

The influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse in Greece and the impact on victims.

By Vasiliki Kravvariti BSc, MSc

Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Forensic Psychology

Thesis submitted for examination February 2020

Thesis Abstract

The aim of the Thesis is to investigate the influence of gender of victims and offenders on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse (DVA) in Greece, and the impact that their responses have on victims. This aim was achieved by first conducting a systematic literature review assessing the quality of 26 quantitative papers on police responses. Four or more of the studies identified victim factors as; gender of victim female, cohabiting with an abusive partner, the severity of the injury, and victim under the influence of alcohol or drugs to be associated with the arrest of the perpetrator. Four or more of the studies identified offender factors as; gender of offender male, the severity of the incident, use of weapon and offender under the influence of alcohol or drugs to be also linked to arrest. Overall, it was observed that male offenders were arrested more often than female offenders. Women were more likely to be arrested if they were intoxicated and/or had used a weapon. Evidence from the review showed on average female victims represent 86.2% and male victims represent 17.3% of DVA incident reports to the police. Of these, 63.2% of male offenders and 11.5% of female offenders were arrested.

Second, a 30-item questionnaire study of 358 police officers was carried out with eight major police services in Greece. Police officers indicated that female victims usually suffered from severe physical violence/ Grievous bodily harm (GBH) (42.9%) and psychological abuse (26.5%), whereas male victims were most likely to disclose minor physical injuries and verbal abuse (49.4%) and less psychological violence (9.6%). An arrest was the most common response for offenders of both female and male victims (50.6% and 59.8% respectively). Third, a similar 30-item questionnaire study of 327 professionals was carried out with five DVA support organizations in Greece. Professionals also reported female victims suffered mostly from severe physical violence/GBH (32.5% of respondents), whereas male victims were most likely to disclose to the police minor/moderate physical injuries (15%).

The next stage of the research investigated the differences in female and male victim experiences after making a report to the Greek police about DVA and whether these experiences differ in the presence or absence of children. A heterosexual victim sample consisting of 75 participants was recruited from five agencies offering counseling and support for DVA victims in Greece. All participants completed a 59-item questionnaire. Comparing 58 female and 17 male victims, with nine similar demographic characteristics; there were 18 significant differences ($p < 0.001$) and 13 trends ($p < 0.002$ to $p < 0.05$) found for 31 out of 50

questions. Each indicated that more concern was shown for women than men in the police interview, use and availability of weapons, injuries and evidence, arrest, protective orders, information and advice provided, and the police crime report. Only questions related to safeguarding children and witnesses showed no differences. A comparison of questionnaires from 38 female victims with children and 20 female victims with no children determined that the influence of children in the home on police responses was small and mostly related to information, advice, and actions to safeguard the child(ren). Regardless of gender, 42.9% of victims reported that the children were abused as well, and four out of five participants claimed that their children had witnessed partner abuse.

The research then investigated differences between female and male victims of DVA in relation to factors that influence whether victims stay or leave the abusive relationship (AR). Responses from 36 female and 18 male DVA victims were compared on a 74-item questionnaire. Female victims appeared more vulnerable than male victims with a significantly higher proportion of them suffering from internal inhibitors of fear, helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem. Regarding external factors; female victims had significantly fewer financial resources and social support networks with more controlling partners than male victims. Regardless of victim gender, all victims reported that they had suffered from anxiety and depression, lying about injuries, giving up on change and excusing the abuse. The final piece of research explored two groups of adult victims: 34 who remain with their abusive partner ('high risk') and 20 who have left their abusive partner ('low risk'). A logistic regression model indicated that a 9-factor checklist, with a cut-off score of 4 or more, could predict outcome in 88.9% of cases. Risk factors for staying included female gender, unemployment status, not close to parents, not close to friends, stopped seeing friends due to partner, pleased partner to avoid being hurt, physically tried to stop the abuse, belief that partner will change, feelings of staying in or returning to the abusive relationship.

Overall, the research found profound differences between the experiences reported by women compared to men for police responses to the victim. Evidence is provided to support the notion that male victims in Greece are discriminated against, as they do not fulfil the gender stereotype expected by police officers. This suggests that more police training is required to ensure gender 'neutral' police responses when attending a domestic dispute or responding to a report of DVA.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated entirely to both my parents. I hope they can see me and feel happy.

Acknowledgements:

This study was funded as part of a University of Nottingham Vice Chancellor Scholarship to Vasiliki Kravvariti. The author has no conflict of interest or financial interest in the research described in this thesis. Data used in this Study is copyright to the Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology, University of Nottingham and is kept for 7 years from publication.

My first thanks go to all people who made this project possible. I am grateful to my supervisor Professor Kevin Browne for giving me the opportunity to work and learn alongside him. He was always very supportive by giving constructive advice and guidance on research and helped me to develop individual research skills.

Another huge thanks goes to the Greek police officers, and Greek professionals who support victims of Domestic violence and Abuse who selflessly invested a large amount of their time and effort into collecting questionnaires for this project. Without both groups, this project would not have been possible. I am also thankful to Dr Kate Green who helped me with the systematic review, along with other members of staff who have provided support and guidance where needed.

Table of Contents

Thesis abstract	1
Dedication.....	3
Acknowledgements	4
Table of Contents	5
List of Tables	8
List of Figures	11
List of Appendices	12
Chapter one: Introduction and Overview.....	13
Introduction.....	14
Definitions.....	15
Understanding DVA.....	18
Incidence and prevalence.....	20
Domestic violence and gender.....	22
Arrest policies.....	26
The Greek context.....	27
Thesis aims and objectives.	28
Structure of thesis.....	28
Chapter two: Police Responses to male and female victims of Domestic Violence and Abuse: A Systematic Literature Review.....	31
Abstract	32
Introduction.....	33
Methods.....	39
Results.....	43
Discussion.....	73
Chapter three: Police Recognition of gender issues in relation to Domestic violence and Abuse in Greece.....	81
Abstract	82
Introduction	83
Method	89

Results	92
Discussion	102

Chapter four: Professionals' recognition of the role of gender within Domestic Abuse in Greece 107

Abstract.....	108
Introduction.....	109
Method	111
Results	116
Discussion.....	127

Chapter five: Differences and similarities in Police and Professionals' recognition of the role of gender within Domestic Violence and Abuse in Greece.....134

Abstract	135
Introduction	136
Method	140
Results	142
Discussion	160

Chapter six: Victim opinions of police responses to reports of domestic violence and abuse.....164

Abstract	165
Introduction	166
Method	171
Results	174
Discussion	201

Chapter seven: Differences between female and male victims of domestic abuse on factors related to staying in or leaving an abusive relationship.....208

Abstract	209
Introduction	210
Method	218
Results	222
Discussion	235

Chapter eight: Predicting victims who remain in abusive relationship in Greece 241

Abstract	242
Introduction	243
Method	244
Bi-variate Results	247
Logistic Regression (multivariate results)	251
Discussion	256

Chapter nine: Discussion and Conclusions.....260

Introduction.....	261
SLR of police responses to DVA reports.....	262
Victim gender influences	262
Victims perceptions of police responses.....	264
Why victims stay in DVA relationships.....	266
Victims opinions on arrest.....	268
Seeking help from service agencies.....	268
Limitations of the research.....	269
Conclusion.....	273

References

Chapter 1 References.....	274
Chapter 2 References.....	285
Chapter 3 References.....	298
Chapter 4 References.....	304
Chapter 5 References.....	312
Chapter 6 References.....	316
Chapter 7 References.....	322
Chapter 8 References.....	335
Chapter 9 References.....	337

List of Tables

Tables Chapter 2

Table 2.1: Quality assessment of the reviewed studies	47
Table 2.2: Summary of review studies on Police Responses to male and female victims of Domestic Violence and Abuse (DVA).....	55
Table 2.3: Prevalence of male and female victims, offenders and arrests.....	69
Table 2.4: Risk Factors associated with Police Arrest, Charges and Conviction for Domestic Abuse.....	71

Tables Chapter 3

Table 3.1a: Number of Domestic Abuse (DVA) incidents reported to the police in Greece from 2010 to 2015, the percent investigated, and offenders arrested.....	94
Table 3.1b: Number of homicides associated with Domestic Abuse (DVA) related to female and male victims detected by the police in Greece from 2010 to 2015.....	94
Table 3.2: Police opinions on what is recorded when dealing with Domestic Abuse.....	95
Table 3.3: Type of domestic violence and abuse by Gender based on police officers' experience.....	96
Table 3.4: Action taken by the police by gender of DVA victims according to their opinion and experience.....	99
Table 3.5: Police experience of previous knowledge of DVA victim and/or offender by gender of victim.....	99
Table 3.6: Action taken by the police with known offenders and known victims by Gender of DVA victim.....	101

Tables Chapter 4

Table 4.1: Professional opinions on changes in the number of referrals for male and female victims of Domestic Abuse.....	117
Table 4.2: Experiences of prof. in relation to the abuse reported by women and men.....	120
Table 4.3: Professionals opinions on whether support is provided to male and female victims of Domestic abuse are the same for all the victims regardless their gender.....	121
Table 4.4 Professionals opinions on whether interventions provided to male and female victims of Domestic abuse are the same for all the victims regardless their gender.....	122

Table 4.5: Professionals' opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems.....	124
Table 4.6: The likely causes of domestic abuse against men and women.....	125

Tables Chapter 5

Table 5.1: Professionals and police opinions on what information is recorded when dealing with Domestic Abuse.....	144
Table 5.2: Professionals and police opinions on changes in the number of referrals for female and male victims of Domestic Abuse over the past 5 years.....	146
Table 5.3: Experiences of professionals and police in relation to the type of abuse reported by female and male victims.....	146
Table 5.4: Experiences of professionals and police in relation to support for female and male victims.....	149
Table 5.5 Opinions of prof. and police on interventions for male and female victims.....	154
Table 5.6: Professionals and police opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their abuse.....	155
Table 5.7: Professionals and police opinions on the causes of domestic abuse against female and male victims.....	158

Tables Chapter 6

Table 6.1: Demographic Characteristics of female and male victims of DVA completing the questionnaire on police response.....	175
Table 6.2: Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to police interviews.....	177
Table 6.3: Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to weapons used and injuries and evidence.....	179
Table 6.4: Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to children and witnesses.....	181
Table 6.5: Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to arrest, protected orders and information provided.....	184
Table 6.6: Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to police report.....	187
Table 6.7: Demographic characteristics of female victims with and without children	193
Table 6.8: Police response related to females' victims living with and without children....	194

Table 6.9: Children's influence on police actions reported by female victims.....	204

Tables Chapter 7

Table 7.1: Demographic Characteristics of male and female Victims of Domestic Abuse seeking help and advice from support organisations.....	223
Table 7.2: Questionnaire Responses of Victims with and without children seeking help and advice from support organisations in relation to time, resources, fear, Support, helplessness, self-blame, low self-esteem, depression and controlling partner.....	226
Table 7.3: Questionnaire Responses of female and male Victims with children seeking help and advice from support organisations.	233

Tables Chapter 8

Table 8.1: Significant questionnaire responses of victims who remain or have left the abusive relationship.....	246
Table 8.2: Binary logistic regression: Variables in the Equation – Step 1.....	249
Table 8.3: Accuracy of logistic regression 9-factor model in classifying victims who remain in an abusive relationship.....	252
Table 8.4: Accuracy of a nine-risk factor checklist with a cut-off score of 4 or more to classify victims who remain in an abusive relationship.....	253
Table 8.5: Classification table showing the accuracy of a nine-risk factor checklist with a cut-off score of 4 or more to classify victims who remain in an abusive relationship.....	255
Table 8.6: Proposed Risk factor checklist for victims who remain in an abusive relationship.....	257

List of Figures

Figures Chapter 2

Figure 2.1. Details of the selection process.....45

Figures Chapter 8

Figure 8.1: Checklist scores of the number of risk factors present in those DVA victims who left their AR compared to victims who remained 254

List of Appendices

Appendices

Appendix 1: Example of search strategy (Ch. 2)	341
Appendix 2: Including and Excluding Criteria (Ch. 2)	343
Appendix 3: Data Extraction Form (Ch 2)	345
Appendix 4: Quality Assessment form (Ch. 2)	347
Appendix 5: Questionnaire for Police and Professionals on domestic violence and abuse (Ch. 3 & 4)	349
Appendix 6: Questionnaire for Victims views on Police Response to Domestic Violence and Abuse (Ch.6)	355
Appendix 7: Questionnaire to Assess Why Victims Stay in the Abusive Relationship (Ch. 7).....	362
Appendix 8: Letter sent to the Greek Police.....	376
Appendix 9: Police and Professional study Information Sheet (Ch. 3 & 4)	377
Appendix 10: Cover letter sent to Managers of the counselling and support services (Ch. 4, 6 & 7)	378
Appendix 11: Victims study Information Sheet (Ch. 6 & 7)	379
Appendix 12: Consent form for victims (Ch. 6 & 7)	380
Appendix 13: Ethical Approval Letter.....	381
Appendix 14: Glossary of terms.....	385

Chapter 1

Introduction and Overview

Introduction

The issue of Domestic Violence and Abuse (DVA) is one of the most complex and multifaceted types of aggression and violence that occurs between intimate partners in a romantic relationship within and outside the family home. More recently '*intimate partner violence*' has been used in the research literature to refer to the concept but the term '*domestic violence*' persists in English and Greek legislation and policy making and is more commonly used by professional dealing with the issue.

DVA has been considered a private, secretive and hidden issue for decades and discussions regarding domestic violence in public weren't acceptable or seen as a social issue (Kronenberg, 2013). It is often covertly committed by the perpetrator and often concealed by both perpetrator and victim. According to Schneider (2000), feminists have recognized that there was no public discussion about intimate partner violence from the beginning of the 20th century until the mid-1970s. For example; "In the Journal of Marriage and the Family, the major scholarly journal in family sociology, no article on family violence appeared from its founding in 1939 until 1969" (Pleck, 1987, p. 182).

However, since the 1970s, DVA has received increased national and worldwide attention. This was generally due to the women's movement and legislation stress the seriousness of its nature and the significant number of women being victims of DVA (Carrington & Phillips, 2003; Laing & Bobic, 2002). Following this, DVA received a vast amount of attention, which influenced legislation in England with the introduction of the Domestic Violence Act (1976) and in Greece with Law 3500 (2006). Despite weaknesses of the Greek Law 3500 (2006), which did not include financial abuse, and the emotional abuse to children who witness DVA; it is considered a significant step in confronting the problem of DVA in Greek society. For the first time in Greece, Law 3500 (2006) regards spousal rape as a felony and provides for ex-partner relations in any prosecution of DVA crimes. Furthermore, the Law provides judicial guarantees for the protection of victims of DVA (art.15), introduces penal mediation (articles 11–14) and describes the extra-judicial aid to victims by the police, hospitals, social services and shelters (art.21).

The concepts of child abuse and neglect (CAN) and DVA are now well recognized forms of family violence and are considered a public health and human rights problem (Krug et al, 2002). Both these forms of family violence have severe consequences for the victim associated

with health, family breakdown, social isolation and financial wellbeing (Browne & Herbert, 1997; Krug et al, 2002).

Statistics from the The Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW) illustrate that domestic violence accounts for 14% of all violent incidents. Indeed, over one in four women (28.9%) and one in seven men (13.2%) will be a victim of domestic violence in their lifetime and that one incident of domestic violence is reported to the police every minute (ONS, 2018). Such statistics highlight the importance of preventing DVA and increase public awareness. Unfortunately, equivalent statistics are not available in Greece and this has limited public and professional awareness of the DVA issue in Greek society.

DVA is a serious problem that cuts across international and cultural boundaries. It may be experienced by individuals from any race, gender, ethnicity, income, education, religion, and all socioeconomic backgrounds. It is a significant public health issue globally.

DVA is globally recognized as a major but underreported public health and social problem among heterosexual and same-sex couples (Krug, et al. 2002; Baker, et al. 2011). It results in injuries and other negative short- and long-term effects on the health of all the family members (Johnson and Ferraro, 2000; Holt, et al. 2008). Children and young people in families where DVA has taken place are at risk of abuse and associated detrimental health outcomes (Holt, et al. 2008; Nicklas and Mackenzie, 2012; Olive, 2007).

Definitions

Sex and Gender

In this thesis, the word '*Gender*' is used to represent the characteristics of men and women that are socially constructed and used as stereotypes by individuals, families, communities and societies. Obviously, gender identification is based on 'sex' which refers to those characteristics that biologically determine male and female identity at birth. Childhood social experiences and learned behaviour makes up gender identity of men and women which determines their gender roles (WHO, 2002).

In relation to police and professional responses, the research looks for evidence for '*gender equity and equality*'. This is the promotion of fairness and justice, and the absence of discrimination, based on a person's sex (male or female) in opportunities, the allocation of resources and benefits, or access to services, whilst recognising that men and women have

different needs. The aim of the research is to carry out a '*gender analysis*' which explores inequalities that arise from an individual's opinion and belief of the different roles of women and men play, and perceived unequal power relations between them, and the consequences of presumed inequalities on police and professional responses or the reaction, health and well-being of victims (WHO, 2002)

Domestic violence and abuse (or Intimate Partner Violence)

The term '*domestic violence*' is often confused with the term '*family violence*' and a clear distinction can be made between these terms. According to Browne and Herbert (1997), '*domestic violence*' refers traditionally to the concept of spouse abuse and predominantly violence to women (wife battering). These concepts are now referred to as '*intimate partner violence*' defined by the World Health Organisation (Krug et al, 2002) as "any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship"

By contrast, the term '*family violence*' is used more broadly to describe any form of aggression and violence in the family, which often occur simultaneously. In their book '*Preventing Family Violence*', Browne and Herbert (1997 p.6) describe five types of family violence; spouse abuse, child abuse and elder abuse (perpetrated by adults), parent and sibling abuse (perpetrated by children).

This thesis uses the term Domestic Violence and Abuse (DVA) to refer to research into domestic violence, spouse abuse and intimate partner violence. It considers other forms of family violence (ie: child abuse and neglect) only in relation to its association with DVA.

Barnish (2004) claims that until recently there was no shared definition of intimate partner violence (IPV) or DVA. Lack of a common definition has led to misinterpretations and disadvantaged research and policy recommendations with different agencies and the government using a variety of dissimilar definitions (Cook et al.2006).

In March 2013, the UK Home Office, after a consultation between December 2011 and March 2012 introduced an extended definition of DVA to be used across government. The new definition introduced coercive or controlling behaviour. The new definition of domestic violence and abuse (DVA) is:

"Any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive or threatening behaviour, violence or abuse between those aged 16 or over who are or have been intimate partners or

family members regardless of gender or sexuality.” This can encompass psychological, physical, sexual, financial and emotional abuse” (Home Office, Cross-Government definition of domestic violence: a consultation –summary of responses, September 2012, p19)

This UK definition is used for the purpose of this Thesis, since it incorporates all the different types of domestic violence and abuse (DVA), ‘regardless of gender or sexuality’ which recognizes that both men and women can be victims of DVA in either heterosexual or same-sex relationships.

