

Perceived Men-Controlling Behaviour And Self-Esteem As Predictors Of Dating-Relationship Male Perpetrated Violence Among Female Emerging Adults In Oyo State.

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Abstract

Though research on intimate partner violence has received much global attention, there is still a dearth of this research regarding female undergraduates in Nigeria. The present study, therefore, examined the influence of men-controlling behavior and self-esteem on male-perpetrated violence

(physical violence, sexual violence, and psychological aggression) on emerging adults in dating relationships. The research adopted a survey cross-sectional research design. Three hundred and ten (310) emerging adults who were female University undergraduates between the ages of 18 and 39 years who met the criteria for the study were randomly selected from a population of undergraduate students. Validated scales were used for data collection. Pearson product-moment correlation, t-test, and regression analysis were utilized to test the hypotheses raised in the study. The finding from this study revealed that females who reported low self-esteem scored significantly higher on physical violence experienced from dating relationships than females who reported high self-esteem. Females who reported low self-esteem scored significantly higher on sexual violence experienced from dating relationships than females who reported high self-esteem. In the same manner, females who reported low self-esteem scored significantly higher on psychological aggression experienced from dating relationships than females who reported high self-esteem. The joint influence of self-esteem and perceived men-controlling behaviour had a significant influence on each of the dimensions of male-perpetrated violence (physical and sexual violence). Perceived men-controlling behaviour ($\beta = .263$, $t=5.010$; $p<.01$) independently accounted for about 26.3% variance while self-esteem had a contribution of 28.4% variance in male-perpetrated violence. Low self-esteem among females and high perceived male-controlling behaviour among males in dating relationships were found to be significant predictors of perceived male-perpetrated violence among emerging adults in dating relationships. Intervention strategies to reduce male-perpetrated violence among emerging adults in dating relationships should focus

on boosting the self-esteem of the females while reducing men-controlling behaviour among the males.

Keywords: male-controlling behaviour, female self-esteem, male-perpetrated violence, undergraduate-dating relationships

Introduction

A social and health issue in society which has attracted much attention from academics is violence during dating. The rate at which this form of violence is increasing in Nigerian universities is very alarming. The different viewpoints from researchers have highlighted that violence during dating has to do with a partner forcefully taking possession of another partner. Luthra and Gidycz (2006), from the behavioral viewpoint, describe violence during dating as a means of using fear and coercion to influence one's partner. Physical abuse can be categorized as serious and non-extreme physical aggression. Severe acts, according to literature, include punching, dragging, kicking, attempted strangling, burning, or killing while non-severe acts include slapping, pushing, shaking, shoving, and arm-twisting. Other forms are psychological abuse (insults, belittling, constant humiliation, intimidation, threats, etc.), sexual violence (forced sexual intercourse and other forms of sexual coercion), and other controlling behavior (isolating a person from family and friends; monitoring or limiting their movements; and limiting access to financial resources).

Though violence during dating had been a major problem in our society, the extent of the problem was discovered by researchers over the last two decades. According to Jackson (1999) and Lewis and Fremouw (2001), at least one in three college couples is involved in at least one incident of violence in their dating relationships. In addition, other studies have found the rates of violence during dating to be close to 50% (Arias, Samois, & O'Leary, 1987; Pedersen & Thomas, 1992; White & Koss, 1991). The prevalence rates of violence during dating are comparable to the rates of violence found in marriages. At some point in the relationship, the rate at which physical violence occurred in marriages has been

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between 30 % and 60% (O'Leary et al., 1989; Straus & Gelles, 1986). In addition, violence during dating has been shown to be a strong predictor of marital violence (White, Merrill, & Koss, 2001) and, surprisingly, data analyzed by White and Koss (1991) suggest that violence during dating is similar in composition to marital violence. In fact, many believe that dating during the young adult years provides a training ground for behavior in subsequent long-term relationships. Because violent behavior that begins in a dating context often continues in a marital relationship (O'Leary et al., 1989), it is critical to intervene while couples are dating to stop the cycle of violence. Preventive measures and appropriate treatment are vital for this population because the occurrence of violence does not always put an end to the relationship. Although abuse can have extremely damaging consequences, approximately 50 to 80 percent of married victims of domestic violence remain with their abusive partners (Snyder & Fruchtman, 1981). Lo and Sparakowski (1989) found that 76% of those who experienced violence planned to continue their relationship with dating couples. This suggests that, as the relationship continues, the abuse may continue if it is not addressed.

