griffith, 1988).

The Creek confederacy consisted of "towns" or districts, which were divided into red (war) and white (peace) towns. Each town consisted of villages, in which Micos or leaders and a council that governed (Corkran, 1967). The Creeks are divided

into clans, which were matrilineal. Clan-members had obligated loyalties to other clan members, to support in war and to avenge for injury or death. A husband married and lived in his wife's town and on her property. Sons were instructed by their mother's brothers and clan elders (Griffith, 1988).

Women's traditional roles within society were gardeners, basket-weavers, cooks, and child-rearers. Children received different treatment from birth, with boys and girls wrapped in different types of skins to denote gender (Griffith, 1988). Young girls were trained to serve at an early age, tending fires and assisting in gathering food and light gardening (Griffith, 1988). ThoughEuropean historian report that Creek society was dominated by males, with women taking the roles of mistresses, wives, mothers, and helpmates, some women held positions of political power. Women, at times, could determine punishment of prisoners (Griffith, 1988). Before marriage, women had the right to have equal freedom in choosing men as men had with women. This usually ceased at marriage (Griffith, 1988).

The marriage ceremony included gifts to the bride's family from the groom, a village feast, and a guest dance and singing of battle exploits of the groom's ancestors (Corkran, 1967).

Women knew to try to get the best match possible at marriage. If a woman was found guilty of adultery, her reputation was fixed. Her husband could leave and take their sons, leaving the daughters with the wife. The woman ran the risk of being switched by other women in the tribe while being ridiculed by others. The woman also had to remain unmarried for one year, but the husband could remarry immediately.

Men had the right to have several women; however, this rarely occurred (Corkran, 1967).

The Creeks intermittently fought with the Cherokees and raided the Yuchis (Corkran, 1967). Creeks were known to be aggressively violent in interactions with other tribes.

By the end of the 18th century, however, women were losing position in society, and the formerly matrilineal society became patrimonial. Creek women did maintain the right to own and manage property, which could not be managed by the husband without her consent. Law required white men to forfeit all property to their Creek wives should the intermarriage break-up (Griffith, 1988). The transition from a traditional to a European-driven society has been one with many adjustment difficulties. These and other complications listed elsewhere in this text have influenced modern Creek marriages and contributed to marital aggression and violence.

Today, the Creek Nation spans eleven counties in Northeastern Oklahoma and has more than 49, 500 members (Creek Nation Webpage, 2001).

Acculturation. The process of acculturation, according to Coleman (1995), is a coping mechanism for cross cultural contact; when individuals are confronted with a new culture, he or she must learn the culture and take on attitudes and behaviors similar to the majority in order to alleviate stress related

Marital Satisfaction. Are married Creek adults less satisfied than the average married adult with their relationships because of their involvement in relationship aggression?

Couples who report the highest degree of marital satisfaction tend to have stronger communication styles, feel satisfied with affection shown by his/her spouse, and have few arguments over finances (Fowers & Olson, 1992). At the other end of the spectrum, maritally dissatisfied couples tend to be more critical, complain more, and express more displeasure and hostility than couples identified as satisfied in their relationships (Feeney, Noller, & Roberts, 1998). Global dissatisfaction early in marriage may be correlated with (or as a consequence of) angry and aggressive responses to marital conflict. This may establish a context for further and repeated violence. Julian et al. (1999) note that women reported higher marital satisfaction when their husbands were less verbally aggressive toward them than women whose husbands were more verbally abusive, while men reported higher levels of marital satisfaction when they were less verbally abusive toward their wives. This same study reported that marital satisfaction was a stronger prediction of verbal aggression that physical aggression for males. In a preliminary study with Northeastern Oklahoma Cherokee married couples, Robbins (1999) reported Global Distress significantly correlated with aggression.

O'Leary et al. (1989) determined that individuals who are married to consistently aggressive spouses are less satisfied in their marital relationships than those in consistently non-aggressive relationships. Sabourin et al.(1993) found that in non-violent yet distressed marriages, both males and females had the same level of marital satisfaction, but in violent marriages, marital satisfaction was greater for men than for women.

Perception also plays a role in marital satisfaction. The perceived meaning behind the aggressive act influences marital satisfaction, with both women and men reporting higher marital satisfaction when severity of the aggressive act was minimized by attributing causes of spousal aggressive behavior to external factors (drug use, stress, etc.).

Types of Relationship Aggression and Links between these Types. For married Creek adults, what types of relationship aggression exist? And are these types of relationship aggression linked (i.e., if psychological aggression exists, will physical assault be likely)?

Relationship aggression can take many forms. For the purposes of this study, these forms have been categorized into Psychological Aggression and Physical Assault. Physical assault is the most readily identifiable due to its visible effects. Bruises, whelts, broken bones and scars too often are the signature of the abuse. Psychological aggression, however, is not always documented through these signs. For this study, the term p*hysical assault* is meant to convey a form of behavior expressed rather than the consequences produced or intended. Physical aggression can be acted out through slapping, shoving, throwing objects, and many other methods. *Psychological aggression*, due to its lack of physical evidence, is less monitorable by society. It appears to be more widespread and as devastating, affecting the mental well-being of the recipient. Included in the *Psychological Aggression* category, is language that is meant to convey control, belittlement, or damage to the person receiving the abuse. Verbal aggression can include threats of desertion, attacks on personal worth, and many other cutting comments. *Psychological aggression* also

includes coercive non-verbal behavior, such as slamming doors or smashing objects, meant to threaten or harm an individual.

Relationship aggression has been researched in multitudinous ways. Findings have been mainly divided into two camps of research. In one camp, researchers include information from battered women's shelters, emergency room reports, and other sources which report the degree to which intimate partner violence inflicts damage. Another camp examines the characteristics of intimate relationship violence.

Not to minimize the occurrence or devastation that domestic abuse inflicts upon both the abused and the abuser, research has begun to focus on the evolution of marital relationship aggression in order to better understand and possibly prevent violent conflicts. Researchers have begun to examine marital physical aggression resulting from an escalated progression in which verbal aggression and psychological threats are precursors. Murphy & O'Leary (1989) report that verbal aggression and psychological intimidation can be precursors of physical aggression for couples. Their study considered the prediction of physical aggression in accord with psychological aggression. Results indicated that both an individual's and his/her partner's psychological aggression did, indeed, predict first instances of physical aggression in early marriages.

Many studies have not found a prediction of the progression of marital violence but have found correlations between verbal and physical abuse. Browne (1993) reported that during ongoing violent relationships, assaultive episodes often involve a combination of assaultive acts: verbal abuse, sexual abuse, and threats. Although this study will not attempt to identify aggression patterns, it will attempt to

identify whether psychological aggression and physical assault are linked, and to what degree, if any, they influence marital satisfaction.

Julian, et al. (1999) reported low marital satisfaction was a stronger predication of verbal aggression than physical aggression in both male and female models, although verbal aggression can be as devastating to a relationship and to its participants as physical aggression. Threats from verbal aggression can also magnify in meaning when previously accompanied by physical aggression. For women, marital discord was directly and significantly related to both psychological and physical aggression (O'Leary, Malone, & Tyree, 1994). Verbal aggression is highly related to marital conflict whereas physical aggression is associated with modeling of physical aggression, having been abused as a child, aggressive personality style, and acceptance of violence as a means of control (O'Leary, 1993). However, other studies contend that physical acts are usually preceded by verbal insults or threat of physical harm (Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz & Kaukiainen, 1992, as reported by Campbell, Sapochnik, & Muncer, 1997). Julian et al. (1999) may have clarified and confirmed physical and verbal aggression when they reported that the path models for verbal aggression and physical aggression were similar, having the same significant paths for both female and male models. Mental status mediated physical violence, with marital satisfaction, physical abuse inflicted by parents, and physical violence witnessed by child as variables.

Aggression Evolves to Violence. Betrayal of trust is reported as the most anger-provoking instigator of marital discord (Fehr, 1996). Because of differing perceptions of and reactions to aggressive behavior, escalation of violence can occur.

Echardt, Barbour, and Davison (1998) researched maritally violent and nonviolent men during anger arousal, finding that marital violence escalates for maritally violent men when they misconstrue or distort situations, which results in an increased likelihood of marital anger and aggression. They found that pushing, shoving, and grabbing were the most common forms of marital violence among these men.

Sabourin, Infante, and Rudd (1993) examined the role of verbal aggression in violently aggressive and non-aggressive couples. They reported several important findings in relationships where verbal aggression escalated to physical aggression: 1) The spouses had limited range of ability in arguing; 2) They used a one-up-manship retaliation style; and 3) Each spouse perceived him- or herself as a victim avoiding spousal control. The study also concluded that a physically aggressive husbands' perceptions of his wife's verbal aggression is not in agreement with her self-report. Further, verbal aggression reciprocity determines whether distressed couples engage in physically aggressive behavior.