In Greece, the Legal Act 3500 (2006) defines "domestic violence" more narrowly as the commission of one of the following offences against a family member (Articles 1, 6, 7, 8 and 9 of this act and Articles 299 and 311 of the Criminal Code):

- Domestic physical injury
- Domestic violence and threat
- Rape and Sexual abuse
- Manslaughter and fatal injury

In the framework of Greek domestic violence law, the definition of family includes spouses or parents and first and second-degree relatives by blood or by marriage. Provided they cohabit, the provisions of this law apply to a permanent companion of the man or the woman and, if present, the children common to both parents or children of one parent. This includes biological, fostered and adopted children. The Law also applies to former wives and husbands.

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015), the terms “*domestic violence*” and “*intimate partner violence*” are today used as synonymous terms to describe some form of abusive behavior by one individual upon another person in a relationship.

Regardless of whether we call it “*domestic violence and abuse (DVA)*” or “*intimate partner violence, (IPV)*”, both terms refer to violence demonstrated through control and abuse that exists in a personal and intimate relationship. This form of violence that exists in a relationship can be challenging to break without intervention and external support systems for the victim.

It is generally agreed and stated within all definitions that DVA occurs within all social groups, regardless of class, race, age, disability, sexuality, religion or lifestyle (Dalal., et al., 2009;

Koenig et al., 2006; Tokus et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2006). DVA in all forms occurs every day in all parts of the world cutting across age, religions, societies, ethnicities and geographical borders (Xu et al., 2006).

Understanding Domestic Violence and Abuse (DVA)

In order to have a better understanding of DVA it is important to consider the main theories regarding these issues. These include psychological theories that consider personality traits and mental characteristics of the perpetrator, as well as social theories which consider external factors in the perpetrator's environment, such as family structure, stress, social learning etc.

From a psychological perspective, DVA was initially viewed as a mental health problem, suggesting that abusive men had some sort of mental illness that was causing them to behave violently towards their partners (e.g.; excessive use of alcohol). According to psychological theory, DVA may be the result of a personality trait (such as the need to control) and this characteristic may be related to earlier emotional attachments and attachment disorder or the consequences of being a victim of abuse and neglect as a child (Browne and Herbert, 1997; Green, et al, 2019; Whale, et al. 2019). Other personality factors may also be associated with DVA (Green and Browne, 2020), a personality disturbance (such as borderline personality), psychopathology (such as antisocial personality), or a psychological disorder or problem (such as post-traumatic stress disorder, poor impulse control, low self-esteem, or substance abuse). This view inevitably reduced the men's accountability for their abusive behavior, not reducing or stopping the cause, however (Partnerships Against Domestic Violence, 2003).

Researchers have found that psychological theories do not account for all acts of DVA committed by men. The Domestic Violence Prevention Unit (2000), for example, found that there are large groups of domestically violent men, who are violent in the family, do not show signs of violent behavior in other social contexts (eg; workplace, community events). Holtsworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) refer to these men as "Family only" perpetrators.

Indeed, research reveals that ~~domestic violence and abuse~~ DVA can be perpetrated by males with a 'normal state' of mind and can occur in the absence of alcohol and drugs (eg: Hastie, 2001). This evidence has led researchers to question the degree to which perpetrators' of DVA show signs of mental illness or personality disorder. Indeed, it has been estimated that this group accounts for 20-25% of male perpetrators (Holtsworth- Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Dixon & Browne, 2003).

Amongst the psychological theories that have been tested, one theory has been consistently supported in explaining cases of DVA. This theory is known as “*Social Learning Theory*”. According to Social Learning theory (SLT) (Bandura, 1977), it is assumed that human behaviour can be explained by observing and imitating others in order to receive rewards or to avoid punishments. Regarding to DVA, violent behavior is learned in childhood by receiving readily available messages by observing behaviors of parents, fictional heroes in media entertainment, people in the social media or violent people in the public who achieve power and control through behaving violently (Browne & Herbert, 1997; Browne & Hamilton-Giacritsis, 2005).

Evidence of intergenerational transmission model (ITM) of violence comes from longitudinal and ethnographic research that observes the relationships between childhood influences and later adult behaviour (Jewkes et al., 2002; Ehrensaft et al. 2003). Witnessing domestic violence as a child emerges as one of the strongest predictors of later perpetration (Jaffe et al.1990; Partnerships Against Domestic Violence, 2003). However, social learning theory cannot explain why most children exposed to adverse influences of abuse and neglect in childhood do not go onto perpetrate violence (Widom, 1989ab), or why a substantial proportion of abusers report no exposure to family violence (Domestic Violence Prevention Unit, 2000).

The feminist perspective’s influencing research specific on DVA (Murray, 2002), has emphasized social theories. Feminist explanations challenge the view, proposed by psychological theories, that DVA is a rare event specific to males with personality or psychological disorders or addictive behaviours.

Feminist theories of the origins and dynamics of DVA have been particularly influential in exposing the issue, campaigning for change, and in sponsoring practical action to address DVA. They draw on the accounts of abused women and an understanding of how patriarchal attitudes, institutions and gendered power differentials have fostered inequality, male privilege, and a sense of male entitlement (O’Leary et al. 2007; Stith et al., 2004). Violent behavior operates as a route to achieving and maintaining male domination, power and control (Mauricio & Gormley, 2001). Support for the feminist perspective comes from cross-cultural ethnographic studies that demonstrate that violence against women is more endemic in cultures and sub-cultures in which men dominate decision-making and assign fixed, subservient gender roles to women (WHO 2002).

On the other hand, Systems theory claims that DVA is not due to one sole factor. Instead, this domestically violent behaviour is caused by a number of factors including individual features and socialization of violence within the community (Hastie, 2001).

Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (2003) recently reported of a systematic theoretical model to explain domestic violence occurrences. Their theory consists of an integration of psychological, social and feminist explanations to account for domestically violent behaviour in both men and women. Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (2003) have claimed that the interactive model (psychological, social and feminist explanations) to be “a valid foundation for working with men on their relationships and in perpetrator programs” (p. 28). What is essentially needed is a consistent agreement across professional groups as to why these people behave the way they do.

Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (2003) suggest the appropriate way to achieve this is for professionals to adopt the recently proposed systems model when explaining, preventing and responding to DVA. This may enable professions to achieve an integral and effective approach towards reducing partner violence occurrences. Compared to the extensive literature on male perpetrators of intimate abuse (eg; Dutton, 2002; Hamberger & Hastings, 1991; Holtzworth- Munroe et al. 1997), the literature on female perpetrators is scant.

Incidence and prevalence

Speaking up about DVA can be difficult. Many victims face substantial barriers to seeking help, or even acknowledging to themselves that they are in an abusive relationship. Victims can face emotional barriers – like low self-esteem, self-blame, fear, guilt, love and commitment – as well as practical, financial or physical barriers to extricating themselves from an abusive relationship.

Because of difficulty in disclosure, reporting and recording it is notoriously difficult to accurately measure the prevalence of abuse. The full extent of violence against women is difficult to estimate, as it continues to be under-reported and stigmatised, meaning that what gets reported is only a fraction of the reality. In Greece, 66 % of the population tend to trust the police (European Commission (2016). In EIGE’s Gender Equality Index 2015 it was found that where people tend to have more trust in justice institutions, levels of disclosed violence are higher according to European Institute for Gender Equality (2013). Yet there is no doubt that domestic abuse is shockingly commonplace in our society. Worldwide estimates find

almost a third of women have experienced abuse across their adult lifetime and 42% of these women sustained injuries (World Health Organisation, 2013).

Statistics from the USA (Centers for Disease Control and Department of Justice (NISVS), 2017; National Coalition Against Domestic Violence (NCADV) 2015, found that one in three women (35.6%) and one in four men (28.5%) had experienced some form of physical and/or sexual violence (including stalking) from an intimate partner sometime in their lives. One in five women (24.3%) and one in seven men (13.8%) had experienced some form of severe physical violence and 16.9% of women and 8% of men had been victims of sexual violence from an intimate partner sometime in their lives. In the USA, it was further estimated from 3,024 adult self-reports that over a quarter of children (27.5%) encounter this domestic violence in their families, as those who admitted having hit their partner also reported to have hit their child. (Klevens et al. 2012).

Women are more likely to be affected by all types of abuse and are at significantly higher risk of serious harm, with 81 female homicides perpetrated through partners or ex-partners recorded from April 2014 to March 2015 in England and Wales, as compared to 19 male deaths during this period (ONS, 2016).

The Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW) estimates that around 4.8 million women and 2.2 million men aged 16 to 59 years (from approximately 16.6 million women and 16.6 million men) experienced some form of domestic abuse in the year ending March 2018, with women (28.9%) more than twice as likely than men (13.2%) to have been victimised since age 16 (ONS, 2018).

One of the few victim surveys carried out in Greece, more than a decade earlier, found 3.6% of women reported physical violence, 3.5% reported sexual violence and 56% reported experiencing verbal and emotional abuse from their male intimate partners. It was suggested that only a few of these domestic abuse incidents are reported to the police (Artinopoulou, 2006) from approximately 4 million adult women (aged 16 to 59) that live in Greece. Indeed, only 13,700 cases of domestic violence (overwhelmingly against women) were recorded by the Greek police—between 2013 and 2017 (Greek police official statistics). By contrast, in 2014/15, the police service in England and Wales received, on average, over 100 domestic abuse related calls an hour and domestic abuse related crime represented 10 per cent of all recorded crime

(HMIC, 2015). While many incidents of domestic abuse will go unreported to the police, for victims seeking criminal justice intervention the police are usually the first agency of contact.

These numbers may not be representative of women or men who are victims of DVA due to the fact that many victims underreport or fail to report incidents of domestic violence to the police due to social stigma, embarrassment, fear of disbelief and the consequences for the children (Dutton 1998, 2002). Men may have a greater disadvantage because of the traditional view that men cannot (or possibly, should not) be victims of domestic abuse (Dutton & Nicholls 2005; Carney et al., 2007; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Shuler, 2010). Johnson (2012) states outright that "The number of cases involving male victims may be underreported because of difficulties faced by male victims such as, men feel they would be treated as less of a man, because a woman abused them; feel that the criminal justice system won't believe they were abused; and limited resources for male victims of domestic violence" (p. 18). However, other sources argue that the rate of male DVA victims is often inflated due to inclusion of self-defense by women as a form of DVA (Johnson & Ferraro., 2000; Dobash et al, 1992).

Nevertheless, all victims of domestic abuse ought to be able to access support to manage their relationship, keep themselves safe, exercise their rights to their property, children, and access to justice and to rebuild their lives. Some of this support can be provided by friends and family, but some relies on specialist services and state structures.

Domestic Violence and Gender

As domestic violence awareness increased in society, women became identified as the victim. Campaigns were directed towards women as the victims of domestic violence (Wallace, 2014). Many websites including the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence (NCADV) display pictures of women as the victims of DVA on their home page.

However, victimization through DVA doesn't pertain to only one section of the population; it can happen to anyone, including men (McNeely, Cook, & Torres, 2001). While male victims of DVA have been reported as far back as the 1970s and 1980s, the focus was predominantly on women as the exclusive victims of DVA (Douglas et al. 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2009; McNeely et al., 2001; Nicholls & Dutton, 2001; Tsui, 2014).

Straus and Gelles (1986) stated "Violence by wives has not been an object of public concern. There has been no publicity, and no funds have been invested in ameliorating this problem

because it has not been defined as a problem" (p. 472). McNeely et al. (2001) stated "...most reports appearing in the popular press, and in scholarly journals, have framed the issue as essentially a masculine form of assaultive behavior, thereby embedding into the national consciousness a false and inaccurate view of the problem" (p. 228). They go on to assert that, "...popular view of domestic violence not only contributes to men's increasing legal and social defenselessness, it also leads to social policies that obstruct efforts to address the problem of domestic violence successfully" (McNeely et al., 2001, p. 228).

Awareness regarding DVA has identified and targeted men as perpetrators of DVA (McNeely et al., 2001; Tsui, 2014). For instance, research shows that the words "domestic violence" produce two particular images for the majority of the population: the first of a traditional marriage consisting of a husband and wife and the other of women as the victim of DVA and men as the perpetrator (Wallace, 2014). As a result of the awareness of DVA exclusively around women as victims of DVA, men have become an unrecognized, and therefore underserved, as victims of DVA.

To date, most studies on DVA have focused on the victimization of women and girls rather than their male counterparts. This is due to the fact that a greater proportion of women report experiencing DVA; Female victims in the USA accounted for 84.3% of spouse abuse reports and 85.9% of boy/girlfriend violence reports between 1998 and 2002 (Durose et al., 2005). It is claimed that Male-perpetrated DVA is more injurious for women and results in more severe short and long term consequences (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Therefore, women are also more likely to be killed as a result of DVA. In 2004, 32.7% of female homicide victims were killed by an intimate partner, whereas, only 3.1% of male homicides were committed by female intimate partners in the USA (U.S. Department of Justice, 2006).

In previous research involving the North East of England the vast majority of DVA perpetrators recorded by the police were found to be men (92%) and their victims mainly female (91%). Many more repeat incidents were also recorded for male rather than for female perpetrators (Hester et al. 2006). This pattern has been found to be typical in police records across many areas of the UK and reflects the greater impact on women of such abuse. (Hester & Westmarland 2006; Hester et al., 2008).

However, research does provide evidence that women aggress against non-abusive male partners. For example; Straus and Gelles (1995) found that in couples reporting spousal violence, 27% of the time the man struck the first blow; in 24% of cases, the woman initiated the violence. The rest of the time (49%), the violence was mutual, with both partners brawling. In addition, Lewis, Travea, and Fremouw (2002) assessed variables associated with female violence in dating relationships in a sample of 300 college students in the USA. They found that 69% of the young women were in non-violent relationships, 16% of the women engaged in bi-directional violence, 7% of the women were the sole perpetrators of abuse on their partner and 8% were victims only.

In the USA, a large National representative survey also indicated that both men and women in heterosexual relationships may perpetrate DVA. In 2010, the Centers for Disease Control and Department of Justice (NISVS) carried out a national random-digit-dial (RDD) telephone survey of the non-institutionalized English and/or Spanish-speaking adults aged 18 or older. The USA survey was conducted in all 50 states and the District of Columbia (from 22 January to 31 December 2010). A total of 18,049 interviews were conducted (9,970 women and 8,079 men); 45.2% using a landline and 54.8% using a mobile phone. In all, 9,086 females and 7,421 males completed the survey. The survey found that 1 in 17 (5.9%) of women and 1 in 20 (5.0%) of men had experiences physical and/or sexual violence (including stalking) in the past 12 months from an intimate partner or ex-partner. No significant differences in gender were observed, except that women were more often forced into penetrative sex (rape) more often than men as a form of sexual violence.

In the past two decades, empirical and theoretical reviews (Archer, 2000, 2002; Dutton, 1998; Ehrensaft et al., 2004; Felson., 2002; Fiebert, 2004, 2012; George, 1999, 2003; Melton & Belknap, 2003; Nicholls & Dutton, 2001; Straus, 1999) have examined female perpetration of psychological and physical violence in intimate relationships. This research has provided substantial evidence that the rates of victimization and perpetration are similar among men and women in intimate relationship and demonstrated a degree of acceptance by women of aggression against men (Straus & Murray, 2006).

Fiebert (2004, 2012) compiled an annotated bibliography of research relating to spousal abuse by women on men. This bibliography examines 275 scholarly investigations: 214 empirical studies and 61 reviews and/or analyses that appear to demonstrate that women are as physically

aggressive, in their relationships with their spouses or male partners. The aggregate sample size in the reviewed studies exceeds 365,000. In a *Los Angeles Times*, Fiebert (2012) states that "...consensus in the field is that women are as likely as men to strike their partner but that—as expected—women are more likely to be injured than men". However, he noted, men are seriously injured in 38% of the cases in which "extreme aggression" is used. Fiebert additionally noted that his work was not meant to minimize the serious effects of men who abuse women.

However, the survey tools used to measure relevant aspects of DVA (e.g., conflict tactics scale) have been criticised (Jones, et al. 2017) and the use of disparate samples in studies has led to mixed findings (Chan, Ko Ling (2011). Kimmel (2001) points out that most of the empirical studies that Fiebert reviewed used the same empirical measure of family conflict, i.e., the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) and that many of the studies use samples composed entirely of unmarried people younger than 30. The Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2 – Straus, 2007) have been used for decades to evaluate violence within families and intimate relationships. The strengths are: Firstly, they take only a few minutes to administer (in a self-report or interview format). Secondly, they target specific actions and do not require the respondent to recognize their own behavior as violent. Thirdly, they can be completed by one partner or by both partners separately. However, there are serious limitations to the CTS/CTS2: Firstly, there is reporting bias because it depends on asking people to accurately remember and report what happened during the past year. Men tend to under-estimate their use of violence, while women tend to over-estimate their use of violence. Simultaneously men tend to over-estimate their partner's use of violence while women tend to under-estimate their partner's use of violence. Thus, men may over-estimate their victimization, while women may underestimate theirs. Secondly, the CTS/CTS2 does not measure control, coercion, or the motives for conflict tactics and does not determine who initiated the violence or what were the consequences of each violent act.

Research studies that considered the consequences of the intimate partner violence found that the severity of violence and resulting harm was most often minor for men and more serious for women with some researchers claiming that a significant proportion of violence from women is self-defense (eg; Johnson and Ferraro, 2000). Echoing this gender distinction regarding the impacts of DVA, men tend not to report partner abuse to the police because they consider DVA incidents "*too trivial or not worth reporting*". Hester et al (2006) said: "Both men and women can be violent, but there are significant differences in the way men and women use violence

and abuse against their partners and also the impact of such behaviour". In a review of the research, Kimmel (2001) found that violence is instrumental in maintaining control and that more than 90% of "systematic, persistent, and injurious" violence is perpetrated by men.