Self-esteem is defined as an individual's subjective evaluation of his or her worth as a person (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). A person with high self-esteem 'considers himself [or herself] worthy though may not necessarily be better than others (Rosenberg, 1965); thus, self-esteem involves the feelings of self-respect, but not feelings of superiority and entitlement that are typical of narcissistic self-esteem (Ackerman et al., 2011). Research indicates that self-esteem increases during adolescence and young adulthood continues to increase during middle adulthood, peaks at about 50 to 60 years of age, and then gradually decreases into old age (Orth & Robins, 2014; Trzesniewski, Donnellan, & Robins, 2013). Levels of self-esteem have not been identified as a prominent predictor of abusive relationships. A study noted that self-esteem had little or no bearing on whether subjects entered into violent relationships and that participants with both lower and higher self-esteem were equally susceptible (Zayas & Shoda, 2007). Research has found, however, that self-esteem can be significantly reduced once participants are actively engaged in abusive

relationships, as continued psychological, physical, and/or sexual assault contribute to increased feelings of guilt and responsibility for the violence, increased social isolation, and loss of self-interest (Lynch, Graham-Bermann, 2000). The psychological consequences of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) have been reported to have long-term effects on the well-being of female victims (Gerlock, 1999; Saunders, 2002). Feelings of shame associated with abuse (Gerlock, 1999) and feelings of helplessness and isolation, leading to a low level of self-esteem, may contribute to victims' feelings of being unable to escape abusive relationships (Chang et al., 2006; Waldrop & Resick, 2004). Empirical evidence shows that the acceptance of IPV, in which the victim believes that it is acceptable for a male to abuse his female partner, is higher among women who have experienced IPV.

Controlling behavior is a highly prevalent form of non-physical violence. While it often co-occurs with physical and sexual violence in intimate relationships, there are differences of opinion as to whether it is part of IPV. Various types of IPV perpetrators have been proposed to classify IPV as 'violent nature' or 'psychological profiles of perpetrators.' Controlling behavior in the typology of intimate terrorism (i.e. 'a pattern of emotionally abusive intimidation, coercion, and control' with or without physical violence) has been associated with the most serious physical assault which is typically committed by men. There remains a lack of consensus on which non-violent acts should be included in the definition of IPV. Several large population-based surveys examined the prevalence of control or coercive behaviours, albeit using different methods. For example, 9 percent of men and 21 percent of women in a recent UK study were reported to have experienced non-physical partner violence (emotional, financial), 37 percent of men and 41 percent of women in the Swedish study had experienced isolation from coercive control from a partner in the past years (including restricting time spent with family/friends; wanting to know partner's whereabouts, suspicion or jealousy) and 63% of women in a Nigerian study had experienced controlling behavior from a partner (i.e. jealous if talks with men, accusations of unfaithfulness, does not permit her to meet friends, limits contact with family). Behaviors that include control over a partner's access to resources, freedom of

movement, and decision-making have negative effects on the victim, and it is argued that it can be equal to or more threatening than physical or sexual assault. Since coercive control has been described as an ongoing pattern of domination by which male abusive partners primarily interweave repeated physical and sexual violence with intimidation, sexual degradation, isolation, and control, this study will provide an invaluable opportunity for testing the validity or explanatory powers of the existing theories on violence against women. The research will in addition serve as a reference point that will stimulate further research on violence against females in dating relationships. Such studies and the present effort will help to fill the possibly existing gaps in the literature on violence against women, and then provide a systematic body of information about the nature and consequences of this form of violence, the practice of female battery in Nigeria.

Perhaps one of the confusing ideas regarding males' violence against females during dating relationships is the suspicion that it is the protection of boorish individuals and social orders. In this situation, violence against women in social orders such as Nigeria could be expected to be higher in conventional and nearby situations than in today's urban social orders. While the rationale for good judgment may discover this presumption to be reasonable, there is a requirement for an accurate examination in order to make a reality of this situation. Given the lack of empirical data on violence during dating among college students and the gender-centric social structure of Nigeria's social orders, this study analyzes the impact of male-controlling behavior and self-esteem on male violence in dating relationships among female undergraduate students at the University of Ibadan. The overall objective of this study is to discover the influence of men-controlling behavior and self-esteem on male violence among female undergraduate students in dating relationships.

Statement of Hypotheses

1. Female undergraduate students who score low on self-esteem will score significantly higher on physical, sexual, and psychological violence compared to those who score high on self-esteem in dating relationships.
2. Self-esteem and men-controlling behavior will jointly and independently predict male-perpetrated violence among female undergraduate students in dating relationships.