Gender Differences. To what extent is each gender involved in initiating and participating in relationship aggression?

In a meta-analytic review of 83 articles assessing relationship aggression, Archer (2000) reports two main findings. One is that females initiate and participate in aggressive acts toward their relationship partners significantly more frequently than do men. The second finding is that women are injured as a result of relationship aggression more often and more severely than are men.

Archer (2000), Frieze (2000), O'Leary (2000), and White, Smith, Koss, and Figuerdo (2000) offer thorough discussions of issues and problems facing researchers

in this area. They discuss two differing viewpoints that guide research. One is the mutuality of relationship aggression, consisting of research mainly conducted by family conflict researchers. Another is that males are the oppressors and females are victims, consisting of research conducted by "feminist researchers." Archer addresses the impact of moderator variables in the sex differences in partner aggression, source of the data reported in current and past studies, measurement shortcomings, and type of report (partner- or self-report) as some areas for concern. White et al. (2000) discuss issues of concern when viewing female and male relationship aggression and current research; severity of physical assaults, indirect methods of aggression, exclusion of sexual assault, generalizability of sampling which is overrepresented by studies regarding college and high school relationships. They identify shortcomings in assessing meaning, whether an act was independent or embedded in ongoing pattern of abusive acts, and the shortcomings of the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1974). O'Leary (2000) discussed the perception of male and female aggression, giving examples such as men murder their partners and commit acts of sexual aggression more often than do females. Frieze (2000) discussed the need to expand the definitions of relationship violence, including into the definition the acts of stalking and unwanted sexual coercion, for example.

To better understand beliefs regarding what constitutes violence and abuse in the context of a relationship, Carlson (1999) reported that *gender* and *direct experience of violence* are individual factors that influence perceptions of whether an act constitutes relationship violence. A study by Archer and Haigh (1999) concluded that for both sexes, only when aggression toward a partner becomes compatible with

the person's value systems does the person act, justifying the aggression. However, women and men view demonstrations of their own and their spouse's aggression differently. The following studies report perceptual differences of this relationship by gender.

Women's Views: Women tend to view aggression as an expressive social representation as demonstrated by a loss of self-control. Women also tend to discuss anger as a form of disclosure rather than as threats of aggression (Campbell, Sapochnik, & Muncer, 1997). Women tend to display indirect and verbal aggression, such as alienation and character defamation (Tremblay et al., 1996). In marital relationships, women tend to find events, negligence, lack of consideration, and personal criticism anger-provoking, indicating relationship quality is important. Women tend to express hurt feelings. Women tend to expect their partners to exhibit negative attributes, such as expecting their partner to deny responsibility, bad intent, and selfishness (Byrne & Arias, 1997; Fehr et al., 1999). Byrne and Arias (1997) found that physical aggression and marital violence were significantly related to negative responsibility and causal attributions among wives regarding their husbands but not vice versa.

Women may tend to avoid overt negative expressions of anger when they are fearful they will lose the relationship (Lerner, 1985, as reported by Fehr et al., 1999). However, women tend to report using violence toward their partners as means of showing anger and retaliation for emotional hurt (Byrne & Arias, 1997).

Men's Views: Men tend to express violence as a form of control (Campbell, Sapochnik, & Muncer, 1997). Men tend to expect their partner to express hurt

feelings, avoid or reject them during direct negative interactions (Fehr et al., 1999). Men are more likely to report using violence in retaliation for being hit first and when feeling jealous (Byrne & Arias, 1997).

Aggression According to Age. For married Creek adults, does age influence involvement in relationship aggression?

Gender differences in aggression do not emerge until toddlerhood, and not until pre-school age do children exhibit defined differences, with boys displaying more physical aggression (Bjerk, 1992). The nature of aggression varies in men and women through certain developmental stages, such as higher rates of antisocial behavior during adolescence for both than during other developmental stages (Loeber & Hay, 1997). Research on the correlation of menstruation onset for women and development of behavior problems is divided. In a series of research studies, Serbin et al. (1998) found that aggression in girls is related to problems in later life interpersonal relations. These problems begin in childhood and continue through the formation of new families (Serbin et al., 1998). Highly aggressive girls are at risk for both school dropout and teen parenting. Education level was the buffer for these results. The higher the education level, the weaker the correlation of aggressive or abusive parenting (Serbin et al., 1998).

With adults, all forms of physical assault decrease dramatically with age (O'Leary et al., 1989). Those women who continue to exhibit hostile and aggressive behavior are physically at-risk. One study found that post-menopausal women who exhibit hostile and aggressive behavior are at-risk for heart disease (Lahad et al., 1993).

Oklahoma statistics for the end of the month of June, 1999, report that the general population rates of incarceration for violent acts increase with each age category, topping in the 36-40 age category and drastically dropping after age 45. These numbers can be misleading; age of incarceration may not reflect the age of the perpetrator when the violent act was done. However, an assumption can be made from these statistics: a large majority who enter Oklahoma prisons by the age of 45 are offending or perpetrating crimes at ages younger than 45 (Oklahoma State Department of Corrections, 1999). Carleson (1999) reported that the older the person, the greater the likelihood of labeling an act of physical aggression as abuse, and thus reporting it. However, Carlson's study was with college students, and older graduate students' education level may be important variable to consider.

Physiological variables also change with age. High levels of testosterone and low levels of serotonin and cortisol are linked with aggressive acts (Blackburn, 1993). Dabbs and Hargrove (1997) found that age negatively relates to aggressive dominance in a female prison population, yet the relationship was mediated by changes in testosterone; the decrease in testosterone with age influenced aggression.

For American Indian women, the variable of age—specifically being less than 40 years of age—is a significant predictor of domestic violence (Fairchild, Fairchild, & Stoner, 1998).

Influence of Exposure to Family Relationship Aggression in Childhood. Does exposure to relationship violence in childhood influence both Creek females and males to initiate violence in their own adult relationships?

The intergenerational cycle of violence hypothesis (social learning theory of violence) indicates the individual is conditioned to express anger and to ventilate frustration. Personal and violent crimes by offspring are related to aggression and conflict in the home. Several studies support the hypothesis. Studies have found that birth complications combined with maternal rejection in the first year of life predicted violent offending at age 18 (Raine, Brennan, & Mednick, 1994; Serbin et al., 1998). Adult violent offenders report they were subjected to violence in their childhood (Widom, 1989a, as reported by Julian et al.,1999). Serbin et al. (1998) reported results from the Concordia Longitudinal Risk Project, with participants consisting of 1,700 inner-city children in low-income neighborhoods. Reports indicate that mothers who were aggressive during childhood were consistently at-risk for a list of variables which lend themselves to relationship dissatisfaction and aggression: high-risk sexual behavior in adolescence, teen pregnancy, school dropout, and inability to escape from lower socioeconomic disadvantages. Second generation children of these women had significantly more aggressive behaviors, including visits to the emergency room for treatment of acute illnesses, injuries, and asthma than did children of teen mothers from a non-deviant comparison group. This study concluded that aggression in girls, particularly aggression combined with withdrawing behavior, is related to problems of interpersonal relations and contribute to intergenerational cycles of violence. Wallace (1996) reports that a learned helplessness or psychological incapacity to leave abusive relationships result from experiencing parents' marital aggression during childhood. Perpetrating marital violence has been associated with exposure to either child abuse or marital violence in the family-of-origin (Kalmuss. 1984, as reported by Doumas,

Margolin, and John, 1994). Julian et al. (1999) concluded the link between family of origin violence and relationship aggression as mediated by the husband's mental status. Doumas, Margolin, and John (1994) reported that intergenerational aggression patterns differed for males and females. They reported exposure to marital aggression in the family-of-origin is predictive of both marital and parental aggression in the second generation males, while child abuse potential in the second generation was predictive of aggression in the third generation males. They found that exposure to aggression is not predictive of aggressive behavior across any of the three generations for females, however, a history of marital aggression in the first generation was predictive of being the recipient of marital aggression for the second generation.

Another study may add to the picture, abused or neglected girls are more likely to become violent later in life than boys. Antisocial women tend to have more relatives who are deviant (Rivera & Widom, 1990).

Male abusers indicate greater exposure to parental violence as children (Widom, 1989a, as reported by Julian et al., 1999). Choice, Lampke, and Pitman (1995) report ineffective conflict resolution and marital distress mediate wife-battering for men who experienced parental violence as teenagers.