Hence there are few services available to male victims of intimate partner violence. The relationship between gender and DVA is still a controversial topic. There continues to be debate about the rates at which each gender is subjected to DVA and whether abused men should be provided the same resources and shelters that exist for female victims. According to some researchers the problem is that advocates and service providers for victims of DVA have largely ignored or rejected evidence of male victims. This may be because it is at odds with their experiences in the shelters, hospitals, and courts. Male violence does more damage than female violence (Vivian, & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 1994) with women are more likely to be injured and/or hospitalized and women in general are more likely to be killed by their spouses than by all other types of assailants combined (Browne and Kirk 1989; Browne and Herbert, 1997; Aldridge and Browne, 2003). Advocates also fear that recognition of male victims would dilute society's focus on and funding of services and education for battered women and their children (Pleck, et al. 1978)

Arrest Policies

More recently, both men and women have been arrested and convicted of assaulting their partners in both heterosexual and homosexual relationships. Most of these arrests have been men being arrested for assaulting women. Nevertheless, during the past two decades the number of women arrested in the USA has increased significantly, which is often attributed to the implementation of "Must Arrest" policies. Mandatory arrest policies may also result in outcomes that cause several adverse social and health outcomes for the victim, such as financial hardship, household disruption, loss of employment, and loss of custody of children (Haviland, et al. 2001; Hirschel & Buzawa, 2002). Although women are the presumed victims in most domestic disputes, in mandatory arrest jurisdictions there has been a measurable rise in arrests of women, with increases estimated to be between 4% and 30%, across the States (Jones & Belknap, 1999). A notable increase in the number of dual arrests, in which women are being arrested along with their male partners, has also been observed (Hirschel & Buzawa, 2002; Jones & Belknap, 1999; Martin, 1997; Miller 2000). However, the gender neutrality of the enforcement of domestic violence laws remains questionable (Young 1998).

In some countries, it is claimed that Government support agencies, law enforcement and the judicial system have created a social injustice for men experiencing DVA. For example, in the Netherlands men who are victims feel isolated and don't know where to seek information for support, "...it is remarkable that society is still not adapted to offer men the same services as women" (Drijber et al, 2013, p. 178). Similarly, in Canada, Nicholls and Dutton (2001) stated "We propose that social service providers are doing female perpetrators, male victims, and their children a disservice by neglecting the 'other side of domestic abuse' " (p. 53). There is a need to explore these issues in Greece.

The Greek Context

There are two key problems concerning criminal law and Domestic Abuse (DVA) in Greece (Obessi, 2008). First, criminal law may be seen as being more concerned with punishing the offender rather than helping the victim. Second, many people, such as neighbors, may be reluctant to become involved in what may be seen as a private matter between partners, and in some parts of the world the police are still cautious about intervening in DVA incidents resulting from intimate partner disputes.

In 2006, Greek legislation (Law 3500), established that violence occurring within the family is a criminal act and should be treated as an inherent offense. An inherent offense signifies that Public Authorities, from the moment they receive any sort of notification regarding such an offense (for example, an anonymous written or oral statement, or an account from a neighbour, teacher, social worker, etc.), are mandated to begin to investigate the incident and possibly proceed to an arrest, even if there is no formal report placed by the victim(s) (Chatzifotiou et al., 2014).

As public awareness of violence between intimate partners has grown, so has criticism on the manner in which police respond to the issue. Many believe that police don't take domestic violence calls seriously as police intervention is deemed to be a family matter. However, police are important authority figures and are the first point of contact when violence occurs, they should see it as priority and respond in a timely manner to stop domestic abuse. In Greece, there is still a difference regarding the way police treat male and female victims. It is suggested that the police are more likely to label domestic violence or DVA, as unlawful when there is evidence of a male rather than female perpetrator (Chatzifotiou, S., Fotou, E., and Moisides, I. (2016)

Thesis aims and objectives

In Greece, there is little consensus with respect to the role of gender in police response to DVA. Responding to DVA effectively requires an analysis of the influence of gender on police and professional responses to victim reports. Therefore, the aim of the Thesis is to identify the influence of gender of victims and offenders on police and professionals dealing with DVA in Greece and the impact that their responses have on victims.

Structure of the Thesis and Rationale:

Chapter 1 introduced the topic of DVA; the definition, theoretical explanations, incidence and prevalence and gender influences, followed by the above aims for the research. The rationale for the research was to explore police and professional responses to victim's DVA reports in order to develop a questionnaire to investigate the experiences of victims and the impact of the gender of the victim. Furthermore, to determine the characteristics of victims who remain in their abusive relationships (AR) following police and professional intervention.

Chapter 2 presents a systematic literature review, carried out in 2018, used to explore the international literature, published in English on police responses to male and female victims of DA and the types of intervention police use in relation to a reported incident. Earlier in 2015, a scoping exercise using the same protocol found a paucity of quantitative research literature on professional responses. Consequently, a planned questionnaire study of Greek police was extended to ascertain the responses of professionals. The contents of the questionnaire to police and professionals was influenced by the findings of the systematic review.

Chapter 3 presents an empirical quantitative study based on a questionnaire responses from police officers. The aim of this study is to investigate the role of gender in DVA, as recognized by police in Greece and comparing their responses for female and male victims. The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of Police officers who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded and responded to. This information was used to design a questionnaire for victims on their experiences and to compare these experiences in relation to gender.

Chapter 4 presents an empirical quantitative study based on the same questionnaire as chapter three, adapted for use with professionals who work with DVA victims through advice and support agencies. A paucity of research was identified in the scoping exercise for the systematic literature review. Hence, the Study aims to explore professionals' recognition of gender issues

in relation to DVA in Greece and comparing their responses for female and male victims. The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of Professionals who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded and responded to. This information was also used to design a questionnaire for victims on their experiences and to compare these experiences in relation to gender.

Chapter 5 compares the differences and similarities in Police and Professionals' responses to the questionnaire. The aim of this investigation was to compare police and professional responses towards female and male victims of DVA and whether opinions and attitudes to DVA victims are the same in both police and professionals in Greece and whether they are 'gender neutral'. The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of both Police officers and professionals who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded and responded to.

Chapter 6 takes a victim perspective, and female and male victims are asked to give their opinions on their experiences of police response to DVA calls. This was a quantitative study of answers to a questionnaire designed with reference to information derived from police and professional's responses to female and male victims in Chapters 3 and 4. This was to evaluate the influence of gender on police and professional responses to DVA victims and the offenders, from a victim perspective. The aim of the Study was to investigate the differences in police response between (a) female and male victim experiences and (b) parents with children in the house and other adults with no children at home.

Chapter 7 is another empirical quantitative study based on a questionnaire and aims to explore differences between female and male victims of DVA on factors related to staying in or leaving an abusive relationship. This was informed by the previous chapter 6, which found that police and professional interventions did not always result in the victim separating and living apart from the offender. The goal of this study was to determine if Greek female and male victims of DVA differ in the factors, and reasons, they report about staying or leaving a DVA relationship. Demographic variables, feelings of fear, self-blame, low self-esteem, depression, learned helplessness, family and friend networks and the role of children were explored.

Chapter 8 statistically explores the significant differences between those who stay and those who leave an abusive relationship, inferred from responses to the questionnaire used in Chapter 7, with the aim of developing a checklist of factors that can predict the probability of staying in an abusive relationship at risk of further violence. It presents an actuarial tool for use by

police and professionals to identify victims who place themselves at further risk of harm by remaining in an abusive relationship.

The final chapter of this thesis, chapter 9, provides an overview of the overall findings of this thesis and discusses the limitations of the research. It compares and contrasts the police view of their responses to female and male victims with the reported experiences of those victims in Greece. It discusses the way children are caught up in DVA and the implications for police responses. This chapter provides a summary of the practical implications and limitations that can be drawn from this thesis and aims to help and inform professionals who works with victims and offenders of DVA in their future development. In this chapter the limitation of the research is also considered and recommendations for future research are presented.

Chapter 2:

Police Responses to male and female victims of Domestic Violence and Abuse:

A Systematic Literature Review

Abstract

Background: The extent and nature of domestic violence and abuse (DVA) remains a concern to police and other professionals. A core part of the police and other professionals work is to prevent and reduce DVA . However, the effectiveness of their interventions has not been systematically explored. **Aims:** This systematic literature review aims to explore police and professionals responses to male and female victims of DVA and types of intervention police and other professionals use in relation to each of these incidents and the influence of gender on their responses. **Method:** Five bibliographic databases were systematically searched to identify quantitative research studies which defined DVA and measured police and/or professional responses to victims and offenders. After applying inclusion criteria; 1) the study population should be adults both males and females; 2) individuals in the exposure group would have experienced DVA at least once; 3) Individuals should have report the DVA incident to the police or any other support agency; 4) the outcome measures should include police reaction to the victims call for help; 5) The included literature should be a primary quantitative study. Initial searching identified 638 titles and after removing studies that did not meet the inclusion criteria and duplicates, 26 papers were reviewed and assessed for quality. However, no studies quantitatively assessed professional interventions and 26 studies reported only police responses to DVA victims and their outcomes. **Results:** Despite the heterogeneity of the 26 studies similar factors were found to influence police interventions. Four or more of the studies identified victim factors as; gender of victim female, cohabiting with abusive partner, severity of injury and victim under the influence of alcohol or drugs. Four or more of the studies identified offender factors as; gender of offender male, severity of incident, use of weapon and offender under the influence of alcohol or drugs. Overall, it was observed that male offenders were arrested more often than female offenders. Women were more likely to be arrested if they were intoxicated and/or had used a weapon. **Conclusion:** Evidence from the review showed on average female victims represent 86.2% and male victims represent 17.3% of DVA incident reports to the police. Of these, 63.2% of male offenders and 11.5% of female offenders were arrested. It is asserted that further DVA training is required, as police responses to men appear to be affected by the perceptions and assumptions related to male and female gender stereotypes.

Key words: Domestic violence and abuse, male and female victims, police officers, gender differences

Police Responses to male and female victims of Domestic Violence and Abuse:

A Systematic Literature Review

Introduction:

Rationale

This Systematic Literature Review was undertaken to identify and explore literature relevant to understanding police and professional responses to victims who experience domestic violence and abuse (DVA). The intention is that the information be used as a reference point for future research and policy development on appropriate interventions, so that society is better able to meet the needs of victims who experience domestic abuse, the needs of their children their family and friends.

Definition

This review uses the term DVA meaning ‘domestic abuse’ (except when directly quoting). This follows the 2012 UK cross-government definition of ‘domestic violence and abuse’ that was developed to encompass both physical and psychological aspects of abuse (including controlling and coercive behaviour) for all intimate and romantic partners aged 16 years or more. This new 2012 cross-government definition of DVA involves all family members regardless of gender or sexuality and is quoted as:

“Any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive or threatening behaviour, violence or abuse between those aged 16 or over who are or have been intimate partners or family members regardless of gender or sexuality.” This can encompass psychological, physical, sexual, financial and emotional abuse” (Home office, 2012; House of Commons, 2018).

It is worth noting that this definition refers to either “adults” or “those aged 16 or over”, and therefore do not cover abuse against children.

Understanding of Domestic Abuse

Over the last few decades, understanding of the nature and causes of domestic abuse (DVA) have increased in sophistication. During the last years, DVA has become recognized as a key public policy issue in all over the world. The costs to society are vast and poorly understood. In a 2010 study, economists calculated that the average cost of a single assault in the US

amounted to \$240,776 when the following factors were considered: The victim's injuries, suffering and medical costs, victim's lost work and productivity, judicial system and legal expenses. In addition, the incarcerated offender's lost work and productivity, judicial system and legal expenses. In the UK, the estimated cost of DVA to the society is approximately £66 billion every year (Heeks *et al.*, 2018).

When DVA was first recognized as an issue of societal significance in the 1970s, it was conceptualized and described as a quite homogenous offence perpetrated by a homogenous group of offenders (Capaldi & Kim 2007; Dixon & Browne 2003). In the traditional scenario, a male offender victimized their female partner in order to control and dominate her. He perpetrated a series of violent and abusive acts that escalated in severity and frequency over the course of the relationship (Cavanaugh & Gelles 2005). Traditional understandings of DVA have focused on relationship 'dysfunction' and why women 'choose' to stay in relationships with their violent partners (Boxall, et al. 2015). In more recent years, research has highlighted the extent to which DVA occurs in less traditional contexts like male victims and reciprocal abuse.

Responding to DVA effectively requires an analysis of DVA that incorporates gender and an understanding that not all DVA incidents are the same. Differences in frequency, severity, purpose, and outcome are all significant, depending on the type of DVA. Among women's rights advocates, there are those who adhere to the conviction that all DVA is men battering women. This has limited the assessment of risk to children by mothers and the development of couple treatment programs that may address problems of reciprocal violence between intimate partners (Dixon & Browne, 2006).

In fact, the Office for National Statistics (ONS) in the UK have demonstrated that men can be victims as well, according to the Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW). The ONS reported in the year ending 31st March 2019 that, for people aged 16 to 59 years of age, women were more likely to experience DVA than men during the past year (8.4% compared with 4.2%). Police reports from England and Wales showed 75% of victims of DVA related crimes were female but 25% of victims were male.

In 2000, John Archer conducted a meta-analysis of eighty-two DVA studies. He found that "women were slightly more likely than men to use one or more acts of physical aggression and to use such acts more frequently. Men were more likely to inflict an injury, and overall, 62% of those injured by a partner were women" (Archer, 2000). In 1997, a review of the literature

by psychologist Martin Fiebert, identified 79 empirical studies and 16 reviews of literature that demonstrated gender symmetry among couples. According to Fiebert, “Women stated that they expressed aggression toward their male partners in part because they wished to engage their partner's attention, particularly emotionally. Also assaultive women did not believe that their male victims would be seriously injured or would retaliate” (Fiebert 1997 pp. 1). By contrast, the U.S. Department of Justice finds that women make up 84% of DVA victims (*Bureau of Justice Statistics, U.S. Department of Justice. 2015*).

As both Fiebert and Archer point out, although the results findings of physical acts in these studies have identified similar rates of DVA amongst men and women and high rates of bi-directionality, there is general agreement amongst researchers that male violence is a more serious phenomenon, because male violence tends to cause more psychological and physical damage than female violence (Vivian & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 1994; Young, 2005). Male violence produces injury at roughly six times the rate of female violence (Gelles & Straus, 1988). Furthermore, women are also more likely to be killed by their male partners than the reverse. Indeed, the US Bureau of Justice Statistics (2015) report 84% of spouse murder victims are female and women in general are more likely to be killed by their spouses than all other types of offenders combined (Browne, et al. 1989). In relation to this, Murray A. Straus has written "although women may assault their partners at approximately the same rate as men, because of the greater physical, financial, and emotional injury suffered by women, they are the predominant victims. Consequently, the priority in services for victims and in prevention and control must continue to be directed toward assaults by husbands". (Straus, 1997, p219).

Domestic Abuse Reports to the Police

Police are usually the first “formal” service that victims of DVA contact, in order to ask for help (Apsler et al., 2003). Consequently, the way in which police handle an incident can be closely connected to a range of subsequent outcomes. These include a victim’s willingness to seek help for future incidents of violence, their behaviours, and attitudes towards the justice system, and longer-term safety and protection from violence (Lila et al., 2013; Logan et al., 2006)

Historically, the police disregarded DVA as a private and family matter (Berk, et al. 1983; Browne, 1995; Dobash & Dobash, 1979; LaFree, 1981), and had taken “a do-nothing approach” by just “cooling off” the offender (Roberts & Kurst- Swanger, 2002, p. 103). More

recently DVA has been recognized as a crime in most economically developed countries, the police moved from the traditional passive approach to DVA into taking a more active role in controlling it. On arriving at a reported DVA incident, the police are expected to arrest the offender if necessary and provide victims with emergency aid and relevant information. Major intervention strategies by the police include warrantless arrest which have increased arrest rates up to 70% from 1984 to 1989 following the implementation of pro-arrest policies (Baumer, et al. 2003).

It can be argued that the police, courts and social services are the key agencies to determine the fate of victims of DVA. An impartial attitude by staff from these agencies, may encourage more people to report DVA, regardless of their gender. However, the attitude of some staff towards men seems to render male victimization invisible. It is alleged that police often do not come to know of the abuse that men face (Dempsey 2013). However, Hines and Douglas (2009) suggest that underreporting occurs within the male victim population because men do not necessarily recognize abusive behaviors as being abusive.

The Crime Survey for England and Wales (Office for National Statistics, 2018) asked victims, who told the police about DVA ‘how satisfied they were with the outcome’ and ‘whether they felt safer as a result’. Over half, were either very satisfied (25.2%) or satisfied (32.7%) with their experience. Just over a third (38.3%) felt safer as a result of the action, while a quarter felt less safe (26.6%). Respondents were also asked what actions were taken by the police. The police took some sort of action in nearly two thirds of cases. The most common action taken by the police was to warn the offender (42.6%) or arrest the offender (22.3%). In 13.4% of cases the offender was charged.

Similarly, the Scottish Crime Survey 2000 (Scottish Office, 2000) asked individuals whose partners had used force against them in the preceding 12 months about whether the police became aware of it (Gadd, 2002; Gadd et al, 2002). It was found that 16% of male victims and 47% of female victims affirmed that the police were aware of at least one incident. It was estimated that “less than one in six incidents of victimisation against male victims had been reported to the police, compared to one in two incidents against female victims” (Gadd, 2002; Gadd et al, 2002).

A study completed by Drijber (2013) in the Netherlands, attempted to identify what barriers to seeking help existed for 372 male victims of DVA. She found that less than a third (32%) had approached the police and only half of these men (15%) had an official report. For the two

thirds of men who had *not* approached the police, the most frequent reason was ‘they were afraid that the police would not believe them’ (p.173). Over a decade earlier, the fear of not being believed by the police and the fact men cope with DVA alone without help was evident from a Survey conducted for a UK television documentary on ‘Husband abuse’ (Channel 4 Dispatches) by Professor Kevin Browne at the University of Birmingham in 1998. According to Dagnal (2006), some men hesitate to report to the police because they fear that the police may ridicule them and Macklin (1995) observed that male victims lack faith in the police’s impartiality and their ability to acknowledge them as victims of abuse. The attitudes of the police, whether deliberate or unintentional, are one of the reasons that men are unlikely to report DVA (Donovan, 2006).

According to research on male and female victims of DVA, men and women who have been assaulted by their intimate partners, either in same sex partner or heterosexual relationships, do not want to disclose their problems (Frierson, 2014, Hogan, 2016; Simmons, et al. 2016; Tsui, et al. 2010). Studies report that the personal reasons that so many cases go unreported for both men and women include embarrassment, fear of retaliation and economic dependency. The societal reasons that so many cases go unreported for both men and women include privacy of the family and victim blaming attitudes (Garcia 2004).

Going beyond the police, Muller et al. (2009) reported for 157 temporary restraining order requests from a California district court, “judges were almost 13 times more likely to grant a Temporary Restraining Order (TRO) requested by a female DVA victim compared with a male victim”. However, this difference may be explained by the lower levels of physical violence shown by the female offenders.

Previous research on police responses in the UK by Edwards (1991) noted that the severity of the injury was an important consideration, but by no means a guarantee of arrest. Edwards found that the most important factor for determining whether an offender was arrested was the willingness of the victim to press charges.

Nevertheless, when men attempt to report violence by their female partner, the police may label it as a “counter allegation”. Stitt and Macklin (1995) found that on the few occasions when unreciprocated violence by a woman was reported to the police, the male victim instead of the female perpetrator was arrested.