Literature Review

The World Health Organization (WHO, 2017) indicated that one in three women across the globe is confronted with physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner or sexual violence by a non-partner. At least 19 women were killed in Minnesota a year ago by a current or previous intimate partner (Minnesota Coalition for Battered Women, 2018). Five companions, relatives, or observers were killed by abusive behavior at home while fighting, and at any rate 12 minor youngsters were left without a mother due to an intimate partner's act of murder (Minnesota Coalition for Battered Women, 2018). These stunning statistics are just a brief look at the global issue of violence against women. The World Health Organization (2013) has determined that a clear majority of IPV are not reported. Universal screening for intimate partner violence is a standard of care suggested by the United States Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF, 2016) for women of childbearing age. Proof of essential consideration Intercessions must be recognized for the well-being and safety of women who are positive for IPV.

IPV is defined as "an intentional control or victimization of a person with whom the abuser has or is currently in an intimate, romantic, or spousal relationship" (Cook & Nash, 2017). IPV and domestic violence are commonly used interchangeably, although IPV is a form of domestic violence that occurs between two people engaged in close personal, emotional, or sexual relationships (Smith et al., 2017). Various types of IPV include physical abuse, sexual assault, coercion, social isolation, emotional abuse, economic control, and deprivation" (Cook & Nash, 2017). IPV is non-discriminatory; it affects people of all cultures, social

standing, backgrounds, and genders, including people who identify as gay, lesbian, and transgendered (Cook & Nash, 2017). Approximately, 27 percent of women in the United States experience sexual violence, physical violence, or potential post-IPV (CDC, 2012). Some of the reported effects of IPV on women include dread, concern for well-being, post-horrendous pressure problems, physical injuries, improvement of explicitly communicated diseases, unwanted pregnancy, lack of human services, lack of safe housing, and lack of financial strength (Breiding, Basile, Smith, Black, and Mahendra, 2015). In the United States, women who experience intimate partner violence are 70 percent bound to heart disease, 60 percent bound to asthma, and 70 percent bound to excessive drinking than women who are not exposed to IPV (Bair-Merritt et al., 2014). Social insurance providers may be the sole contact for women encountering IPV. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that screening for IPV should be done in a clinical setting where a generally acceptable standard of training is established (Gupta et al., 2017). IPV is a global concern that has mind-boggling, long-haul, multi-faceted implications for all populations served by primary care clinicians; therefore, it is important that evidence-based rules be put in place to control past mediation for IPV in the clinical setting. This methodical audit seeks to discover proof-based intercessions to help essential consideration choices in order to improve security and in general prosperity of ladies presented to IPV.

The various terms used to describe IPV in relation to adults are 'domestic violence,' 'intimate partner violence/abuse,' 'spouse abuse,' 'violence against women' or 'wife abuse/assault' (Chesire et al., 2010; McCue, 2008; Tjaden and Thoennes, 2007; WHO, 2005; CBS et al., 2004) while the adopted terms in relation to young adults are 'dating violence,' 'adolescent aggression,' 'teenage relationship violence', 'partner violence', 'teen abuse', and 'interpersonal violence between adolescents' (Offenhauer and Buchalter, 2011; Barter, et al., 2009; Mulford and Giordano, 2008; Schutt, 2006). IPV encompasses three broad forms – physical, sexual, and psychological/emotional abuse – which, although considered as separate categories are not mutually exclusive (WHO, 2012; UN, 2006). Physical abuse is almost always accompanied in many cases by sexual assault and

psychological abuse (WHO, 2012; Krug et al., 2002). Physical abuse and sexual abuse often occur in a single abusive occurrence, and psychological abuse often precedes, occurs, and/or follows physical and sexual abuse, but may occur in the absence of other types of abuse (Mouradian, 2000). Physical abuse includes a wide range of physical attacks from pushing, slapping, twisting of arms or pulling of hair, throwing objects, strangling, slamming or holding someone against a wall, choking, scratching, biting, burning, beating, kicking and attacking with a weapon, to severe assault and battery (WHO, 2012; Foshee et al., 2007, cited in Offenbauer and Buchalter, 2011; Harne and Radford, 2012).