In a study regarding physical discipline and cultural differences, Deater-Deckard et al. (1996) report they found parents' physical discipline an children's externalizing behavior in the form of aggression correlated for Euro-American children, but not for African American children. The conceptualization of authoritarian parenting may not generalize across ethnic and cultural groups and may vary according to how the children perceive the parenting. However, when children

were classified into three mutually exclusive groups, the physically abused group displayed higher externalizing scores than each other group among both African American and Euro-American children. Findings support Weiss et al.'s (1992) report that experience of physical abuse is a predictor for acting out aggressively, and these findings do not significantly vary across socioeconomic or ethnic groups (as reported by Deater-Deckard et al., 1992).

Alcohol/Drug Use. If relationship aggression is present for Creek adult women and men, what effect does alcohol or drug use during aggressive acts play?

Berrios & Grady (1991) report that 48% of wife abusers had an alcohol or drug problem, and that alcohol was directly associated with abuse 43% of the time. They comment that alcohol is the utmost critical health hazard for American Indian people. Chester et al. (1994) report that the lifetime prevalence of alcoholism among American Indian people has been estimated from 28% to 65%, depending on the definition of alcoholism and the sample group. A 1979 study on the Pine Ridge Reservation found that 100% of abuse studied occurred under the influence of alcohol (77%) or drugs (23%), (Powers, 1988). Durst (1991) reported that 57% of the Alaskan Native women reported active physical abuse by a partner, with alcohol involved 80% of the cases. Verlarde-Castillo (1992, as reported by Chester et al., 1994) report that 85% of Hopi women receiving counseling for abuse stated that their partners drank excessively, and 55% reported that abuse occurred most often when their partners were intoxicated. Such numbers indicate that the relationship between alcohol and drug use plays an important role in relation to spouse abuse and domestic violence.

Brown (1988) reported that children raised in a family setting of alcohol use display many of the same behavioral and emotional patterns as the alcoholic.

Historical Trauma. If relationship aggression is present, what effect does the presence of an historical trauma play? This multigenerational trauma response involves constellations of features identified in the literature on PTSD and psychic trauma and has been paralleled with the massive generational group trauma identified for Jewish Holocaust descendants (Brave Heart, 1998; Krystal, 1984; Van der Kolk, 1987). "For American Indians, historical unresolved grief involves the profound, unsettled bereavement that results from generations of devastating losses which have been disqualified, compounded by prohibition of indigenous ceremonies and the larger society's denial of the magnitude of its genocidal policies" (Choney, Berryhill, and Robbins, p. 289).

Since Europeans first came to the lands now known as America, the indigenous populations have been forced to adapt cultural ways not their own. Furthermore and more devastating, they have been forced to abandon their own cultures through overt and covert persuasion. "The government used boarding schools, missions, agents, treaties, and removal to undermine the structure of tribes, which eventually impacted the unity and stability of the family..." (Department of Justice, 2000). American Indian people became conditioned not to make demands or fight back, losing children and elders, food and shelter, land, religion, language, and identities when they did.

Forced removal from traditional lands occurred almost from the onset of European invasion. Not only did this strip sacred lands from tribes but it also removed

their way of life and health by removing them from their customary economic, dietary, and medicinal sustenance. Additionally, having to deal with sudden changes in geography and climate likely increased vulnerability and compromised physical and mental health. Without time and the healing effect of spiritual ceremonies, many of which would be impossible without access to traditional ceremonial and healing herbs, the effects of forced removal could never be sufficiently processed nor physically or emotionally overcome (Brave Heart, 1997).

American Indian tribes experienced the decimation of more than 90% of their populations during the first two centuries of colonization (Choney, Berryhill-Paapke, & Robbins, 1995). The numbers, incidents, and names are numerous; with these massacres, each living American Indian person experienced the loss of tribal leaders, family members, and friends. It is well researched that the experience of the loss of a loved one is a significant stressor that is difficult and long in overcoming. In addition to loss through death, surviving tribal members many times were denied or forbidden to bury their dead and grieve, often having to fear for their own lives (Debo, 1940).

One medium for this cultural genocide was the practice of removing American Indian children from their families and tribes and sending them to boarding schools to be "educated." Boarding schools began as early as 1700. By 1887, more than 200 boarding schools existed with an enrollment of over fourteen thousand American Indian children (Department of Justice, 2000). Children of all ages were removed from their families and tribes en mass and moved to these schools in which they were punished for speaking their own languages or practicing their own traditional beliefs. "Common experiences for children in boarding schools included: harsh and cruel

punishment for behaviors defined as infractions or rule-breaking, whipped and beaten for typical behavior appropriate for children who were scared or frightened, denied contact with family for months and sometimes years, denied medical care, used as indentured servants, punished for using their Native languages, limitations placed on amount of food, clothing, and shelter they received, non-notification of parents upon child's death, and burial on school grounds without markers or ceremony (Choney, et al., 1995; Department of Justice, 2000). Children who were raised in boarding schools lost their traditional family environment, including experiences in working out compromises with elders, siblings, or extended family members. The detrimental effects of boarding schools were intergenerational, affecting those whose parents and whose grandparents attended as well as those forced to attend (Dauphinais, 1993). Not until the 1970's did the Bureau of Indian Affairs begin closing most Indian boarding schools. Four boarding schools remain active in Oklahoma today; one of these is the Eufaula Indian Boarding School in Eufaula, Oklahoma, within Creek Nation boundaries.

In many American Indian societies, the death of a loved one or other losses are honored by spiritual ceremonies and mourning. Traditional American Indian ceremonies effectively paralleled grief-management, but these practices were challenged first by Christianity and then prohibited by the government. For over a century and until the passing of the American Indian Religious Freedom Act in 1978, traditional religious ceremonies that addressed historical and current grief were banned. Tribal people had to adapt to Christianity, as some did, or practice their traditional ceremonies under penalty (Department of Justice, 2000). Although

religious ceremonies were still conducted secretly, many losses went unresolved. Additionally, the rapidity and severity of historical losses has been compounded by current high death rates from psychosocial and health problems, further complicating the grief process (Brave Heart, 1998; Duran and Duran, 1995).

Education Level. For married Creek adult females and males, do years of education influence involvement in relationship aggression?

The role of education plays a vital influence on whether relationship disagreements evolve into relationship aggression. Skill deficiency in defending and attacking ideas or positions rather than spouse increase the likelihood of verbal and physical aggression. Aggressive behavior escalates in response to perceived attack. This negative reciprocity can prevent couples from finding relief from distress through changing their negative confrontational patterns (Sabourin et al., 1993).

Time in A Relationship. For married Creek adults, do number of years in the relationship influence involvement in relationship aggression?

O'Leary et al (1989) found that of their 272 couples, 57% of the couples reported at least one instance of relationship aggression in the year prior to marriage, with females having a significantly higher rates of initiation than their future husbands: 44% to 31%, respectively. The follow-up study at eighteen months of marriage showed the rates had dropped to 44% of couples reporting aggression. At this time, female initiated aggression continued to exceed male aggression: 36% to 27%, respectively. At thirty months of marriage, aggression rates continued to drop, with 41% of couples reporting aggression, with 32% females and 25% male initiating aggressive behavior reported. The rates of engaging in exclusive, non-reciprocal acts

of aggression was reported at 26% female perpetrated and 13% male perpetrated at the pre-marriage time, and lowered to 16% for females and 9% for males at the thirty month point.

Another study which may further add to the picture, O' Leary et al. (1989) reported higher rates of all forms of aggression for women than men, and women engage in higher levels of aggression against partners in the absence of partner aggression. The stress of establishing boundaries and rules in early relationships may not be overtly understood by both partners, which may lead to misunderstandings in perceptions and inaccurate causal attributions.

Socioeconomic Status. For married Creek adults, does socioeconomic status influence involvement in relationship aggression?

Fairchild, Fairchild, and Stoner (1998) report that an independent predictor of domestic violence for American Indian couples was living in a household that received governmental financial assistance, indicating low socioeconomic status. The Office of Research and Analysis report that in the 1989 and 1993 statistics on economic conditions, 37% of Creek families live below poverty level in Tulsa and Okfuskee counties. In 1998, poverty level for a family of four in Oklahoma was $16,500.

III

METHOD

This chapter presents an explanation of the methodology used in this investigation. The primary purpose of this study will be to examine and describe relationship aggression among married adult Creek males and females. This chapter begins with a description of participant selection and procedures. Then follows a description of variables, instrumentation, and ethics and human relations statement. The chapter concludes with a description of the experimental design as well as procedures to be used in collecting and analyzing the data.