Within the criminal justice approach in England, it is recognized that the police may be faced with conflicting accounts and counter allegations of domestic violence from the two parties involved and previous case analyses has identified that the English police were at times arresting both parties (Stanko, 1989, p. 52). Nevertheless, police, courts and social services may show bias toward the female in an abusive partnership because female victims report to the police more frequently than male victim reports. Indeed, male victims represent only 5.9% of cases referred to the UK police compared to 10.9% of women.

In the year ending March 2018, the Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW) estimated that that women were around four times as likely as men to have experienced sexual assault by a partner in the last year (0.4% compared with 0.1%) and nine times as likely to have experienced it since the age of 16 years (6.3% compared with 0.7%).

Hines et al. (2007, 2009) suggest that some women may take advantage of the bias and describe how abusive women often claim self-defense because they know society may believe them rather than their male partner. This may be used as a threat by some female abusers, which may prevent men from reporting (Kernsmith, 2005).

Background to the current SLR

This Systematic Review explores the evidence of male and female DVA victimization and reciprocal aggression and if there is any difference between types of police intervention for men and women as victims and offenders of DVA.

A first attempt to Systematic literature Review this area was made by Poteyeva and Sun (2009) in the USA. In their paper, focusing on quantitative studies, they reviewed 33 articles where police officers' gender used as independent or control variable in multivariate regression analysis. 1990 – 2006. The reviewed articles examined some common attitudinal dimensions, including police officers' attitudes toward (1) police role, (2) community policing, (3) the community and neighborhood residents, (4) job satisfaction, (5) stress, and (6) domestic violence.

They investigated if officer's gender was related with the above attitudes and whether responses to domestic violence was influenced by the gender of the police officer. The overarching finding was that officer gender had a very modest effect on attitudinal patterns of police officers. The assumption that females bring to the force a distinctly different set of attitudes was largely not supported by empirical evidence generated in their included studies.

When a male or female police officer attends an incident, s/he must decide what action to take in relation to the victim and offender (e.g.: No further action; Ensuring children are safe; Arresting the offender; Charging the offender; Prosecuting the offender). The primary responsibility of the police officer is to investigate whether a crime has been committed, based on the presenting situation. The safety of the victim and the appropriateness of an arresting the offender are important considerations during the investigation. As Wadham (1998) suggests: “As gatekeepers to the criminal justice system the police occupy a quasi-judicial role, selecting potential offenders, deciding on guilt and imposing punishment” (cited in Poyser, 2004, p.26).

Aims and Objectives

This Chapter aims to systematically review and quantitatively investigate the relationship between the gender of DVA victims and offenders and police and professionals’ responses to DVA incidents.

Methods:

A protocol (unpublished) was produced before the commencement of the review and detailed the following information:

Inclusion/exclusion criteria

Population: Adults Professionals (Police, social work, lawyers) dealing with DVA.

The review considers studies that refer to incidents of DVA and include responses of police officers and other professionals that work with adult victims and/or offenders. The aim is to investigate police and professional reactions to women and men aged 18 years and above as victims and offenders of DVA. The decision to exclude adolescents age 16-17 was taken due to them not being regarded as adults and that police and professional responses are based on safeguarding their rights as a child (UNCRC, 1989), which may differ to interventions with adults.

Exposure: Male Victims/Offenders of domestic violence and abuse (DVA). Studies that research Police Responses to Intimate Partner Violence or domestic violence within the above definition are to be included in the review. There are no exclusions made based on how the abuse status was established.

Comparisons: Female Victims/Offenders of domestic violence and abuse (DVA).

Outcome: Police and Professional Responses to DVA victims (In relation to gender of offender, gender of victim, severity of offence, children present). The publications must include some indicator of disclosure of DVA to the police and police and professional's response to victims and their offender (cases, vignettes or questionnaires). Studies that do not include an investigation of police responses to a disclosure of DVA are excluded.

Notes Responses = Types of Intervention (e.g.: No further action; Interviewing victim; Interview with offender; Attend the Domestic environment; Insuring children are safe; Arresting the offender; Charging the offender; Prosecute the offender; Caution the offender; Interviewing witnesses; Collecting forensic evidence).

Study types: Like the systematic review carried out by Poteyeva and Sun (2009), quantitative studies of police officer's attitudes and opinions (using structured and semi-structured questionnaires) are reviewed. In addition, DVA case referrals, DVA victim reports and victim surveys that report cohort, case-control and cross-sectional designs are included in this review. Due the large number of poor qualitative studies and single-case descriptions in the area of DVA, which often express opinions and views in the absence of evidence, qualitative designs are excluded along with previous reviews, books, opinion papers, editorials and commentaries.

Search Strategy

An international systematic search of the literature published in English is used in order to identify studies between 1st January 1970 until 31st December 2018 that examine police and professional responses to DVA with reference to both male and female offenders and victims in same sex and opposite sex couples. The relationship between gender of DVA victims reports and police and professional responses is investigated. A start date of 1970 is chosen after considering the following statement: "In the Journal of Marriage and the Family, the major scholarly journal in family sociology, no article on family violence appeared from its founding in 1939 until 1969" (Pleck, 1987, p. 182).

The review considers only quantitative studies (including observational research designs) that address the relationship between the gender of the DVA victim, the gender of the DVA offender and police and/or professional responses/interventions.

The following bibliographic databases and thesis portals were searched by the first author on the 25th of January 2019: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts (ASSIA), Medline, Psych Articles, Psych Info, DART, E-Thesis. Search terms were drawn from available

literature including previous meta-analyses and expanded within electronic databases to identify potential synonyms or useful related terms (see Appendix 1). Dissertation abstracts were searched with the aim of reducing publication bias. In order to identify all relevant literature, reference lists of relevant papers were also hand searched and two experts in the field of DVA and police interventions consulted (Prof. Kevin Browne and Dr Louise Dixon).

The following search terms were used to capture main themes:

Population inclusive terms: "police*" OR "law enforcement" OR "constable" OR "constabulary" OR "police personnel" OR "social worker" OR "psychologist" OR "counsellor" OR "therapist" OR "clinician" OR "lawyer" OR "solicitor" OR "barrister" OR "attorney" OR "psychiatrist" OR "psychotherapist"

Violence inclusive terms: "domestic violence" OR "intimate partner violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "spousal abuse" OR "spousal assault" OR "battered woman" OR "partner abuse"

Victims' inclusive terms: "gender" or "gender differences" or "male victims" or "male offenders" or "female offenders" or "male perpetrator" or "female perpetrator" or "sex differences"

Data collection process

Study data were extracted using a pre-defined pro-forma. The following data items were extracted from each study:

- Authors, Year, location
- Population and total sample size
- Sources of data.
- Group sizes (if applicable)
- Main comparator (independent variable)
- Outcome variable
- Primary findings
- Additional findings

Data extraction was completed by the primary author, all studies were independently reviewed by a second assessor (Dr Kathleen Green) to assess inter-rater reliability using Cohen's Kappa, agreement was perfect with no discrepancies for data extraction (K=1.00).

Screening and Selecting

All the identified titles and abstracts have been screened for inclusion using the screening tool in Appendix 2. The following inclusion criteria had been applied: 1) the study population should be adults both male and females; 2) individuals in the exposure group would have experienced intimate partner violence at least once 3) Individuals should have report the incident to the police or any other support agency 4) the outcome measures should include police reaction to the victims call for help. 5) The included literature should be a primary quantitative study.

Data Extraction

The data extraction was carried out by the primary author using a customized data extraction tool (see Appendix 3). The tool was piloted on a subset of the included studies and modified if needed. The data extracted~~will~~ includes information about the participants, study methods, how DVA was defined and measured as well as outcomes of significance that are relevant to the review question. When papers in languages other than English were identified, they were excluded. In the event of missing data, the authors of the study were contacted. A minimum one-month timeframe was given for a reply. The data were entered tables for the purpose of analysis.

Data Synthesis

The review selection process is illustrated through a flow diagram (see Figure 1) and a narrative synthesis of the extracted data has been produced. This includes a description of study characteristics, quality and results. Where possible, analysis was grouped according to data that were available in the studies. Studies that carried out analyses of cases (C and S) provided data for the prevalence of male and female DVA victims, the prevalence of male and female DVA offenders and rates of arrest for men and women. In the studies that reported action taken by the police (C and P), risk factors that led to arrest were extracted and synthesized.

A meta-analysis was *not* carried out, due the heterogeneity of the included studies. No more than three studies with enough homogeneity was identified in terms of the population, design, exposure and outcome measures. The populations, outcome and exposure measures were not similar enough to incorporate into the same analysis and although the study quality was good

to average, weaknesses in study design were common and included lack of justification for sample size, unclear sampling strategies, lack of comparability between study groups, and no monitoring of the quality of extraction of data from criminal records. The current review included different categories of police responses to victims and a broad definition of domestic violence and abuse (Home office, 2012; House of Commons, 2018). Studies were also varied in which variable they treated as the independent (e.g. type of violence or police response).

Study selection

Initial searches identified 638 titles plus one paper added (Browne & Hamilton, 1999), after consulting experts. During the first part of scoping, 586 irrelevant titles and abstracts, books, and duplicates were excluded. A review of 53 retrieved articles resulted in 27 papers not meeting the inclusion criteria. The outcome was 26 papers to be included in quantitative synthesis and quality assessment (See Figure 2.1).

Results:

None of the 26 studies that met the inclusion criteria involved professional responses. All identified studies included in the synthesis described (at least partially) police responses to DVA victims (In relation to age and gender of offender, age and gender of victim, severity of offence, children present), and Types of Intervention (e.g.: No further action; Interviewing victim; Interview with offender; Attend the Domestic environment; Insuring children are safe; Arresting the offender; Charging the offender; Prosecute the offender; Caution the offender; Interviewing witnesses; Collecting forensic evidence).

As identified in Table 2.1, studies were identified from eight countries. Half of the studies (13 out of 26) were conducted in USA, followed by four in the UK, three in Canada, one in Australia, one in both Australia and USA, one in Sweden, one in Spain, one in Bosnia-Herzegovina and one in Taiwan.

The 26 selected studies involved 1 population survey (S), 11 police studies (P) and 14 studies of DVA cases (C), 9 with victim samples and 6 with offender samples, including both male and female participants. All the participants were adults. In the absence of papers on professional responses, this review was conducted to investigate police responses to male and female victims and offenders to identify potential differences in police attitudes that may influence their responses in relation to gender.

As expected, the definition and measurement of ~~domestic violence and abuse~~ (DVA) varied between studies, although almost all included experiences of physical or sexual abuse as indicators of DVA. Whilst dates of search started from 1970, all included studies were dated between 1985 and 2017.

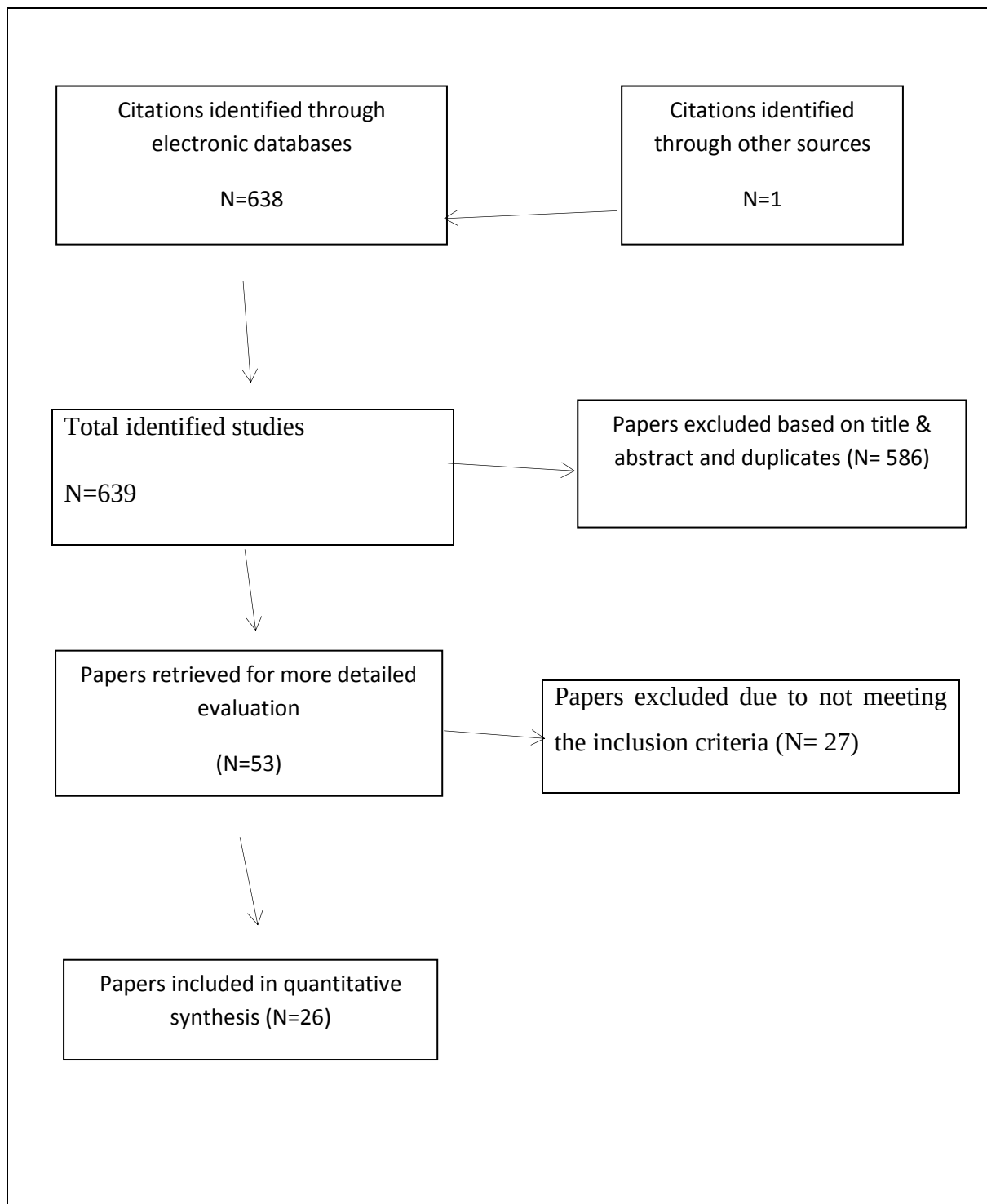
Quality Assessment (Table 2.1)

Quality Assessment in individual studies was conducted by using a predefined pro-forma (see Appendix 4). This pro-forma was designed to consider risk of bias both at the study level and at the outcome level, in line with the PRISMA guidelines for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009). The following information relating to potential sources of bias was recorded for all studies (see Table 2.1):

1. “Was the research question or objective in this paper clearly stated?
2. Was the study population clearly specified and defined?
3. Was the participation rate of eligible persons at least 50%?
4. Were all the subjects selected or recruited from the same or similar populations (including the same time period)? Were inclusion and exclusion criteria for being in the study pre-specified and applied uniformly to all participants?
5. Was a sample size justification, power description, or variance and effect estimates provided?
6. For the analyses in this paper, were the exposure(s) of interest measured prior to the outcome(s) being measured?
7. Was the timeframe sufficient so that one could reasonably expect to see an association between exposure and outcome if it existed?
8. For exposures that can vary in amount or level, did the study examine different levels of the exposure as related to the outcome (e.g., categories of exposure, or exposure measured as continuous variable)?

Figure 2.1

Details of the selection process.



9. Were the exposure measures (independent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?
10. Was the exposure(s) assessed more than once over time?
11. Were the outcome measures (dependent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?
12. Were the outcome assessors blinded to the exposure status of participants?
13. Was loss to follow-up after baseline 20% or less?
14. Were key potential confounding variables measured and adjusted statistically for their impact on the relationship between exposure(s) and outcome(s)”??

The quality assessment and risk of bias was completed by the primary author. All the studies were also independently reviewed by a second assessor (Dr Kathleen Green, D.Foren.Psy). Both reviewers agreed that 8 out of 26 articles were rated as “good”, with 8 or more positive responses to the above questions. Most other studies (n=16) had between 5 and 7 positive responses and were rated as “fair”. Two studies (S7p and S25c) were rated as “poor” as they only achieved 4 or less positive responses.