Among college students, reports of physical violence vary considerably across studies. Approximately 35% of female college students reported having been physically victimized by an intimate partner since they finished high school (Bernard & Bernard, 1983; DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1995; Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989). Conversely, data from male college students indicate that between 10% and 43% of college males committed physical violence against their intimate partner (Barnes, Greenwood, & Sommer, 1991; Luthra & Gidycz, 2006; White & Koss, 1991). However, in a recent study of male undergraduates at Ohio University, only 6.2% of respondents reported engaging in some form of physical violence with their dating partners (Gidycz et al., 2007).

Numerous studies have examined the transmission of violence within the family and have shown that childhood violence is a significant risk factor for engaging in physical violence with an intimate partner later in life (e.g., Bernard & Bernard, 1983; Kaura & Allen, 2004; O'Keefe, 1998; Riggs, Caulfield, & Street, 2000; Stith, Rosen, Middleton, Busch, Lundeberg, & Carlton, 2000). In one of the earlier studies examining this phenomenon, Bernard and Bernard (1983) found that 73% of undergraduate males engaged in intimate physical violent experiences or witnessed violence in their families of origin compared to 32% of non-violent males. In addition, 74% of violent men in their childhood were engaged in the same form of violence that occurred in their families of origin (Bernard & Bernard, 1983). Similarly, researchers have found that men who have experienced early childhood violence

are significantly more likely to engage in minor forms of physical dating violence than verbal abuse (Sugarman & Hotaling, 1986). As a result, the type of violence experienced in childhood appears to be as significant as the presence of violence in general.

Psychological/emotional abuse as well as verbal abuse is manifested in a variety of forms, such as name-calling and insulting, constant belittling, criticism, beating, humiliation, and guilt. There is also control of behavior, such as isolation from friends and family, monitoring of movements, restricting or denying access to and control over money and other resources, spying on partner's interactions or insisting on always knowing where the partner is, perceptions of entitlement, jealousy, and possessiveness. Threats and intimidation also manifest as threats to harm the partner, threats to harm the partner's possessions, throwing objects at the partner but missing, and making moves to hit the partner. It also includes emotional manipulation, such as threatening suicide, ignoring partners, or threatening to break up (WHO, 2012; UN, 2006; Krug et al., 2002; Offenhauer and Buchalter, 2011).

IPV affects a significant proportion of women worldwide regardless of their social, cultural, economic, and political background, and has no age limit (WHO, 2012; UNICEF, 2000; Heise et al.1999). A recent global IPV analysis reported that 30 percent of all women in relationships had IPV (WHO, 2013:16). The most recent WHO IPV study identified an international prevalence range of between 15% and 71% (WHO, 2005:5), corroborating their earlier study, which reported rates between 10% and 69% (Krug et al., 2002:89); other studies also reported a range between 10% and 60%, and between 20% and 71% in sub-Saharan Africa (Antai 2010). In Kenya, the 2003 and 2008-09 DHS reports indicate that nearly half of the women (49% and 47%, respectively) had experienced IPV, with much of the violence occurring within the 12 months preceding the surveys (CBS et al., 2004; KNBS and ICF Macro, 2010). A study conducted in low-income residential areas in Kisumu found that 52% of the women experienced IPV (Chesire et al., 2010:2). In another study conducted in Nairobi, marital IPV accounted for 48.8% of all the VAW cases reported to the

provincial administration and 23% of the cases reported to the police department (COVAW, 2003:29). Literature also suggests that the IPV rates could be higher given the culture of social acceptance and silence on IPV in Kenya (Ssemawala et al., 2008; FIDA, undated; COVAW, 2003).

Physical abuse is the most common IPV with its prevalence rates ranging between 10% and 60% (WHO, 2005; Ellsberg and Heise, 2005; Pelsler et al., 2005; Krug et al., 2002). On the other hand, sexual IPV prevalence rates range between 6% and 59% (Krug et al., 2002). Globally, 35% of the women who have been in a relationship have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (WHO, 2013) with its prevalence ranging from 23% to 56% (WHO, 2005). Psychological IPV has not received as much research attention as physical and sexual IPV, but multi-country studies estimate a prevalence rate of between 20% and 75% (WHO, 2005; UN, 2006). Physical IPV, in its most severe condition, results in death, with as many as 38% of all female victims worldwide (WHO, 2013) and 40% - 70% in Australia, Canada, Israel, South Africa, and the US, frequently in the context of an ongoing abusive relationship (Krug et al., 2002).