Participant Sampling and Procedures:

Primarily, contact will be made with key Creek Nation tribal agencies and authorities. Elise Berryhill, Ph.D., will be contacted to elicit support from Creek Nation Behavioral Health Services staff and to ask for her assistance and guidance for this study. Joyce Bear and Tim Thomason, Creek Nation cultural preservation office staff, will be consulted prior to the study and periodically during the study to insure cultural interpretation of research information, protocol, and interpretation of study results are culturally appropriate. Mr. Benjamin Harjo, Health Board Chairman, will be contacted regarding the study. The proposed study will be presented to the Health Board and approved.

For the non-clinical adult Creek participant sample, booths will be set up at various sites in Creek tribal towns, centers of Creek communities. Signs posted and tribal newspaper ads advertising the study will be the main methods of recruitment. Participation will be voluntary. Participants will be Creek Nation tribal members and will identify as such with a tribal enrollment card.

For the clinical adult Creek participant sample, four Creek Nation Behavioral Health offices will administer surveys to selected clients after screening for presence of a psychopathology that would influence aggressive acts or marital satisfaction (i.e. schizophrenia, major depressive disorder, etc.). Clients may be involved in therapy for marital or family difficulties, participate in the domestic violence prevention program, or be seeking services for other situations in which relationship aggression is present. Client participation is within the control of the client; clients may refuse to participate without explanation or penalty. Participants will also be Creek Nation tribal members and will identify as such with a tribal enrollment card.

Participants for the non-tribal Euro-American sample will be recruited by setting up booths in towns close in proximity to the Creek Tribal towns. Participation will be voluntary.

A non-clinical sample of 60 Creek adults (aged 18 and above) in relationships with Creek adults, a clinical sample of 60 Creek adults (aged 18 and above) in relationships with Creek adults, and a sample of 60 Euro-American adults (aged 18 and above) in relationships with Euro-American adults will be collected.

Variables:

The dependent variables will be aggression of self (operationalized by an overall aggression score), aggression of spouse (again, operationalized by an overall aggression score); and, if relationship aggression is reported, type and frequency of aggression exhibited by participants and by spouses.

The independent variables will be marital satisfaction, age, childhood exposure to relationship violence, alcohol/drug use, historical trauma, level of traditionality, education, number of years married, and socioeconomic status.

Instrumentation

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2) will indicate participants' perceptions of extent to which intimate partners engage in psychological and physical aggression as well as their use of reasoning or negotiation to deal with conflicts. The Physical Violence subscale on the CTS2 will also be used to indicate male and female childhood exposure to relationship violence (the extent and level of physical violence between significant caretakers and physical violence inflicted by the parents to the participant during childhood).

The Conflict Tactics Scales has been used with over 70,000 participants from diverse cultures and backgrounds in multitudinous studies since 1972 (Straus, et al., 1996). The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2) was introduced in 1998 to address CTS criticized shortcomings. Both the CTS and the CTS2 measure conflict through identifying specific aggressive tactics used. Both examine both partners' behavior rather than one partner in the relationship. The three original Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS) are based on three modes of dealing with relationship conflict: Reasoning (rational discussion), Verbal Aggression (verbal or nonverbal acts which hurt the

other), and Physical Assault (use of physical force). The CTS2 includes Negotiation (formerly Reasoning), Psychological Aggression (formerly Verbal Aggression), and Physical Assault (formerly Physical Aggression). The CTS2 includes two additional scales: Sexual Coercion and Injury (physical injury from assaults by a partner). (Straus, et al. Hamby, Boney-McCoy, and Sugarman, 1996).

Straus (1979) addresses participants' willingness to respond to CTS questions through the construction of the scales. Participants are eased into the discomfort of answering difficult questions that may have socially unacceptable answers through several methods. Directions present the scales in context of disagreements and conflicts between members of a family and the ways in which the conflict is resolved, legitimizing responses by indicating that conflict is a part of all relationships. Each item consists of actions that a person might take in a conflict with another member, in order from lowest to highest level of coercion or severity. Questions that were sequenced by severity in the CTS are now interspersed on the CTS2 so items require more thought from the participant and the possibility of marking response sets, such as repeatedly marking "never," are diminished. The revised scales also are formatted in an easier organization. The CTS2 also clarifies severe violence from minor violence in a more efficient manner. The CTS2 balances brevity of items with comprehensiveness; the 39 items designed to ask about both partners takes 10 to 15 minutes to complete. It has a 6^{th} grade reading level demand (Straus, et al., 1996). Items are presented with five of response categories (Straus, 1979).

The CTS2 Scales are as follows: The Negotiation Scale items indicate actions taken to settle as argument through discussion. This scale is divided into two

subscales, the Emotion Subscale (which measures positive affect for a partner) and Cognitive Subscale (which measures reasoning and negotiation) are assessed. The Psychological Aggression Scale, formerly the Verbal Aggression Scale, and the Physical Assault Scale measures both verbal/nonverbal and physical aggression. The Sexual Coercion Scale measures behavior that compels the partner from engaging in unwanted sexual activity. The Injury Scale measures physical injury inflicted from intimate partner aggression.

Reliability: On the original CTS, a factor analysis (N=2,143) analyzed items determine whether items fit the theoretical groupings for the three scales. Results for both the Husband-to-Wife data and the Wife-to Husband data indicated the items grouped into three categories which corresponded closely with the three scales (Straus, 1979). One exception was the Wife-to Husband data response for "using a knife or gun" item, which had an almost zero loading. Internal consistency reliability is adequate. The Alpha coefficients of reliability is high for both the Verbal Aggression and the Violence scales (Couple scores: .88 for both scales) and .76 for the Reasoning scale.

For the CTS2, the internal consistency reliability ranges from .79 to .95 (Straus, et al., 1996).

Validity: Construct Validity: Several studies have empirically validated the CTS through factor analytic studies (Schafer, 1996; Straus, 1979). Content Validity : Spousal consensus is moderate to low; however, "face" validity on items is high because all items describe acts of actual physical force being used by one member to another. For the CTS2, preliminary evidence of construct validity and discriminant

validity are evident. Additionally, the support of the validity of the CTS may also apply to the CTS2 (Straus, et al., 1996).

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) is a 32-item measure of marital adjustment that has been widely used to differentiate adjusted from maladjusted couples. Scores range from 0 to 150, with lower scores indicating less favorable marital adjustment. Scores below 98 have frequently been used to identify marital discordant spouses (Eddy et al., 1991). The psychometric properties of this instrument have been well established.

The Life Perspecitves Scale-Revised (LPS-R) is an American Indian acculturation instrument with four subscales based on four personalogical domains: cognitive, behavioral, social, affective. Choney, Berryhill, & Robbins (1995) proposed a 51-item instrument to which participants respond to a 5 point Likert-type scale, rating how often a particular statement represents something he or she may think, feel, or do. Fifteen items make up the Cognitive scale; 11 items make the Behavioral scale; 12 on the Affective subscale, and 13 on the Social subscale. Level of acculturation is determined by both total LPS-B scores as well as with scores from each of the four domains. Higher scores indicate less accultrated (more traditional) status. Berryhill (1998) studied the psychometric properties of the LPS-B. She reported during construction of the LPS-B, items were initially judged by a number of American Indian people on face and content validity. She concludes that the LPS-B has not necessarily been validated to measure the four factors previously indicated, that the scale lacks items to measure identification with the majority culture, and that further studies are needed for validation. Berryhill does, however, indicate that the LPS-B

does measure the dimensions of a participant's identification with the American Indian culture. Due to the lack of other empirically validated and reliable instruments and the LPS-B's ability to determine identification with American Indian Culture, it will be utilized in this study to determine solely level of traditionality. An additional strength, the LPS-B was studied with an Oklahoma American Indian population, whereas, many other acculturation instruments are not targeted to the specific area.

Demographics information will include gender, age, education level, spouse's education level, socioeconomic status, number of years in relationship. Additionally, questions regarding family of origin history, specifically historical events which may have influenced historical trauma, will be included. Questions will be tribally specific and research-based. Compilation of questions will be under the guidance of Dr. Elise Berryhill, Joyce Bear, and other key cultural and psychological professionals.

Research Design:

A quasi-experimental design will be utilized for this study. The following chart indicates instrument/scores and statistical procedure for each hypothesis. For convenience the Creek non-clinical sample will be termed *CN's*, the Creek clinical sample *CC's*, and the Euro-American sample *E's*.