Table 2.1

Quality assessment of the reviewed studies (N=26): (NA= Not applicable, NR= Not reported, CD= Cannot determine)

No.	STUDY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
		“Was the research question or objective in this paper clearly stated?”	“Was the study population clearly specified and defined?”	“Was the participation rate of eligible persons at least 50%?”	“Were all the subjects selected or recruited from the same or similar populations (including the same time period)? Were inclusion and exclusion criteria for being in the study pre-specified and applied uniformly to all participants?”	“Was a sample size justification, power description, or variance and effect estimates provided?”	“For the analyses in this paper, were the exposure(s) of interest measured prior to the outcome(s) being measured?”	“Was the timeframe sufficient so that one could reasonably expect to see an association between exposure and outcome if it existed?”	“For exposures that can vary in amount or level, did the study examine different levels of the exposure as related to the outcome (e.g., categories of exposure, or exposure measured as continuous variable)?”	“Were the exposure measures (independent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?”	“Was the exposure(s) assessed more than once over time?”	“Were the outcome measures (dependent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?”	“Were the outcome assessors blinded to the exposure status of participants?”	“Was loss to follow-up after baseline 20% or less?”	“Were key potential confounding variables measured and adjusted statistically for their impact on the relationship between exposure(s) and outcome(s)?”
S1 P FAIR	Stewart & Maddren (1997). Australia	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	N/A	NO
S2 P GOOD	Muftić & Cruze (2014)	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	YES	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	Bosnia and Herzegovina														
S3 P FAIR	Gracia, Garcia, & Lila, (2014) Spain.	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NR	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	NO
S4 P FAIR	Sun & Chu (2010) Taiwan	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S5 P GOOD	Finn; & Stalans (1997) USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S6 P FAIR	Homant & Kennedy(1985) USA	YES	YES	NA	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S7 P POOR	McPhedran Gover & Mazerolle, (2017). USA Australia	YES	NO	CD	NO	NO	NA	NA	NA	YES	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO
S8 P FAIR	Andrews & Johnston	YES	YES	NA	NO	NO	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	N/A	YES

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	Miller, (2013) UK														
S9 P FAIR	Finn, Blackwell, Stalans, Studdard & Dugan (2004). USA	NO	YES	CD	YES	NO	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	NO
S10 C GOOD	Hester (2013) UK	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	NA	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NA	YES
S11 C GOOD	Browne, & Hamilton (1999) UK.	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S12 C FAIR	Millar & Brown (2010). Canada	NO	YES	YES	YES	NO	NA	NA	NA	YES	NO	YES	NO	N/A	NO
S13 C GOOD	Cho & Wilke (2010). USA	YES	YES	CD	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	CD	YES
S14 C FAIR	Buzawa & Austin (1993).	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	NA	YES	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	USA														
S15 C FAIR	Roark (2016). USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	NO	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S16 C GOOD	Storey & Strand (2017) Sweden	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S17 C FAIR	Danielle, Romain & Freiburger1 (2016). USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	NO	NA	NA	NA	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S18 S FAIR	MacQueen, & Norris (2016). UK	YES	YES	NA	YES	NO	NA	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	NO
S19 C FAIR	Dawson & Hotton (2014). Canada	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NA	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	NO
S20 P GOOD	Sun (2007) USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S21 P FAIR	Cormier & Woodworth (2008) Canada	YES	YES	CD	YES	YES	YES	NA	NA	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	NO

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S22 C FAIR	Durfee (2012) USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	YES	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NA	NA	NR
S23 C FAIR	Melissa Hamilton and Meredith G. F. Worthen (2011) USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S24 C FAIR	Ho 2003 USA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES
S25 C POOR	Worrall, J. L., Ross, J. W., & McCord, E. S. (2006). USA	NO	YES	CD	YES	NO	NO	NA	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	NO
S26 C GOOD	Jonathan LeeYan ZhangLarry T. Hoover(201 3) USA	YES	YES	NA	YES	YES	NO	NA	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO	NA	YES

Summary of the studies:

As summarised in Table 2.2, eleven out of 26 studies the study sampled police officers (S1p-S9p, S20p & S21p). Fourteen studies investigated DVA cases (victims and offenders) (S10c-S17c, S19c, S22c-S26c). The remaining study was a population survey from 16,009 private households in Scotland (S18s). Overall, 12.3% (n= 1975) of this population were involved in DVA incidents and 335 victims were investigated. Some of the 11 studies of police officers obtained responses related to perceived rates of DVA incidents (S8p), decisions about arrest and gender differences (S7p,S9p), judgements of blame (S1p), police attitudes toward women and policing DV (S2p), law enforcement (S3p), police officers' perceptions of handling domestic violence (S4p), and police involvement in DV incidents (S6p). In addition, police supportive and/or control actions were studied (S20p) and perceptions of violence between on same-sex and opposite-sex relationships (S21p). Nearly all studies with samples of police officers determined whether the officer had received DV training,

As Table 2 shows, within the 15 other studies reviewed, data from actual cases could be found on the number of female and male victims (n=9 studies), the number of male and female offenders (n=6 studies) and rates of arrest of male and female offenders (n=6 studies). Only one USA study (S17c) reported the number of same sexes DVA incidents, which represented 8.7% of all cases. One of these studies, carried out in England, compared records in both child protection units (CPUs) and domestic violence units (DVUs). Families with records in CPUs and DVUs, with current or previous referrals for both child abuse and spouse abuse (21.6% of cases), had more severe incidents of abuse to children and the mother, which occurred more frequently (ie; likelihood of being revictimized) compared to those with records in only one type of unit (S11c). Another USA study found that arrest did not reduce revictimization, which was significantly more common female victims (16%) than male victims (11%) and like the previous study victim injury influenced the chances of arrest (S13c). In fact, nearly half (47%) of DVA reports in England includes a male offender who has previously been the subject of a DVA referral in the past (S11c). This compares to one in five male offenders and one in six female offenders in "situationally ambiguous" DVA incidents in the USA (S22c).

The proportion of cases that resulted in no further action (NFA) by the police was reported as 72% for England (S11c), 55% for USA (S22c) and 31% for Canada (S12c). In England, an arrest was made in 24% of cases and a third (8.4%) of these offenders were charged or cautioned for England (S11c). In Canada (S12c), 69.6% of male offenders and 5.3% of female

offenders were charged with an DVA offense, of which 61.0% and 4.6% had been arrested (respectively). Regarding dual arrests of both male and female partners involved in a DVA incident, this was reported to be 9.2% of USA cases (S15c) but in “situationally ambiguous” DVA incidents (S22c) it can rise to more than a third of cases (36%). Once arrested, women are less likely to have their case dismissed (S17c) and are more likely to be charged when there is evidence of injury to the victim and the presence of a weapon (S10c).

Table 2.3 shows those studies that estimated the number and percent of female and male victims from analysing case records and information. This data was from England, Scotland, Sweden, Canada and the USA. Across the nine studies (S11c, S13c, S14c, S16c, S17c, S18, S19c, S25c and S26c), with a total accumulative sample of 99,007 victims was produced, although 82% of an accumulative sample came from Dawson and Hotton’s 2014 National survey of case referrals in Canada (S19c). Nevertheless, the nine studies showed, on average, there were significantly more female victim reports (86.2%) than male victim reports (13.8%), and this was also true of each of the nine studies.

The converse was true for those 6 studies from North America which estimated male and female offenders from case analyses (S12c, S15c, S17c, S23c, S24c and S25c), with a total accumulative sample of 28,073 offenders. However, this accumulative sample was dominated by 62% of offenders coming from one Rhode Island database study by Hamilton and Worthen in 2011 (S23c). Despite this limitation, overall the six studies showed, on average, male offenders were implicated in 82.7% of cases compared to female offenders, which were represented in 17.3% of cases. Indeed, each of the six studies consistently found a substantially higher number of male offenders.

Overall, the 14 studies, one study (S17c) reported data on both victims and offenders and provided evidence that male to female DVA came to the attention of the police most of the time (84.6% of cases), with a small minority of female to male (6.7%) and same sex (8.7%) cases. For both victim and offender data, there were no significant differences between the USA and other countries and no significant correlation for number of cases with year of the study.

The above estimates influenced the arrest rates for male and female offenders. This can be seen in Table 2.3 for 4 studies that reported data on arrest (S12c, S13c, S15c and S23c) from the cases reported to the police in North America, with a total accumulative sample of 27,238 cases. The average arrest rate was 62.3% of male offenders compared to 11.5% of female

offenders. This is approximately, three-quarters of male offenders and two-thirds of female offenders coming to the attention of the police in Canada and the USA. In two further studies that reported arrest rates (see Table 2 & 3), much higher arrest rates (36 to 40%) were reported for female offenders (S22c and S24c). This is because data from these studies were based on analyses of equal numbers of male to female DVA cases and female to male cases. Therefore, when the number of cases is controlled for (equal priors) the arrest rate is either the same (S24c) at just over a third of cases (36%), or not significantly different (S22c) with approximately two out of five cases involving arrest for both male and female offenders.

Risk Factors associated with Law enforcement for Domestic Abuse (see Table 2.4)

Victim factors associated with police action, arrest and charges are presented in Table 2.4: These outcomes are most likely if the gender of the victim is female (13 studies), when severe injuries are evident in the victim (10 studies) and if the victim is under the influence of alcohol and/or drugs (5 studies). Indeed, a dual arrest is 126% more likely when the victim is intoxicated (S15c). In addition, the victim living in the same family household as the offender (4 studies), a prior history of DVA (3 studies) and the DVA being witnessed by children (3 studies) also increased the chances of arrest. Police action was more likely to take place if police perceived the victim as to co-operate with proceedings against an offender (S7p, S24c).

Offender factors associated with police action, arrest and charges are also presented in Table 2.4: Police interventions are more likely if the gender of the offender is male (14 studies) and when there is a prior history of violence (3 studies). Furthermore, arrests are more likely when the DVA incident is classed as severe (5 studies) and when a weapon is involved (5 studies). As above, evidence of alcohol and/or drug abuse in the offender increases the likelihood of arrest and charges (5 studies).

Table 2.2

Summary of review studies on Police Responses to male and female victims of Domestic Violence and Abuse (DVA), N=26.

Study no.	Authors, Year, location	Population and total sample size (N)	Sources of data	Group sizes n (if applicable)	Main comparator (independent variable)	Outcome variable	Primary findings	Additional findings
S1 P	Stewart & Maddren (1997) Australia	97 operational police officers	Questionnaire, which was based around eight vignettes depicting family violence.	51 male police officers and 46 female police officers.	Gender Alcohol consumption	Judgements of Blame in Family Violence	“Male and female police officers showed no differences in judgement of blame and reported likelihood of charging. However, the level of blame attributed to both the offender and the victim varied with the victim’s gender and the alcohol consumption of the offenders. Male victims were more likely to be blamed than female victims. Drunk victims were blamed more than sober victims. “Furthermore, a negative association was found between the level of blame allocated to the victim and the reported likelihood of charging the offender. These results indicate that police officers hold gender stereotypes which influences the way they respond to family violence”. “Victim gender was significantly related to both attribution of victim blames and attribution of offender blame.”	“The offender was blamed more if he assaulted his wife than if he assaulted his brother. The victim was blamed more if she was assaulted by his brother than if she was assaulted by her husband. Overall offenders were blamed more than victims. However a drunk victim was blamed more than a sober victim. Furthermore, a sober victim with a sober offender was blamed more than a sober victim with a drunk offender. A drunk assailant with a sober victim was blamed more than a sober offender with a drunk victim”. “A significant relationship was found between the reported likelihood of charging and the attributions of blame The lower the level of blame attributed to the victim the higher the reported likelihood of charging the offender Police officers were more likely to charge the offender with assault when the victim was female than when the victim was male.”

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S2 P	Muftić & Cruze (2014) Bosnia and Herzegovina	137 Bosnian police officers	Self-report survey of officers employed by the state investigation and protection agency	63 police officers who had received DV training and 74 police officers who had not.	Whether or not the officer had received DV training	Attitudes toward Women Scale Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating Attitudes towards policing DV	“Officers with traditional attitudes towards women were more likely to believe that wife beating was an appropriate response in some conditions. Officers who viewed women in a negative light were significantly less likely to view policing DV as a worthwhile police endeavour.”	“Officers who had received domestic violence training had significantly lower scores on the Inventory of Beliefs About Wife Beating and were more likely to view DV as worthy of police intervention. There were no significant differences between those who had and had not received training on the Attitudes toward Women Scale.”
S3 P	Gracia & Garcia (2014) Spain.	308 male police officers	“Questionnaires administered during standard training courses for police officers, for both basic training and professional promotion.”	Not applicable	Sexism, Empathy Gender	Law enforcement	“Results showed that police officers prefer unconditional law enforcement (zero tolerance) approach in cases of violence against women, both in intimate and non-intimate relationships”. “Results indicate that for DVA between heterosexual couples, police officers with low levels of sexist beliefs and high levels of empathy were those who prefer an unconditional law enforcement (zero tolerance) approach, and those police officers with high sexism and low levels of empathy were those who prefer a more conditional law enforcement”.	“Sexism was linked to a preference for a more conditional law enforcement across interpersonal violence scenarios. Police officers with high levels of sexism obtained lower scores for law enforcement with DVA than police officers with low levels of sexism. For violence between male homosexuals, no significant differences were found in police officers’ law enforcement.”
S4 P	Sun & Chu (2010) Taiwan	252 Police officers	Questionnaire data was collected police officers from two police departments.	96 female and 156 male officers	Gender	Police officers’ perceptions of handling domestic violence.	A preference for both male and female police officers to attend DVA incidents.	“Female officers were significantly more likely than male officers to favour a combination of both male and female officers attending DVA incidents. Female officers were significantly more likely than male officers to favour male over female officers dealing with offenders.”

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S5 P	Finn & Stalans (1997) USA	130 police officers	“Using a 2 x 4 between-subjects design, eight scripts were produced by manipulating two features: (a) the gender of the offender and the victim. (b) the offender's mental state (normal, hallucinating, delusional, or drunken).”	Most officers were male (80.8%) and White (65.3%). Their ages ranged from 19 to 55 years (M = 29.65, SD = 8.33). Years of experience ranged from 0 to 26 (M = 4.21, SD = 6.06). In addition, 88 (67.7%) reported receiving domestic violence training.	Gender Mental state	Decisions about arrest and referrals for involuntary mental health hospitalisation.	“Officers inferred that male victims of domestic assault had more control over their actions and were more responsible than female victims. Mentally ill offenders were viewed as more dangerous and less in control of their actions than normal offenders. Gender influenced the arrest decision of officers when assessing disputants credibility and responsibility for DVA. Female mentally ill offenders were more likely than males to be referred for involuntary mental health hospitalisation. The findings suggest that both gender and mental state affect officers' inferences and decisions in domestic abuse cases. Gender influences perceptions of officers to see female victims as more credible and male offenders as more responsible. In the atypical situation of a male victim and a female offender, perceptions of credibility and responsibility are reversed.”	“Offenders were viewed by police as significantly more responsible, less capable of understanding the wrongfulness of violence, less credible, more dangerous, less in control of their actions, less passive and more mentally ill than their female victims”. Police officers' perceptions of victims were not affected by offenders' mental state. Police officers' inferences about victims' creditability influenced arrest decisions. As the officers' perceptions of victims credibility increased, the likelihood of the offenders arrest increased. Police officers who believed that arrest would reduce future violence were more likely to arrest. “Police officers were 2.47 times more likely to arrest female offenders who displayed delusions or hallucinations and refer them involuntary psychiatric hospitalisation when compared to male offenders with similar symptoms.”
S6 P	Homant & Kennedy (1985)	151 police officers	“4-page questionnaire measuring involvement, or	62 policewomen and 89 policemen.	Victim Blame Victim difficulty level	Involvement	“Women in shelter homes described policewomen as more likely than male officers to be informative, to take time to	“Policewomen have a different set of values and goals for dealing with family fights.

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	USA		professional concern about family fights”.		Feminism Concern		listen, and to provide helpful information.” “Those who had had contact with policewomen had a more favorable evaluation of police in general and policewomen in particular”.	Policewomen are more educated, they have stronger profeminist attitudes, and they have greater concern about, or awareness of the vulnerability of the female victim. Among policemen, the best predictor of involvement was education”:
S7 P	McPhedran, Gover & Mazerolle (2017). USA and Australia	612 police officers	cross-national examination of police officer attitudes about domestic violence (DV) by comparing officer attitudes in the USA to officer attitudes in Australia.	396 USA officers 359 (91%) males and 37 (9%) females. 216 Australian officers 153 (70.8%) males and 63 (29.2%) females	Gender Origin (USA or Australia) Attitudes	Arrest decision	“In both USA and Australia; male police officers were significantly more likely than female officers to (a) express the need for more freedom when responding to DV calls and (b) to view DV calls as taking up too much time and effort and should be handled as a private matter. In Australia, female police officers were more likely than male officers to agree with the following two statements: “DV laws should provide protections to same sex partners” and “Most DV incidents stem from the offender’s need for power and control over their victim”.	“USA officers were more likely than Australian officers to agree that they would make an arrest if the victim was cooperative. Australian officers were less likely to detain a cooperative offender suspected of DVA. This finding was consistent across both male and female officers and was not associated with age of the police officer.”
S8 P	Andrews & Johnston (2013). UK	38 police forces in England from 2004 to 2007.	“Data from annual police force performance assessments for each force published by HMIC”	Not applicable	Gender and active representation in policing	Average domestic violence arrest rate	“Results suggest that the rate of domestic violence arrests varies in terms of the authority and discretion given to women police officers”.	“Higher arrest rates for male DV offenders when the chief constable was female. Increased representation of female police officers increased arrest rates, but only when they had greater opportunity to carry out frontline police work”.

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S9 P	Finn, Blackwell, Stalans, Studdard & Dugan (2004) USA	299 Police Officers	“One of six scripts that depicted a hypothetical domestic violence call. Each script was six double-spaced pages in length. The scripts varied with regard to the injury condition and prior abuse condition”.	256 police officers were men (86%) and White (70.2%). The age of the officers ranged from 19 to 63 years (M = 31.62; SD = 9.33). The majority reported completing some college (36.1%) or having earned a bachelor’s degree or more (33.4%). Years of experience ranged from 0 to 30 years (M= 5.58; SD = 7.26).	Departmental policies on family violence. Dual arrest policy or General arrest policy when both parties injured: Who is viewed as primary aggressor? Who is a credible witness? Who displayed signs of being assaulted?	Arrest decision Dual Arrest	“When both parties were injured, 45.8% chose dual arrest, 17.7% chose to arrest the husband only, and 36.5% used an informal option. When only the woman was injured, 8% chose dual arrest, 71.3% chose to arrest only the man, and 20.7% used an informal option ($\chi^2 = 84.2$; $p < .001$). Dual arrest has a higher chance of occurring when police operate under a dual arrest policy, and single arrest has a higher chance of occurring when police operate under a general arrest policy. Police officers consider the presence of injuries in their decisions to arrest. However, when both parties suffered injuries, officers opted for dual arrest. When both parties were visibly injured, the primary aggressor was identified. Usually, the male offender was arrested in these situations because his injuries were less severe, and the female was acting in self-defence.”	“When the man was injured but not the women, he was viewed as substantially less likely to have inflicted harm in the past, more credible, and less likely to want to control his partner. The injured man was also perceived as less likely to have initiated the violence and more likely to have acted in self-defense. When both parties were injured; the injured woman was significantly more likely to be perceived as acting in self-defense than the injured man. The man was rated as more responsible and to blame for the violence than the woman. When both parties were injured the woman was regarded as less credible, more likely to have started the fight and to want to control of their male partner. Perceptions on whether the woman acted in self-defence was based on the severity of the woman’s injuries and were not affected by the presence of injuries in the husband.”
S10 C	Hester (2013) UK	Total of 96 DVA cases; with 32 female victims, 32 male victims and 32 cases where both the female and the male were injured.	Comprehensive computer-based system for recording and linking domestic violence incidents across police districts, introduced by the police	The sample comprised of 128 offenders (64 male and 64 female) identified by the police as causing injury to their partner and involving 581 domestic violence incidents.	Gender Kind of abusive behaviour Frequency of incidents	Arrests and conviction	“Gender differences were found related to the levels of violence recorded and the frequency of incidents.	“Overall, violent and abusive behaviour (DVA) between heterosexual partners reported to the police has more female victims than male victims.