IPV trends reveal that violence is not limited to established relationships such as marriage or cohabitation but it is also a common experience for many young women in dating relationships (Schuler and Islam, 2008; Coghlan et al., 2006; Pinheiro, 2006; Schütt, 2006; Sands, 2009; Fincham et al., 2008). Literature suggests that young women between the ages of 16 and 24 are particularly vulnerable and experience higher rates of IPV than other groups (U.S Department of Justice, 2001; Sands, 2009; Nam et al., 2011), with IPV increasing in teenage (Nam et al., 2011; Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2005) and as longer relationships are formed in young adulthood (20-24 years) (Sands, 2009; Pinheiro, 2006; Schütt, 2006; Fincham et al., 2008; Werkele and Wolfe, 1999).

Literature has revealed that IPV is caused by various interrelated individual and social structural context factors. It is instructive that the factors associated with IPV, while being

multifaceted and complex, are manifestations of the social construction of gender and the attendant unequal power relations between women and men (Kishor and Johnson, 2004; Jewkes, 2002; Heise, 1998). This lends credence to the ideology that places gender inequality as the root cause of IPV and reflects IPV as a socially learned behavior. The contradictory and inconsistent findings in relation to the socioeconomic and socio-demographic risk factors call for more conclusive research to establish the actual extent and significance of their contribution to IPV.

Traditionally, IPV research has developed a portrait of women as victims and men as perpetrators of violence in relationships. Although these roles are interchangeable, some research suggests that CBs are more commonly reported by women than men, and that control tactics are more closely linked to victimization by women (Tanha et al., 2010). Relatedly, the researchers suggested that it is also possible for women to exert control; however, they are less likely to use violent means to establish a position of dominance within the relationship (Frye et al., 2006). Surprisingly, despite active campaigns and policies to discourage violence in relationships in certain parts of the world, including Nigeria, research suggests that young women between the ages of 16 and 24 are the demographic group most at risk for CBs (e.g. Gobierno de España, 2015). Taking into account these gender differences, it is important to consider the characteristics of both members of the couple as well as the key characteristics of the relationship, as these factors are likely to be associated with the use of control within the context of the relationship.

Methods

The basic steps in the data collection process included the following: a trained research assistant explained the research purpose and procedures to the students prior to the administration of the questionnaire. Then a trained female research assistant entered the selected room and established a relationship with the occupants. A vote to select one or more of the occupants willing to take part in the study was carried out. Information on the

nature, scope, and ethical issues of the study was provided. An informed consent form was filled and an interview was conducted using a pre-tested semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire did not contain any identifiers (i.e. no registration number, mark, or any other means that could be used to identify the respondents), and the questionnaire items focused on socio-demographic characteristics, self-esteem, male perpetrated violence, and men-controlling behavior. The participants in the study were 325. However, 310 copies of the questionnaire with valid and consistent responses were encoded and inputted into the computer using the SPSS.

The descriptive survey was conducted at the University of Ibadan, Nigeria. The institution is located in the Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State. The 12 halls of residence in the institution comprise four rooms for female undergraduate students. The researcher purportedly selected Queen Elizabeth Hall, the first female undergraduate hall, named after Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II, Queen of Great Britain, and Northern Ireland, who visited the University of Ibadan in February 1956 and held the formal opening ceremony of the Hall.

A multi-stage sampling technique was adopted. In the first stage, the nine (9) blocks (A-I) were grouped into four clusters consisting of 3, 2, 2, and 2, and one block was selected from each cluster using a simple random sampling technique. Using the voting method blocks A, C, E, and I were selected. In the second stage, two floors from each of the four blocks were chosen by simple random sampling techniques using ballots. Forty-four (44) copies of questionnaires were distributed on each floor. In the third stage, the floors occupied by 300 and 400-level students were selected on the basis of selection criteria. Twenty-two (22) copies of questionnaires were distributed on each floor.

All potential respondents were informed of the study's objectives. After the participants had consented to participate, they were assured of the confidentiality of any given information. Respondents were not required to provide their names or information that

would reveal their individual identity. They were also free to withdraw their participation at any point in the study and/or to refuse to answer questions that they did not wish to answer.

Instruments

Socio-demographic information about female undergraduate students such as age, religion, ethnicity, relationship status, and current dating relationship were collected from the participants.

Controlling Behavior

This was assessed by asking the respondents how often their partners behave in the following ways: (a) try to keep them from seeing my friends, (b) try to restrict my contact with my birth families, (c) insist on knowing where I was at all times, (d) get angry if I talk to another man, (e) suspect that I was unfaithful, (f) threaten to leave the relationship, and (g) expect me to ask for permission before I seek anything. Items were rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (never). Responses to the composite index were summed up, with higher scores indicating higher CB severity (range = 0-16). The inter-item correlation for these items ranged from .44 to .71, and the alpha coefficient was high (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$). The current study established Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$ for this study.