Hypothesis	*Instrument scores Compared*	*Statistical Procedure*
1 a). Overall	a). Comparing CTS totals of CN's to CC's toE's	ANOVa
b). By Gender	b). male CTS non-clinical to CTS E-Am male female non-clinical Creek CTS to CTS E-Am female	t-test
c). To each other	c). male CTS to female CTS	
2 & Husband →Wife and Wife→Husband		ANOVA

4	a). Negotiation b). Psychological Agg. 1. initiating 2. participating 3. receiving c). Physical Assault 1. initiating 2. participating 3. receiving d). Injury 1. initiating 2. participating 3. receiving Linked?	a). CTS verbal to norm sample Female verbal CTS to female verbal norm CTS Male verbal CTS to male verbal norm CTS b). CTS psychological threat to norm sample Female psychological threat to female norm sample Male psychological threat to male norm sample c). CTS physical to norm sample Female physical sample to female norm sample Male physical sample to male norm sample Each category Totals and By gender	Multiple Regression
3	Marital Satisfaction	DAS to CTS (totals and by gender)	correlation
5	Age (self- and spouse-) a). Psychological b). Physical	Each age group (total, female, male)/ CTS a). Each age group (verbal total female, male)/verbal CTS b).Each age group (psych. threat total, female, male) / psych. threat CTS c). Each age group (physical total, female, male) / physical CTS	ANOVA
6	Childhood Rel. Vio. a). Psychological b). Physical	Each age group (total, female, male)/ CTS a). Each age group (verbal total female, male)/verbal CTS b).Each age group (psych. threat total, female, male) / psych. threat CTS c). Each age group (physical total, female, male) / physical CTS	
7	Alcohol/Drug (self- and spouse-) a). initiating b). participating c). receiving	Question T on CTS—affirmed answers to total, female, and male CTS for a., b., and c. Question T on CTS—affirmed percentage to norm for a., b., and c.	Percentage t-tests
8	Historical Trauma- a). Psychological b). Physical	Hx trauma--affirmed answer to total, female, and male CTS for Verbal, Psychological threat, and Physical categories	ANOVA
9	Education (self- and spouse) a). Verbal b). Psychological threat c). Physical	Each self- and spouse- ed. Group (total, female, male)/ CTS a). Each self- and spouse- ed. group (verbal total female, male)/verbal CTS b).Each self- and spouse- ed group (psych. threat total, female, male) / psych. threat CTS c). Each self- and spouse- ed group (physical total, female, male) / physical CTS	ANOVA

10	Years in relationship a). Verbal b). Psychological threat c). Physical	Each yrs group (total, female, male)/ CTS a). Each yrs group (verbal total female, male)/verbal CTS b).Each yrs group (psych. threat total, female, male) / psych. threat CTS c). Each yrs group (physical total, female, male) / physical CTS	ANOVA
11	a). Verbal b). Psychological threat c). Physical	a). Each SES level/verbal CTS b). Each SES level / psych. threat CTS c). Each SES level / physical CTS	ANOVA

Primary analysis will consider variables: presence of self and spouse's aggression (as reported on the CTS) and aggression type and frequency (if present) (as reported by the CTS). ANOVAs will be used as the statistical analysis to determine significant differences among variables for hypotheses #2 and #5. Multiple linear regression will be used as the statistical analysis to determine if significant correlations exist for hypotheses #4, and with all variables. Multiple regressions can be utilized with causal-comparason, correlational, and experimental designs and can handle interval, ordinal, or categorical data. Multiple regression statistical procedure gives estimates of both the magnitude and statistical significance of relationship among variables (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Aggression presence, type, and direction (initiating, participating, or receiving) will be utilized as dependent variables when independent variables are considered: marital satisfaction, gender, age, traditionality/acculturation, childhood exposure to relationship violence, socioeconomic status, presence of alcohol/drug use, historical trauma, level of education, and number of years in relationship. Results of the study will be reported with various charts and discussion.

Voluntary non-clinical samples and triangulation of non-clinical Creek, clinical Creek, and non-clinical Euro-American samples will insure both internal and external validity. Generalizeability may be limited to specifically the Creek tribe and to the Northeastern Oklahoma region.

Ethics and Human Relations. This study will be approved by Mr. Leonard M. Harjo, Division of Health Administration Director, the Creek Nation Health Systems Board, and University of Oklahoma's Internal Review Board. Participants in the study will be insured anonymity, informed of their rights prior to the study, and sign an agreement to participate. Participants will also be informed they will not receive results of this study. Permission will be obtained from Dr. Elise Berryhill, director of Creek Nation Behavioral Health, to gather clinical sample data. Permission to set up booths for gathering non-clinical Creek sample data will be obtained from appropriate elders, leaders, directors and managers of the Creek tribal towns. Permission to set up booths for gathering Euro-American sample data will be obtained from site managers.

Appropriate sites will be determined by 1). Availability of a fair and representative sampling, and 2). Appropriateness of setting to gather data (i.e. the study's integrity, including privacy and confidentiality, must be maintained). Participants will receive a chance to win a Pendleton blanket for their participation.

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APPENDIX C:

INSTRUMENTS AND INVENTORIES

Informed Consent Form

Thank you for participating in the research project "Intimate Relationship Aggression and Marital Satisfaction of Oklahoma American Indian and Euro-American Samples." The persons responsible for this project are Sharla Robbins, M.Ed., Doctoral student at the University of Oklahoma, and Dr. Cal Stoltenberg, Ph.D., Director of Training, Counseling Psychology Program, University of Oklahoma. If you have any questions about the research itself, please call Sharla Robbins at (405) 366-7214 or Dr. Cal Stoltenberg at (405) 325-5974. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please call the University of Oklahoma Research Administration Office at (405) 325-4757.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to explore how you and your partner express anger and solve relationship problems and how this affects satisfaction in relationships. Demographic variables (e.g. age, sex, education, income, number of years in relationship) and historical traumatic events will be considered when looking at causing influences.

What You Do: You will be asked to complete a research packet consisting of reading this consent form, then filling out the demographics page and three short scales: the Relationship Behaviors Scale, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and the Life Perspectives Scale. You will keep the consent form. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THE PAGES.

The packet should take no longer than one hour to complete. You will receive a chance to win a Pendleton Blanket or $50.00 in cash when the researcher receives the packet and confirms completion.

Your Rights and Guarantees: There are no known or anticipated psychological or physical risks associated with participating in this research project; however, no compensation of any kind will be given to you should you incur any type of distress or injury while participating in this study. You may choose to discontinue your participation at any time, but you will not receive the chance to win the blanket or cash unless you complete the packet. All reasonable steps will be taken to insure confidentiality of the research materials you complete, including never identifying individuals as a part of the study, never identifying your packet by your name, storing completed packets in a locked filing cabinet with restricted access (no one except researcher and research assistants will have access to research materials). Results of this study will be reported in group form. This information represents complete disclosure of the intent of this study; there is no deception involved in this study whatsoever. This study has been approved by the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus, Institutional Review Board. This study has not been approved by any tribal board or agency.

A Word of Thanks!: Your participation with this study will provide valuable information to assist couples in future marital/couples counseling.

Thank you for participating in this research project! Its aim is to look at how Historical Trauma and Traditionality/Accultration influence Relationship Satisfaction & Conflict. Please keep the Informed consent form for reference to phone numbers for any questions or concerns you may have. Remember: **DO NOT put your name on any sheet** (to keep this confidential).

Please fill out the Demographics below. The rest is color-coded: answer the blue page (front & back) on the blue answer form, and answer the green page (front & back) on the green answer form. Be sure to check numbers often; it's easy to get off track! Just let the directions guide you:

Demographics

Please place a check mark (√) or write in the answer that best fits you.

1. Gender:
   Female:____
   Male:_____

2. Age: _____

3. Spouse's Age: ____

4. Status:
   American Indian____
   Euro-American ____

5. Number of Years in Relationship:____

6. Your Education:
   a)_____Elementary
   b)_____Middle School/Junior High
   c)_____Some high School
   d)_____Graduated high school
   e)_____Some college
   f)_____College degree

7. Your Partner's Education.
   a)_____Elementary
   b)_____Middle School/Jr. High
   c)_____Some high School
   d)_____Graduated high school
   e)_____Some college
   f)_____College degree

8. Household Income (Per Year):
   a)Below $10,000_____
   b)10,000 to 15,000____
   c)15,001 to 20,000____
   d)20,001 to 25,000_____
   e)25,001 to 30,000_____
   f)30,001 to 35,000_____
   g)35,001 to 40,000____
   h)40,001 to 45,000____
   i)45,001 to 50,000____
   j)50,001 to 55,000____
   k)55,001 to 60,000___
   l)Above 60,000_____

9. How many people depend on this income?_____

YOU WILL FIND THE QUESTIONS TO THESE ON OTHER SHEETS. COME BACK TO THIS LATER.