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

			in North East England from April 2001.				Male offenders were significantly more likely to be repeat perpetrators of DVA. Male offenders were significantly more likely than women to use physical violence, threats and harassment. Verbal abuse was used in most incidents by both men and women. Male offenders were more likely to damage the women's property, often as part of ongoing harassment, while the women appeared to damage their own belongings. Male offenders tended to create a context of fear and control. “	Women were three times more likely than men to be arrested for a serious incident involving injury to their victim. Women were much more likely than men to use a weapon. Male victims appeared not to fear women who were recorded as the sole DVA offender. DVA Cases involving violence from both partners were more likely to involve post-separation violence (13 of the 32 dual perpetrator cases). The DVA dual case with the highest number of incidents recorded involved partners who were both alcoholics.”
S11 C	Browne & Hamilton (1999) UK	320 cases referred to the police 240 cases referred to child protection units (CPUs) 80 cases referred to Domestic Violence Units (DVUs)	Police case files from in the urban midlands of England.	187 cases only recorded in CPUs 64 cases only recorded in DVUs 69 families were recorded in both CPUs and DVUs. In total 256 child victims and 133 adult victims. Female to male partner abuse (4%) and abuse by other relatives (8%) was excluded from the analysis. 118 DVA cases of male to female incidents	This study was designed to investigate the overlap between referrals made to Child Protection Units and Domestic Violence Units in one police force area of England.	“1) Those families with records in both a CPU and a DVU had more previous referrals for child abuse than those with records in only one type of unit. 2) Those families with records in both a CPU and a DVU had more previous referrals for spouse abuse than those with records in only one type of unit. 3) Those families with records in both a CPU and a DVU had more severe incidents of	“The rate of overlap between families with files at both types of unit was 21.6%, although 46.3% of child protection files indicated the presence of domestic violence in the family home. The severity of maltreatment and the extent of injury for both spouse abuse (DVA) and child maltreatment (CAN) was significantly related to police response, with greater use of cautions or charges in more severe cases. Police actions were related to injury but 61% of DVA victims with injuries and 89% of DVA	“Police action was more likely in alcohol related offences. All those arrested, cautioned or charged (24.4%), were under the influence of alcohol at the time of the DVA offence. This may be related to severity as 84% of severe assaults involved alcohol”. “For both DVA and CAN, a police response was more likely when there were victim injuries but 42% of incidents involving an assault resulted in no further action”. “Of those DVA cases where offenders were either arrested (16%), charged or cautioned (8.4%) by the police; 68% involved severe assaults, 14% common assault and 18% harassment. Police Action was also related to whether the victim took legal action;

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

				analysed; 36% separated, 34% cohabiting, 30% married and living together.		spouse abuse than those with records in only one type of unit.”	victims without injury resulted in either no further action or warnings given by the police (72% of cases).”	40% of those cases where the victim acted resulted in police cautions, arrests, charges or convictions compared to 6% for those victims who took no action.”
S12 C	Millar & Brown (2010). Canada	A two-year sample of DVA police cases (N = 2,935)	Edmonton Police Service (EPS) Serving a community in Alberta, Canada,	Arrested (n) None 919 31.31% Man 1,791 61.02% Woman 134 4.57% Both 88 3.00% Missing 3 0.10% Total 2,935 100.00% Charged (n) None 616 20.99% Man 2,044 69.64% Woman 155 5.28% Both 118 4.02% Missing 2 0.07% Total 2,935 100.00%	Marital status Injury to woman Injury to man Weapon used Intoxication Repeat call	Police arrests and charges in DVA cases that include both genders	“Similar factors predicted arrest for both men and women: Intoxication increased the risk of being charged and decreased the risk of dual arrest. Weapon use increased the chances that offenders would be charged but this effect was stronger for women. Gender bias that favoured women was observed. Police training and policy changes needed”.	“Women were blamed if they used a weapon or were intoxicated. Injuries, including major injuries, are more common for female DVA victims compared to male DVA victims. Injuries to women were treated more seriously by police and would more likely result in an arrest or charge. Men were more likely to be arrested and charged on repeat calls, which also increased the chances of arrests and charges”.
S13 C	Cho & Wilke (2010). USA	2,760 DVA cases	National Crime Victimization Survey from 1987 to 2003	2,462 female victims (89.2%) and 298 male victims (10.8%).	Gender, arrest, type of violence, injury, and use of a weapon.	Revictimization	“Male offenders were arrested more often (24%) than female offenders (18%). The odds of arrest when any injury was involved were more than two times greater. Police arrested female offenders only if male victim was injured. Men were victimized by DVA less frequently than women and received fewer injuries. Arrest did not reduce male victims’ chance of revictimization. Male victims were revictimized less	“Men suffered more aggravated assaults (28%) than women (17%) and fewer sexual assaults (1%) than women (8%), although there was little difference in simple assault (71% for men and 75% for women). A weapon was more frequently used against men (39%) than women (20%). There were no significant differences in the likelihood of arrest by use of a weapon. Female victims reported more minor injuries (54%) than male victims (35%), although the same percentage of men and women (7%) suffered severe injuries”.

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

							frequently (11%) than were female victims (16%)”.	
S14 C	Buzawa & Austin (1993) USA	90 DVA cases involving arrest.	Arrest reports from 4 police stations over a four-month period.	Follow up visits conducted with 110 victims of which 98 (89.1%) were females and 12 (10.9%) were males.	Victim Preferences	Arrest decision	The presence of bystanders increased chances of arrest The presence of weapons affected how the officer handled the incident – more likely to arrest. Severity of injury significantly related to decision to arrest. Cohabitation – arrests more likely when offender and victim live together.	“No significant difference found between treatment of assaults of married couples compared to others. Most women were satisfied with the police response, whereas zero men were. One male reported that he had been stabbed requiring hospitalisation, and officers still refused formal sanctions against the (female) perpetrator.”
S15 C	Roark (2016). USA	The data came from 4,163 heterosexual DVA cases that resulted in a sole arrest (one party arrested) or dual arrest (both parties arrested) between calendar years 2002 and 2006	“The DVA data were obtained from a county database located in the Mountain West region of the USA. This county has a mandatory arrest policy and primary aggressor clause, which allows officers to arrest one party (or the primary aggressor) even if the other party commits acts of violence during the DVA incident. Data were collected from police reports submitted by six local police municipalities, one university police	“The majority of individuals arrested for DVA were males (76.6%), white (77.6 %) with a mean age of 33 years and 73.5% employed.” “One in five had been previously arrested for a DVA and 12% had been a victim in a prior DVA arrest”.	Gender Ethnic group, Age, Education, Employment, Relationship, Prior DVA arrests, Prior DVA victimization, Alcohol and/or drug (AOD) use, Initiation of police contact,	Dual arrest Single arrest	“The data set revealed that dual arrests were 9.2% of all arrests. Women were more likely to be dually arrested than men. When men contacted the police the chances of dual arrest increased. Men being a victim in a prior DVA incident, men with injuries, offender used alcohol and/or drugs, also increased the likelihood of dual arrests. If both parties used AOD, the chances of dual arrest increased by 126 percent. Results demonstrate that police officers may not be recognizing	“When there was a sole arrest, it was more likely to be a male suspect. When women were arrested, they were more likely to be arrested alongside of their male partner. Men and women with a dual arrest outcome were more likely to be white (71% and 79.3%), in their early 30s. For both men and women, being in a current relationship with their partners increased a dual arrest outcome. Not being in a relationship resulted halved the likelihood to be dually arrested. A felony charge was associated with arrest outcome for men only. Men who were prior DVA victims were at significantly greater chances of being

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

			agency, and one sheriff's agency".		Children present during the domestic violence incident. Charging level.		male victims of domestic violence as legitimate victims".	dually arrested than women who were previous DVA victims."
S16 C	Storey & Strand (2017) Sweden	867 DVA Cases	Brief Spousal Assault Form for the Evaluation of Risk (BSAFER) completed routinely by police from three districts in Sweden.	A total of 42 male DVA victim (5%) and 825 female DVA victim (95 %) cases.	Gender of victim	"Assessment of Risk based on presence of Victim vulnerability factors: Inconsistent attitudes or behaviour Extreme fear of perpetrator Inadequate support or resources Unsafe living situation Health problems"	"Victim vulnerability factors were more often omitted in cases with male victims, but otherwise showed no difference in presence with gender. For both male and female victims, low risk cases had fewer vulnerability factors than moderate or high risk"	"For males, there was no association between victim vulnerability factors and risk management strategies. For females, increased vulnerability factors were associated with increased risk management strategies."
S17 C	Romain & Freiburger (2016). USA	2,281 DVA cases	"A population census of 2,281 domestic violence cases in a large Midwestern county was obtained from the prosecutor's office in 2009. Additional data were collected from case court reports".	The majority of offenders were male (89.7%), with 10.3% female. Most victims were female (89.1%), with 10.9% male. 1,929 (84.6%) DVA cases involved male offenders/female victims 153 (6.7%) cases involved female offenders/male victims 199 (8.7%) cases involved same sex relationships.	"Data collected included information on defendant and victim characteristics, such as age, gender and race/ethnicity, as well as case characteristics. Gender of victim and offender, race/ethnicity of the offender, and type of crime"	Case dismissal Charge reductions	"Male gender influenced case dismissal and violent charge reduction. Females were more likely to have their cases fully prosecuted. Female offenders were less likely to receive charge reduction related to severity. Victim gender, offender race/ethnicity and age did not appear to influence the likelihood of charge reduction related to severity".	"Females were 44.2% less likely to have their cases dismissed compared with males. Black and Hispanic defendants were twice as likely to have their cases dismissed compared with White defendants."

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S18 S	MacQueen & Norris (2016). UK	1975 DVA Victims (12.3%) of 16,003 responses collected through a stratified random sample of adults aged 16 or over, living in private households in Scotland	Scottish Crime and Justice Survey data	335 victims gave details of the DVA incidents with 100 cases involving the police.	Demographic characteristics and socio-economic status Attitude to police and CJS Marital Status Child Witnesses Characteristics of Incident	How the police came to know about a respondent's most recent experience of DVA	"Of the 100 cases involving the police there were; 83% female victims 17% male victims 41% had reported the incident to the police themselves. 43% did not know how the police had come to know. 2% respondents cited other witnesses as the police informants. 4% stated that neighbours, friends or family had reported on their behalf."	"Female victims, victims of low socio-economic status, without employment, are the most likely to come to the attention of the police. Victims experiencing multiple abuse. Children present who witness the abuse Young victims, male victims and victims in employment are among the least likely. Victims still living with their partner are less likely to report to the police."
S19 C	Dawson & Hotton (2014). Canada	The total sample comprised 81,482 incidents in 2008 across nine provinces of Canada.	2008 Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR2) survey.	66,697 (82%) female victims 14,785 (18%) male victims	Victim injury Multiple victims Offence type Age of the victim Victim-accused relationship. Location of incident	Whether or not the offender was 'charged' with an offence.	Charges were more likely if: "Victim was injured There were multiple-victims (eg; children) The assault was serious (eg; severe injury) Ongoing relationship and/or cohabiting No effects related to age of victim or location of incident."	"The proportion of cases in which police recommended a charge varied across the country."
S20 P	Sun (2007) USA	The sample of 174 police officers on patrol, including 27	Systematic social observation of police officers on patrol and	Police on patrol of 623 citizens who were	Officer gender	Police supportive actions	Female officers more likely to provide support to victims of DVA.	"More experienced women police officers were more likely to provide support to DVA victims.

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

		female officers and 147 male officers.	structured interviews with patrol officers and supervisors.	involved in 273 domestic violence incidents.		Control actions	No significant difference between genders in exercising control actions.	Gender-specific differences were reported Wealthy people and citizens involved in verbal arguments were more likely to receive support from female officers, while young or elderly citizens, victims and injured citizens were more likely to receive support from male officers”.
S21 P	Cormier & Woodworth (2008). Canada	62 Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) officers Jul. to Sept. 2006. 108 undergraduate students Feb. to Apr. 2006	Questionnaires to both police officer and undergraduate student samples	35 male and 27 female police officers. 41 Men and 67 women undergraduate students	Gender	Perceptions of Violent Same-Sex and Opposite-Sex Relationships	“Both students and police officers ratings of abuse severity were both highest for the male to female DVA scenarios. Police considered the female to male, male to male and female to female scenarios to be more serious DVA than did the students. Police officers were more likely to believe that the heterosexual male offender would be convicted of assault compared to a female heterosexual offender or same-sex offenders”.	“Student participants found the male to female scenario more violent, were more likely to report it to the police, were more likely to believe the offender should be convicted of assault than the female to male or same sex scenarios. Students believed the victim should end the relationship. Police officers indicated that victims were more likely to call the police when a man assaults his wife compared to female to male or same sex relationship victims. Police Officers believed that a man hitting his wife should be convicted of assault more than a woman hitting her husband.”
S22 C	Durfee (2012) USA	A subset of 14,728 “situationally ambiguous” DVA incidents (cases).	2005 National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS)	Only heterosexual couples were included in these analyses.	Only one crime is recorded for each DVA incident. If more than one crime is committed by the offender, only the “highest” or most severe crime is recorded for that incident.	The arrest outcome for the case related to State policy.	“In 55% of DVA incidents no arrest was made. In 6% of DVA incidents, only the male partner was arrested. In 4% of DVA incidents only the female partner was arrested. In 36% of DVA incidents both partners were arrested”. “Officers arrest male partners more frequently than female partners. Correlates of arrest	“In 46% of DVA cases where at least two offenses have been committed (one by the male partner, one by the female partner) the officer(s) did not make an arrest. States with pro-arrest arrest policies have the highest percentage of incidents resulting in no arrest (68%). Pro-arrest policies decrease the likelihood of the arrest of the male

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

							differ for male-only arrests versus female only arrests. Men are more likely to be arrested for DVA than women: 42% of DVA cases reported to the police end in a male arrest (either singly or dually) and 40% end in a female arrest (either singly or dually).” “There were differences between the three policies employed by state police: In states with mandatory arrest policies, 50% of men and 48% of women are arrested for DVA. In states with pro-arrest policies, 29% of men and 27% of women are arrested for DVA. In states with police officer discretion policies, 43% of men and 41% of women are arrested for DVA.”	partner (only) by threequarters and the likelihood of dual arrest by half. The severity of offence and the offender being male increased the rate of arrest DVA Incidents where the male offender committed an assault against the female victim were 2.16 times more likely to result in the arrest of the male (only) than to result in no arrest. DVA incidents where the female offender committed an assault against the male victim were 1.79 times more likely to result in the arrest of the female (only) than to result in no arrest. DVA incidents where the female partner committed an assault against the male partner were 1.47 times more likely to result in dual arrest, but male partner assaults against the female partner was not significantly related to dual arrest.”
S23 C	Hamilton & Worthen (2011) USA	17,380 DVA cases During 2002-2004 calendar years.	Statistical database maintained by the Rhode Island Supreme Court Domestic Violence Training and Monitoring Unit (DVU).	14,723 (84.7%) were male offenders 2,657 (15.3%) were female offenders	Gender, Age of victim. Race/ethnicity of victim and offender. Presence/threat of a weapon. Visible injury to the victim.	Arrest	“13,013 (74.9%) DVA offenders were arrested. 86.5% of these were male offenders and 13.5% were female offenders. Male offenders were more likely to be arrested than female offenders. More females were reported as having a hostile demeanor and	“Female offenders were more likely to have had a witness present and more likely to have used a weapon. Male offenders were more likely to be under a protective order and to have assaulted the victim before. Female offenders who were arrested were more likely to have caused injury. About half of all offenders of both sexes were living with their partners at the time of the violence.

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

					Presence of a witness Existence of a prior protective order. Police interpretation of a hostile suspect Cohabitation status of the couple Drug and alcohol use by both the victim and the suspect Prior assault		hostile female were almost twice as likely to be arrested as hostile males. Arrests were made in over 60% of the cases where the victim called. Female suspects were four times as likely to call the police as male suspects, and 10% of women who were arrested were the ones to call, compared to 2% of men.”	Females were 50% more likely to be arrested when their male victims were drinking compared to males arrested when their female victims used alcohol.”
S24C	Ho (2003) USA	1099 DVA incident reports relating to a heterosexual relationship.	Selected from 5613 cases of aggravated assault reports filed at the Columbia police department between 1993 and 1997	Male Offenders = 214 of 885 cases Female offenders = 214 of 214 cases	Gender	Arrest data	Female to male violence was 19.5% of heterosexual DVA incidents. Female offenders arrested = 78 (36.4%) Male offenders arrested = 77 (36%)	Logistic regression showed For both genders, arrests were more likely if: • Offender is present • Injuries require hospitalisation • Victim expresses a preference for arrest For male suspects only, arrests were more likely if: • A weapon was involved • If there were witnesses

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S25 C	Worrall, Ross & McCord (2006) USA	215 DVA cases from crime reports	Reports provided by a municipal police department in Southern California. Data on prosecutors' charging decisions were gathered in cooperation with the county district attorney's office serving the police department under study.	47 (21.9%) male victims and 168 (78.1%) female victims 169 (78.6%) male offenders and 46 (21.4%) female offenders	Age and Gender of victim Ethnic Group of victim Relationship status Victim desired prosecution Arrest at scene Prior domestic violence history Witness present Mutual assault Weapon used Victim was drinking Victim seriously injured Offender seriously injured	Decision to prosecute Felony or misdemeanour or filing	"Serious victim injuries were associated with arrest and charging decisions. Criminal charges were more likely in cases with male offenders. Victim preference for prosecution was likely to result in felony rather than misdemeanour charges."	"There were significant gender differences for decisions to prosecute; prosecution was more likely in cases of female victims and male offenders."
S26 C	Lee, Zhang & Hoover (2013) USA	9,184 domestic violence incidents reported to the Houston Police Department in 2005.	Data collected by Houston Police Department.	75% of cases involved a male offender with a female victim.	Gender and ethnic group of victims Gender and ethnic group of offenders Time and Locality of incident Weapon use	Arrest decisions Legal factors	This study found that "cases involving a male offender and female victim were more likely to result in arrest than any other gender match. Arrests more likely in disadvantaged neighborhoods and use of weapons."	Arrests more likely at weekends and at night

Table 2.3*Prevalence of male and female victims, offenders and arrests*

Study No/Type.	Country	Year	Data	Sample Size (N)	Male %	Female %
S14c	USA	1993	Victim	110	11	89
S11c	England, UK	1999	Victim	133	4	96
S13c	USA	2010	Victim	2760	11	89
S26c	USA	2013	Victim	9184	25	75
S19c	Canada	2014	Victim	81,482	18	82
S17c	USA	2016	Victim	2281	11	89
S25c	USA	2016	Victim	215	22	78
S18s	Scotland, UK	2016	Victim	1975	17	83
S16c	Sweden	2017	Victim	867	5	95
Mean (Standard Deviation), n=9 across studies			Victim	99,007	13.8 (6.8)	86.2 (6.8)
S24c	USA	2003	Offender	1099	80	20
S12c	Canada	2010	Offender	2935	95	5
S23c	USA	2011	Offender	17,380	85	15
S15c	USA	2016	Offender	4163	77	23
S17c	USA	2016	Offender	2281	90	10
S25c	USA	2016	Offender	215	79	21
Mean (Standard Deviation), n=6 across studies			Offender	28,073	84.33(6.42)	15.67(6.42)
S24c*	USA	2003	Arrest	(1099)	36*	36*
S12c	Canada	2010	Arrest	2935	61	5 (+3% dual)
S13c	USA	2010	Arrest	2760	24	14

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

S23c	USA	2011	Arrest	17,380	87	13
S22c*	USA	2012	Arrest	(14,728)	42*	40*
S15c	USA	2016	Arrest	4163	77	14 (+9% dual)
Mean (Standard Deviation), n=4 across studies*			Arrest	27,238	62.3 (23.9)	11.5 (3.8)

**Data from these studies were based on analyses of equal numbers of male to female DVA cases and female to male cases and excluded from the mean..*

C= Analyses of DVA reported cases, S= Survey data.