Male-Perpetrated Violence

This was measured using the adjusted Revised Conflicts Tactics Scale created by Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, and Sugarman, 1996). It was utilized to quantify the degree to which female partners in dating relationships experienced physical, psychological and sexual, violence from the males. Items included the following: Did your partner ever do any of the following things to you in the past year? (a) Push you, shake you, or throw something at

you (b) Slap you (c) Twist your arm or pull your hair (d) Punch you with her fist or with something that could hurt you (e) Kick you, drag you, or beat you up (f) Try to choke you on purpose (h) Threaten or attack you with a knife, gun, or any other weapon (items *a to f* measuring physical violence) (g) Physically force you to have sexual intercourse with him even when you did not want to - measures sexual violence (h) Hurt your feelings deliberately (i) Verbally abused you- items i and j measure psychological violence. Females who answered ‘yes’ to at least one of the items from (a) to (j) were considered to have experienced IPV whereas those who answered ‘no’ to all of the questions were considered not to have had such an experience. Alpha coefficients for this measure range from .70 (Sharpe & Taylor, 1999) to .78 (O’Keefe, 1997), but in the current study the total reliability alpha coefficients for the scale was 0.80.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem was measured using the 10-item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1979). Participants responded to a series of statements using a 4-point scale, ranging from 1 (‘strongly disagree’) to 4 (‘strongly agree’), and scores ranged from 10 to 40, with higher scores indicating greater self-esteem. The internal consistency of the RSE was good, with Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from .88 (Greenberger, Chen, Dmitrieva, & Farruggia, 2003) to .90 (Donnellan et al., 2005), and a 2-week test-retest reliability of $r = .72$ was reported (Hojat & Lyons, 1998). The RSE has frequently been used in studies examining interpersonal violence (e.g., Donnellan et al., 2005). In the present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) was .74.

Data Analysis and Results

Table 1: Summary of frequency analysis of Socio-demographic variables

	Freq. (%)
Age	
18.00	13

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	(4.2%)
19.00	15(4.8%))
20.00	30(9.7%))
21.00	11(3.5%))
21.50	20.6%)
22.00	9(2.9%)
23.00	8(2.6%)
24.00	19(6.1%))
25.00	16(5.2%))
26.00	10(3.2%))
27.00	9(2.9%)
28.00	10(3.2%))
29.00	37(11.9%) %)
30.00	24(7.7%))
31.00	15(4.8%))
32.00	33(10.6%) %)
33.00	5(1.6%)
34.00	6(1.9%)
35.00	9(2.9%)
36.00	11(3.5%))
37.00	6(1.9%)
38.00	5(1.6%)
39.00	7(2.3%)
Total	310
are you currently dating	

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Not in dating relationship at all	51(16.5%)
casual dating	148(47.7%)
steady dating	90(29.0%)
Fiancée	21(6.8%)
Total	310
Religion	
Christianity	178(57.4%)
Islam	132(42.6%)
Total	310
Ethnic Group	
Yoruba	205(66.1%)
Igbo	92(29.7%)
Hausa	13(4.2%)
Total	310

The total number of the involved participants was 310. Their ages ranged from 18 to 30 with a total mean age of 27.34 years (S.D. = 5.71). As regard their ethnicity, 205(66.1%) were Yoruba, 92(29.7%) were Igbo and 13(4.2%) were Hausa. As regard their religion, 178(57.4%) were Christians and 132(42.6%) were Muslims. Their relationship status indicated that 51(16.5%) were not currently in a relationship, 148(47.7%) had casual dating, 90(29.0%) had steady dating, and 21(6.9%) had fiancée. Participants' ages were as follows: 18(4.2%) were 18 years old, 15(4.2%) were 19 years old, 30(9.7%) were 20 years old, 11(3.5%) were 21 years old, 2(0.6%) were 21.5 years old, 9(2.9%) were 22 years old, 8(2.6%) were 23 years old, 19(6.1%) were 24 years old, 16(5.2%) were 25 years old,

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10(3.2%) were 26 years old, 9(2.9%) were 27 years old, 10(3.2%) were 28 years old, 37(11.9%) were 29 years old, 24(7.7%) were 30 years old, 15(4.8%) were 31 years old, 33(10.6%) were 32 years old, 5(1.6%) were 33 years old, 6(1.9%) were 34 years old, 9(2.9%) were 35 years old, 11(3.5%) were 36 years old, 6(1.9%) were 37 years old, 5(1.6%) were 38 years old, 7(2.3%) were 39 years old.