10. (Answer #114 on BLUE answer form here) List War(s). _____

11. (Answer #115 on BLUE answer for here) Other Traumatic Events. _____

12. (Answer # 97 on GREEN answer form here) Type(s) of drug(s) I used:_____

13. (Answer #98 on GREEN answer form here) Drug(s) my partner used _____

Oklahoma American Indian Historical Trauma Questions:

Be sure you answer on **Side 2** of the **BLUE** answer form. For the following questions, please fill in:

A for **Yes**

B for **No**

Have you or any of your relatives (been)...

101. Attended a boarding school
102. Removed from home and placed in foster care or people who are not your family
103. Raised without extended family (aunts, uncles, grandmothers, grandfathers, etc.)
104. Lived in a large-city/urban setting
105. Punished for speaking Native language
106. Unable to speak Native language due to no one else knowing it
107. Punished for practicing traditional spiritual ceremonies or Christian beliefs (Fill in C for traditional, D -Christian, E -both)
108. Know of death of ancestors during Removal to Oklahoma
109. Unable to connect with family member due to alcohol use
110. Unable to connect with family members due to drug use
111. Unable to connect with family member due to in prison or jailed
112. Lived in poverty
113. Been the victim of a violent crime, sexual assault, or rape
114. Was involved in a U.S. war, including the current war (List which ones on #10 on your Demographics sheet: Civil War, WWI, WWII, Korea, Vietnam, Desert Storm, the Current War, Other:_____)
115. Other traumatic event (Explain on #11 on your Demographics Sheet)

Life Perspectives Scale-B: Read each statement, then rate how often it sounds like something you do, think, feel, or believe. Fill in the letter on the BLUE Answer sheet, side 1, that best fits you.

A	B	C	D	E
Never	Not Very Often	Some of the Time	More Often than Not	Most of the Time

1. I speak my Native language when I'm around others who speak it.
2. Others see me as having knowledge of tribal history.
3. I prefer to work from a picture or detailed drawing when putting things together.
4. Indian people seem to think differently than I do.

5. I believe in something more than what is here today.
6. I like to work on Indian arts and handicrafts.
7. I prefer to have only Indian friends.
8. As an Indian person, I believe people see that I try to learn from Grandparents and other Indian elders.
9. I have trouble speaking any of my Native language.
10. Non-Indian people talk too fast.

11. I believe I show that I have knowledge about clan/band relationships.
12. I value my extended family.
13. It is important to me to help other Indian people see that they can keep traditional ways and still do okay in the world.

14. I prefer to have only non-Indian friends.
15. I like to attend Indian arts and crafts shows.

16. I laugh at things or tell jokes that only other Indian people laugh at.

17. I like to try to learn the "old ways" of doing certain crafts.

18. I prefer to attend only Indian social events.
19. I feel better when I attend Indian church.
20. When people talk they should get straight to the point.

21. Indian people should speak slowly.
22. I feel more comfortable around non-Indian people.
23. It is important that I raise my children to be "Indian."

24. I prefer to work in groups to solve problems.

25. When people speak to each other about important things, they should speak as equals.
26. I think Indian people should learn their Native language.

27. Non-Indian people speak more from their heads and not their hearts.

28. It is important that our Indian traditions are kept alive.

29. I choose only Indian people to be my close friends.

30. It is important that Indian people change the old traditions so they can do better in the world.

31. When I feel bad, I go to see the medicine man/woman or Indian doctor first.
32. I am happiest when I am with Indian people.
33. People should not show their feelings to everybody.

34. Everyone should respect nature and all living things.
35. I like to be seen as a leader and as important person.
36. Indian people should be involved in their tribe's politics.
37. I feel most comfortable when I am alone.
38. I consider myself to be an individual first and a tribal member second.
39. I have lived in Indian communities.
40. I'm not really comfortable around non-Indian people.
41. I take part in Indian religious ceremonies.
42. When I get together with my friends, the group is mostly non-Indian.
43. I was taught both White and Indian values.

44. I don't feel like I belong in the Indian world.
45. I feel proud of my Indian heritage.
46. I am happiest when I am around non-Indian people.
47. Non-Indian people seem to think differently than I do.
48. I would prefer to live in non-Indian communities.

49. To win arguments I speak loudly and strongly.
50. When I talk to the Creator, I talk in my Native language.
51. When I talk to the Creator, I talk in a language other than my Native language.

Life Perspectives Scale
Preliminary Form B
Scoring Routine

This 51 item scale has 4 subscales designed to measure acculturative status in each of the four domain suggested by Choney, Berryhill-Paapke, & Robbins (1995). These domains are identified as cognitive, affective/spiritual, social/environmental, and behavioral.

Domain	Items	No. of items
Cognitive	1,2,3,4,9,10,20,21,24,26,47 50,51	13
Affective/Spiritual	5,16,27,28,31,32,33,34 41,43,44,45,46	13
Social/Environmental	7,11,12,14,18,19,22,23,25 29,37,40,42	13
Behavioral	6,8,13,15,17,30,35,36,38 39,48,49	12
Reverse Score:	9,14,20,22,30,35,37,38,42 43,44,46,48,49,51	

Sum the scores for each item in the subscale and divide by the number of items in the particular subscale. This provides an average acculturation score for that domain. The scores can be converted to types by using the following:

4.6 - 5.0 = Traditional
3.6 - 4.5 = Transitional
2.6 - 3.5 = Mixed Perspective or Bicultural
1.6 - 2.5 = Acculturated
1.0 - 1.5 = Marginal or Detached

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Check ⊛ or Fill ● appropriate circles.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Disagree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree	
1.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Handling family finances.
2.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Matters of recreation.
3.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Religious matters.
4.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Demonstrations of affection.
5.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Friends.
6	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Sex relations.
7.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Conventionality (correct or proper behavior).
8.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Philosophy of life.
9	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws.
10	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Aims, goals, and things believed important.
11.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Amount of time spent together.
12	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Making major decisions.
13.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Household tasks.
14.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Leisure-time interests and activities.
15.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Career decisions.

INSTRUCTIONS: Most people have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

	All the Time	Most of the Time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	
16.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?
17.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?
18.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?
19.	⑤	④	③	②	①	⓪	Do you confide in your mate?
20.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together)
21.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	How often do you and your partner quarrel?
22.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves"?

	Every Day	Almost Every Day	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	
23.	④	③	②	①	⓪	Do you kiss your mate?

	All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very Few of them	None of them	
24.	④	③	②	①	⓪	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often	
25.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	Have a stimulating exchange of ideas.
26.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	Laugh together.
27.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	Calmly discuss something.
28.	⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	Work together on a project.

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship *during the past few weeks* (check yes or no)

	Yes	No			Yes	No	
29.	⓪	①	Being too tired for sex.	30.	⓪	①	Not showing love.

31. The numbers on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "Happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please *fill in the circle* that best describes the degree of happiness, *all things considered*, of your relationship.

⓪	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Extremely *Un*happy	Fairly *Un*happy	A little *Un*happy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect

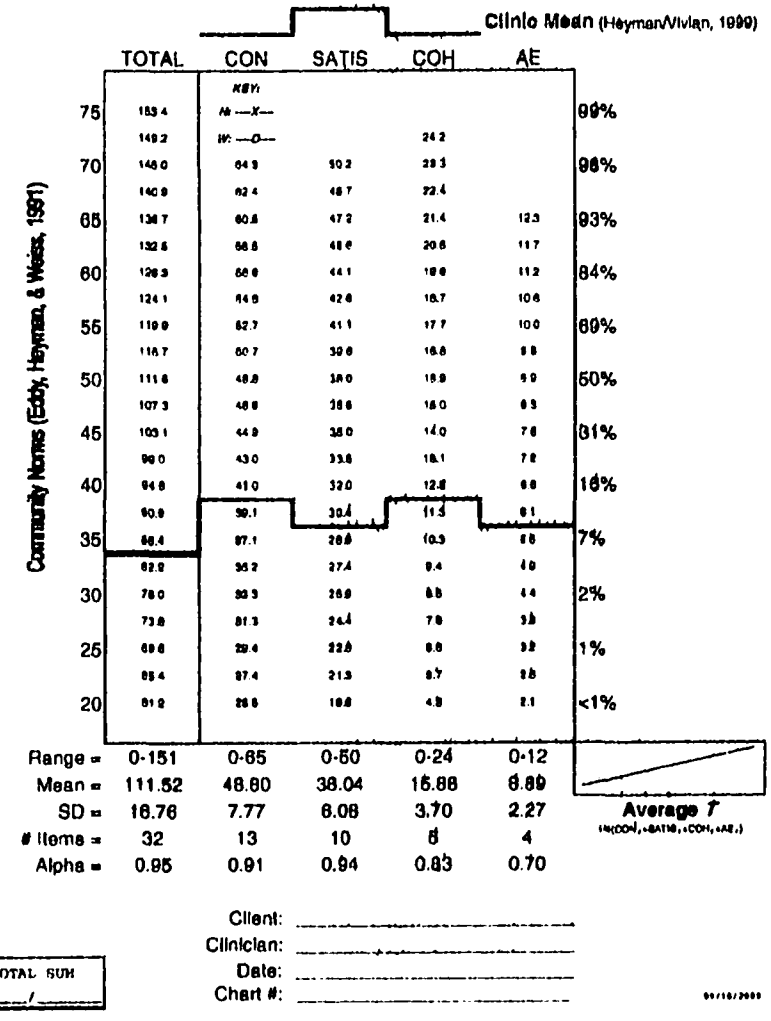
32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

⑤	I want very desperately for my relationship to succeed, and *would go to almost any length* to see that it does.
④	I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will do all I can* to see that it does.
③	I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will do my fair share* to see that it does.
②	It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but *I can't do much more than I am doing now* to keep the relationship going.
①	It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but *I refuse to do any more than I am doing now* to keep the relationship going.
⓪	My relationship can never succeed, and *there is no more that I can do* to keep the relationship going.