Factors associated with the police were also investigated. The Review found that female police officers had a positive role supporting the victim and were more likely to implement an arrest policy, especially in the presence of witnesses.

The severity of domestic violence incidents has emerged as an important influence on police decisions to charge. In this research, police is significantly more likely to lay charges, as indicated by physical abuse, victim injury (S9, S11, S12, S13, S14, S19, S22, S23, S25), the presence of multiple victims (S19) or in more severe incidents including property damage (S10, S11, S19, S22, S25). Overall the studies, charges against the offender were more likely if; the victim was injured there were multiple-victims (eg; children), the assault was serious (e.g.; severe injury) and the couple were cohabiting or there was an ongoing relationship.

Table 2.4

Risk Factors associated with Police Arrest, Charges and Conviction for Domestic Abuse cited in the studies, (N=26).

Risk Factors	Associated with Police General Law Enforcement*	Associated with of arrest	Associated with Charges and proceeding to Conviction.	Total number of studies
<i>Victim Factors</i>				
Gender of victim female	S3p, S18s, S21p	S5p, S8p, S9p, S12c, S13c, S15c, S22c, S25c, S26c	S1p, S21p	13
Gender of victim male (dual arrest)		S15c, S17c		2
Co-operation of victim	S7p	S7p; S24c		3
Severity of Injuries		S9p, S11c, S12c, S13c, S14c, S19c, S22c, S23c, S24c, S25c	S11c	10
Both male and female were injured (dual arrest)		S9p, S15c, S17c		3
History of prior victimisation	S18s	S11c, S15c		3
Mental state of victim		S5c,		1
Victim under the influence of alcohol or drugs		S11c, S12c, S23c, S15c (dual arrest)	S1	5
Cohabitation/living with partner		S14c, S15c, S19c, S23c		4

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

victims whose children witness abuse	S18c	S19c, S24c		3
<i>Offender Factors</i>				
Gender of offender male	S1p, S5p, S8p S21p,	S11c, S13c, S15c, S17c, S18s, S19c, S22c, S24c, S25c, S26c	S21p	14
Gender of offender female		S10c, S15c (dual arrest)	S17c (less likely to have their cases dismissed)	3
Frequency of abusive incidents		S10c		1
Severity of incidents		S10c, S11c, S14c, S19c, S22c, S25c	S11	5
Mental state of offender		S5p		1
Offender under the influence of alcohol or drugs		S10c, S11c, S12c, S15c	S1p, S11c	5
Use a weapon		S12c, S14c, S26c,		5
		S10c, S23c (only for FO)		
History of prior DVA offences		S11c, S15c, S23c (only for MO)		3
Multiple victims in the family		S19c		1
Offender contacted the police		S23c, S15c (Dual Arrest)		2
<i>Police Factors</i>				
Gender of officer female	S4p, S7p, S20p	S8p, S17c,		5

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

Attributions of blame to male victim	S1p,	1
Believe police action will reduce future violence	S5p	1
Low levels of sexism	S3p	1
Empathy for Female victim	S3p	1
Police Officers received DVA training	S2p	1
Presence of witnesses	S14c and S23c (only FO)	2

**Police Intervention of any kind*

P= Police samples, C= Analyses of DVA reported cases, S= Survey data.

Discussion:

This review, highlighted substantial differences in methodologies, sample sizes, sampling periods, study populations, and the types of violence studied. There was a significant heterogeneity between studies, even in those studies (n=8) that scored high on ~~our~~ quality criteria. This heterogeneity made the generalised findings difficult to summarise in the form of a meta-analysis. Nevertheless, the main findings suggest that similar factors predicted arrest for both men and women. Most of the included studies found male offenders have greater chances of arrest in both actual cases and hypothetical scenarios. Women were more likely to be arrested when they have used of a weapon, when they are intoxicated and in the presence of witnesses. Men were more likely to be arrested with repeat DVA calls and prior history of previous offences.

Gender of victim and offender

Regardless of the heterogeneity of the reviewed studies, a consistent finding is that police and court case reports demonstrate women are more likely to be DVA victims than men. Evidence from the review showed on average female victims represent

86.2% and male victims represent 17.3% of DVA incident reports to the police. Of these, 63.2% of male offenders and 11.5% of female offenders were arrested.

Studies by Roark (2016), Durfee (2012) and Hamilton and Worthen (2011) found a significant difference in the arrest outcome whereby male suspects were more likely to be arrested than female suspects. As mentioned by Steward and Maddren (1997), male victims were more likely to be blamed than female victims and the police officers were more likely to charge the offender when the victim was a woman. The findings suggest that victim gender was significantly related to both attribution of victim blame and attribution of offender blame. Some studies showed police officers hold gender stereotypes that influence the way they respond to DVA and the decision to arrest.

A study by Finn and Stalans (1997) concluded that police inferred that male victims of DVA had more control over their actions and were more responsible than female victims. Gender also influenced the arrest decision through the police officer's assessment of disputants' credibility and responsibility. Gender differences were also found in forms of violence recorded, with men showing more severe forms of physical violence, threats and harassment and a greater frequency of DVA incidents and revictimisation (Hester, 2013).

While verbal abuse was used in most incidents by both men and women, men were more likely to escalate verbally abuse. Men were also more likely to damage the women's property, often as part of ongoing harassment, while the women appeared to damage their own belongings. Men's violence tended to create a context of fear and coercive control, which was less likely in cases of female perpetrators.

Hester's (2013) study claimed that violent and abusive behaviour between heterosexual partners in contact with the police is gender asymmetrical. Women were three times more likely than men to be arrested for a serious assault and women were much more likely than men to use a weapon. However, male victims appeared not to fear women who were recorded as sole perpetrators (Hester 2013).

By contrast, Cho and Wilke (2010), found that men suffered more aggravated assaults (28%) than women (17%) and fewer sexual assaults (1%) than women (8%), although there was little difference in simple assault (71% for men and 75% for women). In

addition, a weapon was more frequently used against men (39%) than women (20%). Male perpetrators were arrested more often (24%) than female perpetrators (18%) and male victims were re-victimized less frequently (11%) than were female victims (16%). Police arrested female perpetrators, but generally only if injury was involved.

According to Buzawa and Austin (1993), most women were satisfied with the police response to DVA incidents, whereas none of the men were. One male reported that he had been stabbed requiring hospitalisation and police still refused formal sanctions against the (female) perpetrator.

Regarding the issue of dual or sole arrest again there are gender differences. As Roark (2016) found in his study, dual arrests were 9.2 percent of all arrests. When there was a sole arrest, it was more likely to be a male suspect. When women were arrested, they were more likely to be arrested alongside of their male partner.

Freiburger's (2016) study that defendant gender had a direct effect on the likelihood of case dismissal, but that effect was in the opposite direction than that predicted by chivalry theory. Instead, female defendants were 44.2% less likely to have their cases dismissed compared with males and were more likely to have their cases fully prosecuted.

Cormier and Woodworth's (2008) study on both police officers and students based on hypothetical scenarios suggested that both students and police officers indicated that victims were significantly more likely to call the police when witnessing a man assaulting his wife than when witnessing identical scenes with heterosexual male DVA victims and same-sex DVA victims. Police also believe that a man hitting his wife should be convicted of assault than a woman hitting her husband.

Gender of Officer

Regarding to officer's gender, Gracia et al. (2014) found that police officers prefer a stronger and unconditional law enforcement (zero tolerance) approach in cases of violence against women for both intimate and non-intimate relationships in heterosexual couples. However, this was not the case for homosexual couples.

Homant and Kennedy (1985) found that women in shelter homes described policewomen as more likely than male police officers to be informative, to take time to listen, and to provide helpful information but Sun and Chu (2010) suggested that to deal with DVA effectively a combination of male and female police officers is more desirable.

It was suggested that American police were more likely than Australian police to agree that they would make an arrest if the victim was cooperative and that Australian police were less likely to detain a cooperative suspect McPhedran et al. (2017). Female police officers were significantly more likely than male police officers to favor a combination of male and female officers over female officers alone for handling battered women or offenders, only when the man is the offender and the woman is the victim. In the atypical situation of a male victim, credibility and responsibility are unrelated (Sun, Doris & Chu (2010); Finn & Stalans (1997); Homant & Kennedy., (1985).

Andrews and Johnston-Miller, (2013) found that the presence of a female police chief constable is positively associated with the domestic violence arrest rate, but an increase of female police officers makes a difference only when they are accorded greater opportunity to carry out frontline police work. However, police officer characteristics other than years of experience exerted little impact on interventions (Sun, 2007).

Wealthy couples involved in verbal arguments and female victims were more likely to receive support from female officers, while young or elderly victims were more inclined to receive support from male officers. However, officers who had received domestic violence training had significantly held less stereotypes to discriminate among male and female victims (Muftić & Cruze, 2014).

Alcohol consumption

Regarding incidents related with alcohol or drug abuse, Stewart and Maddren (1997) found that overall offenders were blamed more than victims. However, a drunk victim was blamed more than a sober victim. However, a drunk offender with a sober victim was blamed more than a sober offender with a drunk victim. Browne and Hamilton (1999) results shows that police action did appear to be more likely in alcohol related offences with all those (24% of cases) arrested, cautioned or charged being under the

influence of alcohol at the time of the DVA incident. However, this may also be related to the severity of abuse as 84% of severe assaults involved alcohol. Roark, J. (2016), suggested that for both men and women, the use of alcohol or drugs (AOD) and who contacted the police were associated with dual arrest outcome. If both parties used AOD, he was 126 percent more likely to be dually arrested.

Mental state

Finn and Stalan's (1997) found that mentally ill offenders were viewed as more dangerous and less in control of their actions than normal offenders. Female mentally ill offenders were more likely than males to be referred for psychiatric treatment, as violent women are deemed to be mentally ill more often (Op.cit.). Their findings suggest that mental state of the offender affect police inferences and decisions in domestic assault cases. However, officers' perceptions of victims were not affected by offenders' mental state. The study found that police were 2.47 times more likely to take female offenders displaying delusions or hallucinations to a psychiatric hospital for involuntary commitment than they were male offenders displaying such symptoms.

Injuries/severity of offence and police response

Finn, et al. (2004), found that when both disputants were injured, 45.8% police officers chose dual arrest, 17.7% chose to arrest the man only, and 36.5% used an informal option. When only the women were injured, 8% chose dual arrest, 71.3% chose to arrest only the male partner, and 20.7% used an informal option. When both parties were injured, injured women were significantly more likely to be perceived as acting in self-defense than were injured men. Perceptions on whether the women acted on self-defense were based on the severity of her injuries and were not affected by the presence of injuries in the man. Men who were injured were viewed as substantially less likely to have inflicted harm on the women in the past, as more credible, and as less likely to want to control the female partner than men who were not injured.

Browne and Hamilton (1999) also found that the severity of maltreatment and the extent of injury for both spousal abuse and child maltreatment was significantly related to police response, with greater use of cautions or charges in more severe cases. However, it is interesting to note that 42% of incidents involving severe assaults resulted in police

no further action. Millar and Brown, (2010) found that injuries, including severe DVA injuries, were more common to women than to men and that the injuries to women were treated more seriously by police and result in an arrest or charge.

Overall, police were more likely to arrest perpetrators when the incident resulted in an injury. The odds of arrest when injury was involved (both minor and severe) were more than two times greater than when no injury was reported. Police arrest female offenders only if a severe injury is involved and/or a weapon is used.

These findings are consistent with literature about police responses to arrest and charge the offender (Dawson & Hotton 2014; Phillips & Gillham 2010; Phillips & Varano 2008; Western Australia Department of Justice & WA Police Service 2002; Wright 1998). Surveys of police (Muir & Le Claire 1984) and in-depth interviews with victims (Coorey 1988) have also identified incident severity and injuries as a primary influence on police decision making in relation to arrest and charging.

Victim support for and cooperation with charging emerged in studies as an important influence on police decisions to arrest and charge (Knowles 1996; Centre for Children and Families in the Justice System 1991; NSW Ombudsman 2006; Wareham 1993). However, Australian research has found that a substantial proportion of victims continue to try to have charges dropped (Cussen & Lyneham 2012). Indeed, victim noncooperation can frustrate police efforts to investigate these incidents in the lead-up to laying charges (Kingsnorth et al. 2001; WA Department of Justice & WA Police Service 2002). In addition, charges are more likely to happen when the DVA occurs in the context of an ongoing intimate partner relationship (Dawson & Hotton 2014; Wright 1998).

Other than incident characteristics, police identified a history of DVA as another important influence on police decisions to arrest and charge (Coorey 1988; Muir & LeClaire 1984). This was corroborated by this review, which found that police are more likely to lay charges where there is evidence of a history of domestic violence, prior police callouts and/or pre-existing protection orders (Phillips & Varano 2008; Hare 2006; Kingsnorth & MacIntosh 2004).

Mixed findings have emerged regarding a history of victimisation influencing arrest and charges, with some studies finding less support or no association (Bechtel et al. 2012; Boivin & Leclerc 2016; Rhodes et al. 2011).

Findings are also mixed regarding the victim–perpetrator relationship, with some studies noting the existence of an ongoing intimate relationships increases victim support for charging (Boivin & Leclerc 2016; Kingsnorth & MacIntosh 2004), and others finding a negative association (Bui, 2004) or no association at all (Rhodes et al. 2011). Although the presence of children appears to increase victim support for charges (Bui 2001; Kingsnorth & MacIntosh 2004).

Conclusion

Despite the heterogeneity of the 26 studies similar factors were found to influence police interventions. Four or more of the studies identified victim factors as; gender of victim female, cohabiting with abusive partner, severity of injury and victim under the influence of alcohol or drugs. Four or more of the studies identified offender factors as; gender of offender male, severity of incident, use of weapon and offender under the influence of alcohol or drugs. Overall, it was observed that male offenders were arrested more often than female offenders. Women were more likely to be arrested if they were intoxicated and/or had used a weapon.

Responses to men appear to be affected adversely by the perceptions and assumptions related to gender. . Most of the studies show that police are more likely to see male offender as more dangerous and arrest him.

Results demonstrate that police may not be recognizing male victims of domestic violence as legitimate victims. However, there were no significant differences in the number of risk management strategies recommended by police for male and female victims or rates of arrest in studies that controlled for the number of male to female and female to male incidents.

The findings reveal that some of the variables are predictive of police actions for one gender but not the other. Factors increasing likelihood that the police are aware of an incident and more likely to make charges are: Lower socio-economic status, Multiple-abuse, children who witness abuse, victims still living with their partner, injuries,

seriousness of the assault. However, there were no effects of age of victim or location of incident.

In order to gain a better understanding of how police officer's attitudes and actions during domestic violence situations, more rigorous and longitudinal studies must be conducted. Many of the reviewed research studies on police samples relied on questionnaires and/or hypothetical scenarios. To grasp the true effect of victim gender, researchers must conduct studies on cases over multiple years. This would give researchers a more concrete understanding of how trainings can affect police officers. These studies must investigate and quantify police actions when on domestic violence calls. It would also be helpful to have more information gathered about the outcomes of each case, including the outcome for the victim.

In the absence of DVA case analyses of police referrals in Greece and the lack of information on police responses to male and female victims or the types of intervention police use in relation to a reported incidents, a questionnaire study of Greek police opinions and experience of female and male DVA victims was carried out to ascertain the their responses. This research is reported in the next Chapter 3. The contents of the questionnaire to police was influenced by the findings of the systematic review.

Chapter 3

Police Recognition of gender issues in relation to Domestic Violence and Abuse in Greece

Abstract

Aims: This study investigates the role of gender in domestic violence and abuse (DVA) as recognized by police officers in Greece. The aim of the research was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of police officers who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded. **Method:** A sample was collected from eight major police departments in Greece. The head of each police department was approached by the researcher and asked to distribute a questionnaire to police officers who work with DVA victims (90% male 10% female). In total 380 police officers were approached and 358 completed the questionnaire (95% response rate).

Results: Overall, nearly twice as many police officers referred to female victims (n=170) compared to male victims (n=83) of DVA. The Police officers indicated that female victims usually suffered from severe physical violence/GBH (43%) and psychological abuse (27%), whereas male victims were most likely to disclose minor physical injuries and verbal abuse (49%) and less psychological violence (10%). Arrest was the most common response for both female and male victims (51% and 60% respectively). Police participants indicted that offenders against males were more likely to be charged (28%) but less likely to be convicted (4%), whereas the opposite was reported for offenders of female victims (14% and 13% respectively). If the offender was known to the police, the opinion was they were *less* likely to be prosecuted. Police respondents reported no significant differences for female and male victims as to causal factors and reasons for NOT reporting DVA. These were; discrimination (31%), few DVA services (23%), intimidation (15%), shame and stigma of media reports (14%), lack of community support (6%) and personal reasons (9%). **Conclusion:** Findings are based on the opinions and experiences of participating police officers. This may not reflect the true picture. Nevertheless, some differences between female and male victims emerged.

Police Recognition of gender issues in relation to Domestic Violence and Abuse in Greece

Introduction

People experience and are affected by violence in different ways and the reasons underpinning Domestic Violence and Abuse (DVA) also differs between individuals and across relationships (Capaldi & Kim 2007; Huss & Langhinrichsen-Roling 2000; Johnston & Campbell 1993; Kelly & Johnson 2008; Lohr et al. 2005).

When Domestic Abuse (DVA) was first recognized as an issue of social significance in the 1970s, it was termed 'Domestic violence' or 'Spouse abuse' and conceptualized as a homogenous offence perpetrated by males toward females. This view has now been challenged and the heterogeneity of spouse abuse highlighted (Capaldi & Kim 2007; Dixon & Browne 2003; 2006, Dixon et al. 2010). In the traditional scenario, a male offender victimized their female partner in order to control and dominate her and any children in the family, perpetrating a series of violent and abusive acts that escalate in severity and frequency over time (Cavanaugh & Gelles 2005; Dixon et al 2007). Explanations for DVA have focused on male 'dysfunction' such as a violent background, mental health problems or alcohol/drug misuse rather than dysfunctions in family relationships (Browne and Herbert, 1997; Johnson, 2006ab; Dixon et al, 2007; Dixon et al. 2010).

Victim surveys, such as the Crime survey for England and Wales (CSEW-ONS 2018), using self-report measures estimated that 28.9 % of women and 13.2 % of men were estimated to have experienced domestic abuse and in the last year (7.9% compared with 4.2%) at the year ending March 2018. The lifetime prevalence for any form of domestic abuse since the age of 16 was estimated to be 26% of women and 15% of men aged 16 to 59. These data were based on a relatively broad definition of DVA including male and female victims of partner or family non-physical abuse, threats, force, sexual assault or stalking (Home Office 2012, House of Commons, 2018).