Hypotheses one stated that female undergraduate students who score low on self-esteem will score significantly higher on physical, sexual and psychological violence compared to those who score high on self-esteem in dating relationships. This hypothesis was tested and analyzed using t-test for independent samples and the results are presented in Table 4.1a-c.

Table 2

Summary of T-Test showing the influence of Self esteem on Physical Violence

Self Esteem	N	\bar{X}	SD	Df	T	Sig
High	18	28.3	5.21	308	4.02	<.01
	2	6				
Low	12	30.7	5.10	308	4.02	<.01
	8	6				

Table 3

Summary of T-Test showing the influence of Self-esteem on Sexual violence

Self Esteem	N	\bar{X}	SD	Df	T	Sig
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High	18	26.8	6.06	308	2.09	<.05
	2	6				
Low	12	28.3	5.99			
	8	1				

Table 4

Summary of T-Test showing the influence of Self-esteem on psychological Violence

Self Esteem	N	\bar{X}	SD	Df	T	Sig
High	18	27.1	7.47	308	1.77	>.05
	2	3				
Low	12	29.6	6.59			
	8	8				

Table 2 shows that self-esteem had a significant influence on physical violence among female undergraduate students in dating relationships, University of Ibadan (308) = 4.02, $p < .01$). The finding from this study showed that females who reported low self-esteem scored significantly higher (mean =30.76) on physical violence than females who reported high self-esteem (mean =28.36). Table 3 shows that self-esteem had a significant influence on sexual violence among female undergraduate students in dating relationships, University of Ibadan (308) = 2.09, $p < .05$). The finding from this study showed that females who reported low self-esteem scored significantly higher (mean =28.31) on sexual violence than females who reported high self-esteem (mean =26.86). The result in Table 4 showed that self-esteem had no significant influence on psychological violence among female undergraduate students in dating relationships, University of Ibadan (308) = 1.77, $p > .05$). The finding from this study revealed that females who reported low self-esteem scored

significantly higher on psychological aggression (mean =27.13) than females who reported high self-esteem (mean =29.68).

Hypotheses two stated that self-esteem and men-controlling behaviour will jointly and independently predict each of the dimensions of male-perpetrated violence among female undergraduate students in dating relationships. This hypothesis was tested and analyzed using stepwise regression analysis and the results are presented in Table 5

Table 5

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Influence of Self-Esteem and men controlling Behaviour on Psychological violence

Model		Beta	T	Sig.	R	R ²	F	P
1	Self-Esteem	.229	4.119	<.01	.229	.052	16.96 9	<.01
2	Self-Esteem	.209	3.773	<.01				
	Men Controlling Behaviour	.141	2.537	<.01	.268	.072	11.85 1	<.01

The results in Table 5 revealed that in model 1; Self Esteem ($\beta=.229$, $t=4.119$, $p<.01$); significantly predicted psychological violence among undergraduate students accounting for 52% of the variation observed in psychological violence. ($R^2 = .052$, $F(1,308) = 16.969$, $p<.01$)

In model 2; Self Esteem ($\beta=.209$, $t=3.773$, $p<.01$), Men Controlling Behaviour ($\beta=.141$, $t=2.537$, $p<.01$) both factors jointly ($R^2 = .072$, $F(2,307) = 11.851$, $p<.01$); accounted for 72% variation in observed in psychological violence among undergraduate students representing an increase when Men Controlling Behaviour was added in the model.

Table 6

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Influence of Self-Esteem and men controlling Behaviour on Physical Violence

Model		Beta	T	Sig.	R	R ²	F	P
1	Men Controlling Behaviour	.394	7.525	<.01	.394	.155	56.63 2	<.01
2	Men controlling Behaviour	.351	7.056	<.01				
	Self Esteem	.320	6.449	<.01	.506	.256	52.84 5	<.01

In model 1, Table 6 Men Controlling Behaviour ($\beta=.394$, $t=7.525$, $p<.01$); significantly predicted Physical violence among undergraduate students accounting for 15.5% of the variation observed in Physical violence. ($R^2 = .155$, $F(1,308) = 56.632$, $p<.01$);

In model 2; Men Controlling Behaviour ($\beta=.351$, $t=7.056$, $p<.01$), Self Esteem ($\beta=.320$, $t=6.449$, $p<.01$) both factors jointly ($R^2 = .256$, $F(2,307) = 52.845$, $p<.01$); accounted for 25.6% variation in observed in Physical violence among undergraduate students representing an increase in Physical violence when Self-esteem was added in the model.