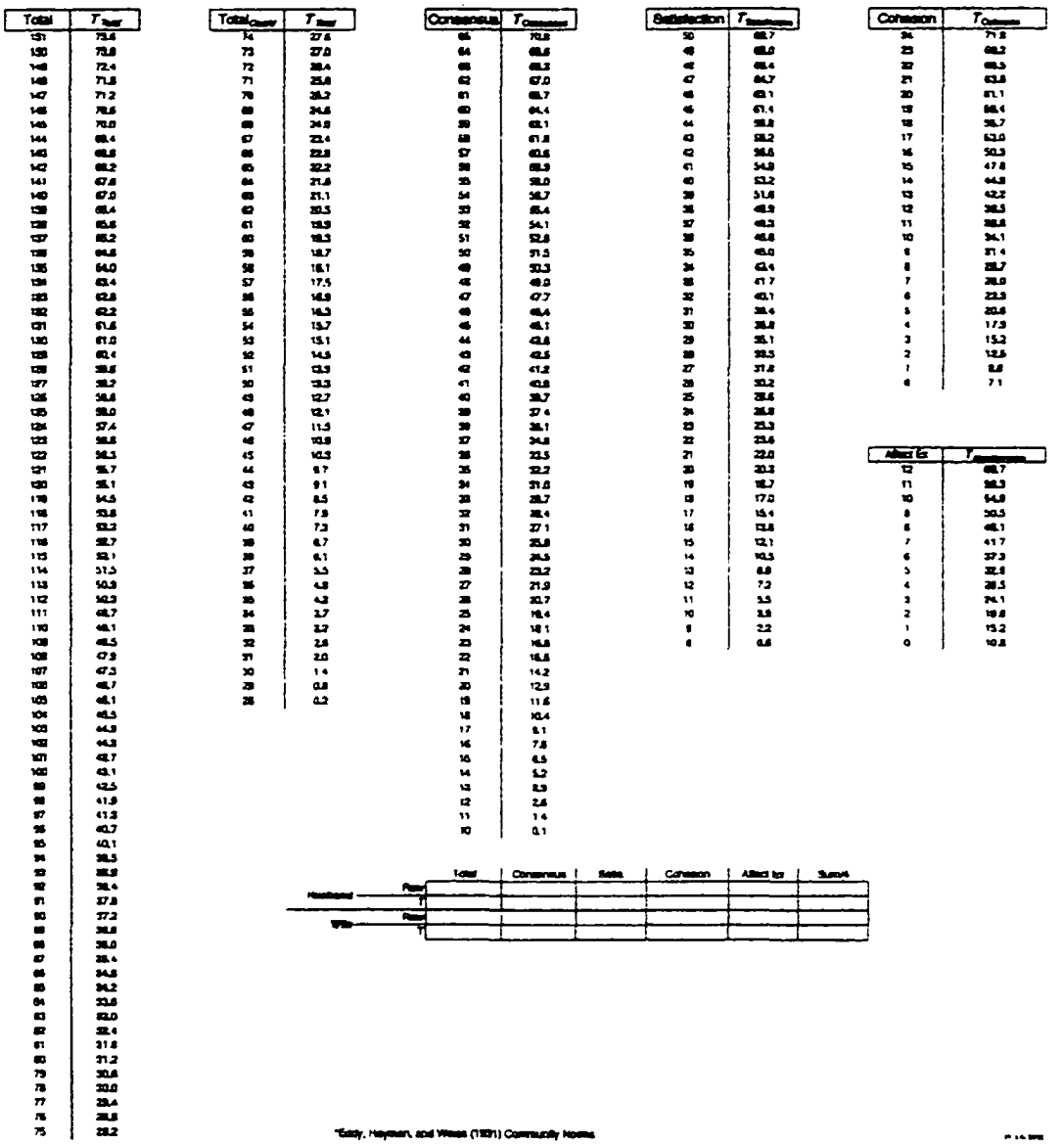
DAS Scoring Sheet (husband/wife)

Item Number	Dyadic Consensus	Dyadic Satisfaction	Dyadic Cohesion	Affectional Expression
1	1. ____/____			
2	2. ____/____			
3	3. ____/____			
4				4 ____/____
5	5. ____/____			
6				6 ____/____
7	7. ____/____			
8	8. ____/____			
9	9. ____/____			
10	10. ____/____			
11	11. ____/____			
12	12. ____/____			
13	13. ____/____			
14	14. ____/____			
15	15. ____/____			
16		16. ____/____		
17		17. ____/____		
18		18. ____/____		
19		19. ____/____		
20		20. ____/____		
21		21. ____/____		
22		22. ____/____		
23		23. ____/____		
24			24. ____/____	
25			25. ____/____	
26			26. ____/____	
27			27. ____/____	
28			28. ____/____	
29				29 ____/____
30				30 ____/____
31		31. ____/____		
32		32. ____/____		
COLUMN SUMS	____/____	____/____	____/____	____/____

TOTAL SUM ____/____



DAS Scoring



*Eddy, Heyman, and Weiss (1991) Community Norms

Relationship Behaviors

No matter how well a couple gets 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 happen when you have differences. Please circle how many times your partner did them in the past year. If you or your partner did not do one of these things in the past year, but it happened before that, circle "Z."

How many times did this happen?

A=**Once** in the past year	E=**11-20** times in the past year
B=**Twice** in the past year	F=**More than 20** times in the past year
C=**3-5** times in the past year	Z=Not in the **past year**, but it did happen
D=**6-10** times in the past year	O=This has **never** happened

1. I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed.	A B C D E F Z O
2. My partner showed care for me even though we disagreed.	A B C D E F Z O
3. I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
4. My partner explained his or her side of a disagreement to me.	A B C D E F Z O
5. I insulted or swore at my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
6. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
7. I threw something at my partner that could hurt.	A B C D E F Z O
8. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
9. I twisted my partner's arm or hair.	A B C D E F Z O
10. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
11. I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
12. My partner had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with me.	A B C D E F Z O
13. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue.	A B C D E F Z O
14. My partner showed respect for my feelings about an issue.	A B C D E F Z O
15. I pushed or shoved my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
16. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
17. I used a knife or gun on my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
18. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
19. I passed out from being hit by my partner in a fight.	A B C D E F Z O
20. My partner passed out from being hit on the head in a fight with me.	A B C D E F Z O
21. I called my partner fat or ugly.	A B C D E F Z O
22. My partner called my fat or ugly.	A B C D E F Z O
23. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt.	A B C D E F Z O
24. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
25. I destroyed something belonging to my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
26. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
27. I went to a doctor because of a fight with my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
28. My partner went to a doctor because of a fight with me.	A B C D E F Z O
29. I choked my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
30. My partner choked me.	A B C D E F Z O
31. I shouted or yelled at my partner.	A B C D E F Z O
32. My partner shouted or yelled at me.	A B C D E F Z O
33. I slammed my partner against the wall.	A B C D E F Z O
34. My partner did this to me.	A B C D E F Z O
35. I said I was sure we could work out a problem.	A B C D E F Z O
36. My partner was sure we could work out a problem.	A B C D E F Z O
37. I needed to see a doctor because of a fight with my partner, but I didn't.	A B C D E F Z O
38. My partner needed to see a doctor because of a fight with me, but didn't.	A B C D E F Z O

39. I beat up my partner. A B C D E F Z O
40. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
41. I grabbed my partner. A B C D E F Z O
42. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
43. I had a broken bone from a fight with my partner. A B C D E F Z O
44. My partner had a broken bone from a fight with me. A B C D E F Z O
45. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement. A B C D E F Z O
46. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
47. I burned or scalded my partner on purpose. A B C D E F Z O
48. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
49. I did something to spite my partner. A B C D E F Z O
50. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
51. I threatened to hit or throw something at my partner. A B C D E F Z O
52. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
53. I felt a physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight we had. A B C D E F Z O
54. My partner still felt physical pain the next day because of a fight we had A B C D E F Z O
55. I kicked my partner. A B C D E F Z O
56. My partner did this to me. A B C D E F Z O
57. I agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested. A B C D E F Z O
58. My partner agreed to try a solution I suggested. A B C D E F Z O
59. I have accused my partner of being a lousy lover. A B C D E F Z O
60. My partner has accused me of being a lousy lover. A B C D E F Z O
61. I had family members or friends who did something to my partner for revenge for me after a fight. A B C D E F Z O
62. My partner had family members or friends who did something to me for revenge for my partner after a fight. A B C D E F Z O
63. I drank alcohol before or during a fight with my partner. A B C D E F Z O
64. My partner drank alcohol before or during a fight with me. A B C D E F Z O
65. I used drug(s) before or during a fight with my partner.(Type:_____)A B C D E F Z O
66. My partner used drug(s) before or during a fight with me.(Type:_____)A B C D E F Z O

Before you left home, did your parent(s) or significant adults do any of the following while you were present?

67. Insulted or swore at the other partner. A B C D E F Z O
68. Shouted or yelled at each other. A B C D E F Z O
69. Stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement A B C D E F Z O
70. Said something to spite the other A B C D E F Z O
71. Called the other partner fat or ugly A B C D E F Z O
72. Destroyed something belonging to the other partner A B C D E F Z O
73. Threatened to hit or throw something at the other partner A B C D E F Z O
74. Threw something at the partner that could hurt A B C D E F Z O
75. Twisted the other partner's arm or hair A B C D E F Z O
76. Grabbed the other partner A B C D E F Z O
77. Slapped the other partner A B C D E F Z O
78. Used a knife or gun on the other partner A B C D E F Z O
79. Punched or hit the other partner with something that could hurt A B C D E F Z O
80. Choked the other partner A B C D E F Z O
81. Slammed the other partner against a wall A B C D E F Z O
82. Beat up the other partner A B C D E F Z O
83. Burned or scalded the other partner on purpose A B C D E F Z O
84. Kicked the other partner A B C D E F Z O

APPENDIX D:

RESEARCH AGGREEMENTS

MEMO:

To: Susan Sedwick or Tully McCoy
Office of Research Administration
University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus

From: Sharla Robbins, M. Ed.
Doctoral Student
Counseling Psychology Program
Department of Educational Psychology

RE: Revisions regarding proposal for the research project "Intimate Partner Relationship Aggression and Marital Satisfaction of Oklahoma American Indian and Euro-American Samples"

8/18/01

Greetings!

After discussing with Dr. Stoltenberg the required revisions and clarification of protocol which was established during the IRB meeting yesterday, I am submitting a revised Informed Consent form and agree to the following:

1. Participants will be given the Informed Consent Form, which does not Require their signature, includes Dr. Stoltenberg's phone number, and mentions approval by the University's Institutional Review Board, Norman Campus.
2. Dr. Stoltenberg also reminded me that should I decide to gather data at an event, that I will need approval by that event sponsor prior to the event.

Thank you for considering this study, and I am looking forward to hearing from you with approval!

Sharla Robbins, M. Ed.

Sharla Robbins, M.Ed.



The University of Oklahoma

OFFICE OF RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

October 23, 2001

Ms. Sharla D. Robbins
1406 Amhurst Ave.
Norman, OK 73071

Dear Ms. Robbins:

Your research application, "Intimate Relationship Aggression and Marital Satisfaction of American Indian and Euro-American Samples," has been reviewed according to the policies of the Institutional Review Board chaired by Dr. E. Laurette Taylor, and found to be exempt from the requirements for full board review. Your project is approved under the regulations of the University of Oklahoma - Norman Campus Policies and Procedures for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research Activities.

Should you wish to deviate from the described protocol, you must notify me and obtain prior approval from the Board for the changes. If the research is to extend beyond 12 months, you must contact this office, in writing, noting any changes or revisions in the protocol and/or informed consent form, and request an extension of this ruling.

If you have any questions, please contact me.

Sincerely yours,

Susan Wyatt Sedwick

Susan Wyatt Sedwick, Ph.D.
Administrative Officer
Institutional Review Board

FY02-85

cc: Dr. E. Laurette Taylor, Chair, Institutional Review Board
Cal Stoltenberg, Educational Psychology

1000 Asp Avenue, Suite 314, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-0430 PHONE: (405) 325-4757 FAX: (405) 325-6029

The University of Oklahoma
Graduate College
Request for Authority
for Defense of Dissertation (Final Examination)

****

Part 1. To be completed and signed by major professor.

To: Graduate College
Date: 4-5-06

I have read the dissertation of Sharla Robbins
(Please print student name)

(ID # 458 - 23 - 7067), and approve it as the reading copy of the dissertation.
(Please print student's OU ID number)

Carl Stokes
Printed name of Major Professor

Signature

****

Part 2. To be signed by the Graduate Liaison of the student's academic unit.

The above named student has completed all the departmental requirements for the doctoral degree except the dissertation defense.

Printed name of Graduate Liaison

Signature

****

Part 3. To be completed and signed by student and verified by the major professor.

☐ This dissertation does not contain any research that involves human and/or animal subjects in any way.

☒ The research in this dissertation involves the use of human subjects and has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). (Attach a copy of the approval.)

☐ The research in this dissertation involves the use of animal subjects and has been approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). (Attach a copy of the approval.)

Signature of Student

Signature of Major Professor

Letter of Agreement

I, (Signature): [signature] PRES ALCS give consent for ~~Sharla~~ Robbins, M.Ed., to gather dissertation research data at our event or site (list):

Intertribal Gourd Dance

Tyron, OK

Date: 10/27/01

Our event is sponsored by:

(Group) American Indian Cultural Society

(Address & Phone): _____

_____

(This agreement is to insure quality services by the University of Oklahoma's Institutional Review Board and is required of researchers under their guidance)

Thank you for your assistance!

[signature] Sharla Robbins, M.Ed.

Sharla Robbins, M.Ed.
OU Counseling Psychology Program
Doctoral Student

Letter of Agreement

I, (Signature): [signature] give consent for Sharla Robbins, M.Ed., to gather dissertation research data at our event or site (list):

Powwow / Howwa Dance

Date: 11.3.01

Our event is sponsored by:

(Group) Club 220

(Address & Phone): 201 W. Kansas St
Anadarko, OK 73005

(This agreement is to insure quality services by the University of Oklahoma's Institutional Review Board and is required of researchers under their guidance)

Thank you for your assistance!

[signature], M. Ed.

Sharla Robbins, M.Ed.
OU Counseling Psychology Program
Doctoral Student

Letter of Agreement

I, (Signature): Elizabeth Ann, give consent for Sharla Robbins, M.Ed., to gather dissertation research data at our event or site (list):

_____

_____

Date: November 19, 2001 405-521-3529

Our event is sponsored by:

(Group) Native American Heritage Celebration

(Address & Phone): ~~DHS~~/OAS

P.O. Box 25352, OKC, OK 73125

(This agreement is to insure quality services by the University of Oklahoma's Institutional Review Board and is required of researchers under their guidance)

Thank you for your assistance!

Sharla Robbins, M. Ed.

Sharla Robbins, M Ed.
OU Counseling Psychology Program
Doctoral Student

Letter of Agreement

I, (Signature): Yolanda Begay, give consent for Sharla Robbins, M.Ed., to gather dissertation research data at our event or site (list):

OU Pow Wow

Date: 11/26/01

Our event is sponsored by:

(Group)_____

(Address & Phone):_____

(This agreement is to insure quality services by the University of Oklahoma's Institutional Review Board and is required of researchers under their guidance)

Thank you for your assistance!

Sharla Robbins, M. Ed.

Sharla Robbins, M.Ed.
OU Counseling Psychology Program
Doctoral Student

Letter of Agreement

I, (Signature): _____, give consent for Sharla Robbins, M.Ed., to gather dissertation research data at our event or site (list)

12/1/01
From: Sharla Robbins $20.00
Twenty dollars + 00/100 —
For: Booth reservation
Benefit Dance
Laura Wilson
NSU NAISA treasurer

Thank you for your assistance!

Sharla Robbins, M.Ed.
OU Counseling Psychology Program
Doctoral Student