Table 7

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Influence of Self-Esteem and men controlling Behaviour on Sexual Violence

Model		Beta	T	Sig.	R	R ²	F	P
1	Men Controlling Behaviour	.205	3.675	<.01	.205	.042	13.50 6	<.01

2	Men controlling Behaviour	.181	3.260	<.01					
	Self Esteem	.178	3.205	<.01	.270	.073	12.09 4	<.01	

In model 1, Table 7 Men Controlling Behaviour ($\beta=.205$, $t=3.675$, $p<.01$); significantly predicted Sexual violence among undergraduate students accounting for 42% of the variation observed in Sexual violence. ($R^2 = .042$, $F (1,308) = 13.506$, $p<.01$);

In model 2; Men Controlling Behaviour ($\beta=.181$, $t=3.260$, $p<.01$), Self Esteem ($\beta=.178$, $t=3.205$, $p<.01$) both factors jointly ($R^2 = .073$, $F (2,307) = 12.094$, $p<.01$); accounted for 73% variation in observed in Sexual violence among undergraduate students representing an increase in Sexual violence when Self-esteem was added in the model.

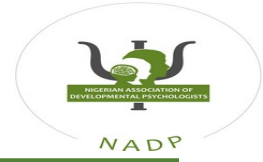
Discussion

The main objective of this study was to examine self-esteem and men-controlling behavior as predictors of male-perpetrated violence among female undergraduate students. Our findings have established a number of interesting links between self-esteem, men-controlling behavior, and male-perpetrated violence. The findings have helped in the understanding of the influence of self-esteem on dating relationships. Furthermore, it has been established that the accompaniment of both self-esteem and male-controlling behavior has a significant influence on each of the violent subscales (physical, sexual, and psychological violence). It has also been confirmed that a significant predictor of physical, sexual, and psychological violence is female students' low self-esteem. These results corroborate with Lynch and Graham-Bermann's (2000) finding that self-esteem can be significantly reduced once participants are actively engaged in abusive relationships, as continued psychological, physical and/or sexual aggression contribute to increased feelings of guilt and responsibility for the violence, increased social isolation and loss of self-esteem as victim's attention can be monopolized so as to gratify the perpetrator to avoid further violence. The findings are also consistent with Crocker and Park's (2004) results which

suggest that those with low self-esteem are vulnerable to high levels of rejection or that their self-esteem is based on the acceptance of others. They may eagerly expect, perceive, and overreact to rejection, and react unfavorably to avoid it. In relationships, men may react with hostility, jealousy, or attempts to control partners while women may withdraw from support and become dissatisfied when faced with the possibility of rejection. In addition, the results of this study showed that men-controlling behavior independently accounted for about 26.3 percent of variance in male violence. In all, these findings have provided more insights with regard to the potential practical implications of the dynamic interaction that exists between self-esteem and men-controlling behavior as well as their joint influence on male violence.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study examined self-esteem and male control as predictors of male violence among female undergraduate students. Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn. The relationship between self-esteem, men-controlling behavior, and male-perpetrated violence has been confirmed. Specifically, low self-esteem was found to be a strong predictor of male-perpetrated violence between women in dating relationships. One of the implications of this study is that there is a relationship between self-esteem and male-perpetrated violence. based on these findings, it is recommended that telephone (hotlines) and online reporting websites (e-mail) be set up on campuses by the Student Affairs Division and guidance and counseling in various faculties for awareness and for students use; there is a need for a proper orientation package (hand bike) for students on violence during dating and the warning signs of abuse in a relationship. Awareness should be created regarding any form of violence during dating so that students will be more conscious of its manifestations. Such awareness can be created by introducing a compulsory course relating to dating and relationships into the General Studies Programme for all first-year students of the university.



Suggestions

Future research should expand and replicate the results of this study in order to determine the reliability and generalizability of the results. Finally, further research on gender-based violence during dating should be conducted in other Nigerian universities to ensure that other racial and socio-economic groups contribute to the body of knowledge on violence during dating.

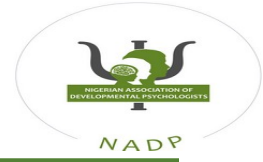
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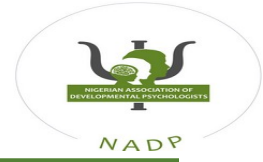
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