Research has shown DVA to encompass several different behaviors by both men and women, such as threats of violence, intimidation; verbal abuse and physical abuse

(Browne & Herbert, 1997; Koss, et al. 1994; LaViolette & Barnett, 2000; Frantzen, & San Miguel, 2009).

Police officers and other professionals who respond to DV incidents require an understanding of violence in relationships that incorporates both genders and the notion that not all domestic violence and abuse is the same.

The words ‘regardless of gender’ in the UK Government 2012 definition (Home Office 2012, House of Commons, 2018) are important as a study by Carlson and Worden (2005:1213) found that “respondents would judge women’s aggressive behavior differently from that of men. Police and social services are more likely to label behaviors associated with DVA as unlawful, when presented with a male rather than female perpetrator. This so-called ‘double standard’ may simply reflect unspoken assumptions about men’s greater potential for aggression and inflicting injuries and media images of ~~domestic violence and abuse~~ DVA as a crime committed by men against women.

Impact of gender on disclosure and arrests

The Scottish Government reported that police statistics for 2011 showed that ‘only 9% of DVA cases involve abused men’ (Dempsey, 2013). Previously, the Scottish Crime Survey 2000 (Scottish Office, 2000) asked individuals whose partners had used force against them (within the last 12 months) about whether the police became aware of it. Overall, 16% of male victims in comparison to 47% of female victims affirmed that the police were aware of at least one incident. Therefore, ‘less than one in six incidents of victimization against male victims had been reported to the police, compared with almost one in two incidents against female victims’ (Gadd, 2002; Gadd et al. 2002). A later study in the Netherlands (Drijber et al., 2013), contacted 372 abused men and found that ‘less than 32% had approached the police’ whilst ‘only 15% registered an official report’.

Donovan et al (2006), assert that one of the reasons why men do not report abuse to public agencies is that they consider themselves unlikely to receive a sympathetic response. This view stems from the lack of funds and services tailored to ‘recognize and respond to’ the needs of men. Thus, the approach of social services tends to render

the male victim of DVA invisible in most instances. Some researchers have argued that in male against female intimate violence, females are more likely to be accorded the status of victim due to their inferior social status relative to men (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Ferraro, 1989; Hanmer, et al. 1989). Another contributing factor to men's reluctance to report is the expectation of a limited police response.

Some men report that when they contact the police to report their partner's abuse, 'the police sometimes fail to respond to take a report' (Hines & Douglas, 2009; Hines, et al. 2007). Moreover, attempting to seek help may often be labeled as a 'counter allegation'. Stitt and Macklin (1995) found that on the few occasions when unreciprocated violence was reported to the police, the male victim instead of the female perpetrator was arrested.

There is evidence that the gender of the victim and the gender of the offender impact police responses to DVA and arrest decisions. Buzawa and Hotaling (2000), found in Massachusetts that incidents of male abuse were 5 times less likely to result in arrest than similar incidents concerning abused women. When females are offenders, they are less at risk of arrest in the USA compared to males due to their perceived lack of social power (Chesney-Lind, 1997; Dougherty, 1998). However, in the UK, Marianne Hester (2013), found that women were three times more likely than men to be arrested for a serious incident.

Other researchers have argued that police are *less* likely to perceive female offenders as dangerous and therefore less likely to arrest them (Felson, 1996; Mastrofski, et al. 2002; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Female DVA perpetrators can be dangerous as found by UK police homicide data that shows 10% of males are killed by their female partner or ex-partner. However, UK homicide statistics also show that as much as 50% of females are killed by their ex or current male partners (Office of National Statistics, 2018). Thus, an alternative assertion is that women report more DVA because they suffer more serious abuse compared to men and there is evidence that men are more likely to repeat incidents of DVA both as sole perpetrators as well as dual (mutual) perpetrators (Hester 2013). Therefore, DVA should be assessed on a case by case basis.

Role of the police

The police service is the primary agency in terms of protecting the public and preventing crime and disorder. Other agencies and partners share the responsibility to tackle domestic abuse and keep victims safe; it does not rest solely with the police. However, the police have an essential role to play. Until a decade ago, no further action was taken for three quarters of cases referred to the English police. A quarter of cases resulted in arrest, charged or caution (Browne & Hamilton, 1999). This was despite the fact that nearly one in two (47%) were repeat referrals and over one in four of the perpetrators were known to the police (27%). More recently in the UK, domestic violence police units play more than an active role in the prevention and detection of DVA with specially trained police officers responding to DVA incidents referred to them by other agencies or directly by helplines. The police work in partnership with probation services (multi agency public protection arrangements - MAPPA) and other agencies (multi-agency risk assessment conferences -MARAC) assess serious cases of known DVA and discuss options for increasing the safety of adult and child victim(s) and to respond with a co-ordinated action plan to manage the behaviour of the perpetrator.

According to Sun (2006), actions taken by the police in the USA when handling intimate partner violence incidents can be separated into two groups: coercive and non-coercive police actions. Coercive actions are responses such as arrest, threatening, search and seizure, and use of force. Officers use coercive force to show authority over those involved in that DVA situation and to maintain order. Non- coercive actions, such as counseling, mediation, aiding, and showing compassion, are more focused on providing the involved parties with emotional support (Sun, 2006).

Kwan (2009:18) states that with regard to all victims of intimate partner violence “Britain in this respect has been a pioneer to identify the problem, discuss it and have put in place a system to deal with it when there is a need of the criminal justice system.” Robinson (2007) refers to the Intimate Partner Violence, Crime and Victims Act (2004:357) as “the biggest overhaul of legislation on Intimate Partner violence in over

30 years”. Responses to DVA include police training, DVA assessments and expanding services available to victims and perpetrators of DVA incidents, with a shift from less formal methods of response (e.g., mediation) to an increase in arrests and convictions (White, 2007).

In the USA, Poteyeva and Sun (2009) reviewed 33 articles, between 1990 to 2006, to investigate if officer’s gender was related with attitudes toward (1) police role, (2) community policing, (3) the community and neighborhood residents, (4) job satisfaction, (5) stress, and (6) domestic violence. They found that responses to domestic violence was not significantly influenced by the gender of the police officer. The overarching finding was that officer gender had a very modest effect on attitudinal patterns of police officers. The assumption that females bring to the force a distinctly different set of attitudes was largely not supported by evidence in the reviewed studies. Therefore, the gender of the police officer was not considered in this study.

Domestic Abuse in Greek Society

It is claimed that DVA within the Greek society has prevalence rates that are similar to those reported in other countries (UN Department of Public Information (2009). However, it remains a taboo subject in the Greece and the reported rates of DVA experienced by women are likely to be underestimated. In 1999, Christina Antonopoulou found 34% of a Greek student sample reported they had been exposed to DVA in their childhood. In 2003 the same author carried out a victim survey of 1,200 Greek women and 3.6% reported physical violence, 3.5% reported sexual violence and 56% reported experiencing verbal and emotional abuse from their intimate partners. She suggested that only a few of these domestic abuse incidents are reported to the police (Antonopoulou, 2006). Higher rates were shown in another study of 1,122 cohabited couples in 2004. Interviews with 521 males and 601 females living with their partner for over 12 months found that 18.7% of couples had engaged in physical violence, 10.3% threatened violence, and 14% “obliged” their partner to have sex with 4% forcing their partner into “disgusting” activities. Over one in four couples (27%) reported emotional abuse (Tzamalouka, et al. 2007). The gender of victims was not reported but multiple regression analysis found that physical and

sexual violence was associated with males and emotional abuse was associated with females.

A study by Petropoulos and colleagues obtained domestic violence data from 19 of the 53 Police Departments in Greece. The areas covered had a population of 1,677,873 representing 15% of the Greek population. A total of 409 DVA incidents were reported involving 422 offenders, 94% of which were male offenders with a mean age 44 years (range 10 to 93). This gives an estimate of 0.06% of adult males perpetrating domestic violence in Greece (Petropoulos, et al. 2016).

In Greece, the term "Domestic violence" is used by Law 3500 (2006) to define the commission of a series of punishable acts against a family member or members. Articles 1, 6, 7, 8 and 9 of this law and Articles 299 and 311 of the Criminal Code identify the following penal offences of domestic violence: Domestic physical violence and threat. Rape and sexual abuse. Manslaughter and fatal injury. Furthermore, the Law provides judicial guarantees for the protection of victims of DVA in the family home or in public care such as residential care institutions (art.15), introduces Penal mediation (articles 11–14) and describes the extra-judicial aid to victims by the police, hospitals, social services and shelters (art.21).

This Greek legislation established that violence occurring within the family is a criminal act and should be treated as an inherent offense. An inherent offense signifies that Public Authorities, from the moment they receive any sort of notification regarding such an offense (for example, an anonymous written or oral statement, or an account from a neighbour, teacher, social worker, etc.), are mandated to begin to investigate the incident and possibly proceed to an arrest, even if there is no formal report placed by the victim(s) (Chatzifotiou et al., 2014).

As public awareness of violence between intimate partners has grown, so has criticism on the manner in which police respond to the issue. Many believe that police don't take domestic violence calls seriously as police intervention is deemed to be a family matter. However, police are important authority figures and are the first point of contact when violence occurs, they should see it as priority and respond in a timely manner to stop domestic abuse. In Greece, there is still a difference regarding the way police treat male and female victims. It is suggested that the police are more likely to label domestic

violence or DVA, as unlawful when there is evidence of a male rather than female perpetrator (Chatzifotiou et al. 2016)

Aims of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate the role of gender in DVA as recognized by police in Greece. The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of Police officers who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded and responded to.

The following five research questions were posed:

Research Question 1: What official statistics on DVA are recorded by Greek police at National level and is it separated by gender?

Research Question 2: (A) How DVA is recorded by police departments and is it separated by gender and (B) Has DVA incidents reported to the police increased?

Research Question 3: What are the experiences of police officers in relation to the abuse reported by women and men who are DVA victims?

Research Question 4: What are police officer's opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems?

Research Question 5: Are police interventions the same for all the victims regardless their gender?

Methods

Participants

On the recommendation of the Head of Athens central police department, a sample of police officers was obtained from the three most populated cities in mainland Greece (Athens, Thessaloniki and Patra including nearby Aigio), which correspondingly had the largest police departments. In addition, Crete the largest and most populated island in Greece was selected and police officers were recruited from police departments in the four administrative regions (Lasithi, Heraklion, Rethymno and Chania). In total 380 police officers were approached and 358 completed the questionnaire (95% response rate).

Procedure

The head of each police department was approached by the researcher (Appendix 8) and asked to distribute the questionnaire to police officers that work with DVA victims (90% male 10% female). In addition, the researcher asked for permission to access any available Greek data regarding DVA between 2010 and 2015. Permission was given for the Questionnaires (see Appendix 5) and an information sheet (see Appendix 9) to be distributed in January 2016. The questionnaire used for this research was created by the researcher and the study was approved from the University of Nottingham School of Medicine Ethics committee prior to distribution (see Appendix 13). The Questionnaire was distributed to and returned by the police during a 12month period (1st April 2016 to 31st March 2017).

Materials

A DVA questionnaire was distributed to police services (see Appendix 5). It contained three main sections in the following order;

Section one includes general information about if domestic abuse is defined or not and the ways in which Domestic abuse incidents are recorded (e.g. age of victim/offender, gender of victim/offender ethnic group etc.). The second section is aimed to find out the amount of support that is available to victims of Domestic Violence. It is divided in two sub-sections. The first one focused on male victims and the second one on female victims. The third section is about perceptions on causes of domestic violence and reasons that make victims reluctant to report the offence. This section is also divided in two sub-sections with the first one focused on perceptions about male victims and the second one focused on perceptions about female victims. All questions required a yes or no answer, some “yes” responses were indicated by ticking all those factors that were considered relevant to the question being asked (see Appendix 5).

A pilot study was run in order to ensure that all questions and instructions were easily understood, and no changes were needed. Two Greek police officers completed the pilot questionnaire in their offices and did not reveal any problems in the information and consent procedure, preceding instructions or the content and structure of the questionnaire for self-administration. It had been translated from English into Greek language and back translated by an official translator to avoid any possible mistakes.

Treatment of Data

Due to the nominal nature of the questionnaire data, which represented counts or frequencies of the number of respondents that answered 'yes' or 'no' to a question, the chi-square test of independence was used to infer a significant association between two or more nominal variables. The chi-square test determines whether the 'yes/no' proportions of one variable are significantly different to the 'yes/no' values of the other variable(s). This is established by comparing the observed frequencies (from the questionnaire responses) to the expected frequencies for each cell. The expected frequencies are calculated from the number of respondents in each condition or group when the variables are independent from each other and not associated. However, the Chi-square test is not accurate when 20% of cells the expected frequencies has an expected value of five or less. Under these circumstances, the Fisher's Exact test of association was used to infer significance and the p (probability) value (Siegel & Castellan, 1989).

Because of performing several independent statistical tests simultaneously, the Bonferroni correction is used, as a multiple-comparison correction. Spurious positive associations that may occur by chance are avoided by lowering the significant p value (eg; from $p < 0.05$ at a 95% level of confidence to $p < 0.01$ at a 99% level of confidence) to account for the number of comparisons being performed (Siegel & Castellan, 1989).

With 30 Questions and a significance level set at $p < 0.05$, the Bonferroni Correction was calculated; <https://www.easycalculation.com/statistics/bonferroni-correction-calculator.php>. A probability level as $P < 0.002$ was accepted on the multiple chi-squared tests or fisher's exact tests carried out on the questionnaire's nominal data.

With a confidence level of 95%, and a power level of 80%, the sample size needed to be 384 – so the study was slightly underpowered at $N=358$ and responses to the questions were dichotomized for analyses.

<https://selectstatistics.co.uk/calculators/sample-size-calculator-population-proportion/>

Ethical issues

After getting ethical approval from the University of Nottingham and Medical School Ethics Committee (see Appendix 13), participants were informed that their decision to anonymously participate are their choice and that their decision would not have any negative consequence for their job. In addition, each participant was told that they could take as long as they wish to consent and to complete the questionnaire and they have the right to withdraw at any stage. After reading the information sheet (see Appendix 9), police officers consented to participate by filling in the questionnaire. On receipt of an anonymously completed questionnaire, their voluntary participation was assumed as the individual could not be identified.

According to Foster and Parker (1995) 'Investigators have a primary responsibility to protect participants from physical and mental harm during the investigation.' (p. 14)

Efforts were made to ensure that participants are aware of the nature of this study in order to make informed decision whether, or not, it may cause any distress. The researcher considered it extremely unlikely that content of the questionnaires would result in any risk of harm or stress to participants. Moreover, participants were informed that they have the right to stop their participation at any time.

Every effort was made to ensure participants confidentiality and anonymity. The questionnaire involved some sensitive questions about their beliefs and work practices. Thus, the information sheet stated that participants should complete the questionnaire anonymously, which was crucial to gain valid responses. Participants had also been notified that any report of research would be by overall summary of findings which would contain no identifying information and everyone's anonymity would be preserved.

Results

Research Question 1 (a) and 1 (b): Official Statistics

With reference to the first research question, official statistics on DVA in Greece are only available and published at National level by the 'General Police Headquarters in Athens'. Any information relating to regional variation and gender of the perpetrator or

victim is not available from the police departments or directories. Indeed, it is difficult to obtain such data from national or local government sources, as the information is deemed sensitive, a national security issue and excluded from freedom of information requests (Centre for Law and Democracy, 2018). The exception is that a gender breakdown of female and male homicide victims is available from the ‘General Police Headquarters in Athens.’

Table 3.1a describes the number of Domestic Abuse (DVA) incidents reported to the Greek police and the number investigated by the police in Greece for a six-year period, from 2010 to 2015. On average 90% of victim reports were investigated and 39% of offenders arrested each year. A breakdown by gender of offenders and their victims was not available.

At a National level, Table 3.1a shows there were 3,902 incidents of DVA in Greece for 2015. The population of Greece in 2015 was 10,977,697 with approximately two-thirds aged between 15 and 64 years, representing about 7,300,000 (United Nations Statistics Division, 2018). This gives an approximate rate of 1 DVA incident reported to the police for every 1,800 people in this age group. Of the 3,902 incidents in 2015 nationally; 91.3 % were investigated by the police and 41% of identified offenders were arrested. These 2015 rates are the highest over the six-year period 2010 to 2015. It can be seen also that the number of DVA incidents reported to the Greek police dramatically increased during these years, from 1,303 offences in 2010 to 3,562 in 2015, which provides evidence for Research Question 2.

Table 3.1b describes the number of homicides associated with DVA that have been detected by the Greek police from 2010-2015 with the gender of the victim indicated. Over this 6-year period there was an average of 20 victims per year (11 female and 9 male). This represents approximately one DVA homicide victim in every 365,000 people aged between 15 and 64 years in Greece. All the DVA homicide cases recorded had been ‘solved’ by the police and the offender identified, arrested and charged. The data shows no significant difference in the number of cases with time over this six-year period. However, there is no mention of the gender of the offender, so we cannot say if these incidents are related to homosexual or heterosexual couples.

Table 3.1a:

Number of Domestic Abuse (DVA) incidents reported to the police in Greece from 2010 to 2015, the percent investigated, and offenders arrested.

Year	Offences	Offenders		Victims	
	Number of Incidents Investigated	Total Offenders Reported	Number Arrested N. (%)	Total Victim Reports	% Victim Reports Investigated
2010	1,303	1,400	544 (38.9)	1,446	90.1
2011	2,005	2,176	824 (37.9)	2,223	90.2
2012	2,451	2,716	1,042 (38.4)	2,720	90.1
2013	2,889	3,151	1,225 (38.9)	3,255	88.8
2014	3,503	3,859	1,523 (39.5)	3,914	89.5
2015	3,562	3,851	1,580 (41.0)	3,902	91.3

Table 3.1b

Number of homicides associated with Domestic Abuse (DVA) related to female and male victims detected by the police in Greece from 2010 to 2015.

Year	Homicide Cases	Victims (Females)	Victims (Males)
2010	28	11	17
2011	25	12	13
2012	13	5	8
2013	21	13	8
2014	19	12	7
2015	16	11	5

Research Question 2 (A): Police Responses to Questionnaire: How DVA is recorded by police departments and is it separated by gender?

In terms of what basic information is recorded by police (Table 3.2), responses to the Questionnaire by 358 police officers revealed that over half of the sample worked to a specific definition of DVA (58.1%) and kept a record of the gender of the victim

(54.7%). Whereas just under two-thirds (65.4%) kept a record of the gender of the offender. Age was recorded more often with three-quarters of respondents claimed to record the age of the victim and nearly as many (70.4%) the age of the offender. Regarding ethnic group, 59.8% record this for the victim and 60.6% for the offender. On average, one in six police officers did not respond or ‘did not know’ answers to these basic questions (Q. 2,3,4,5,6), which is concerning.

Table 3.2

Police opinions on what is recorded when dealing with Domestic Abuse (N=358)

Variables	Police					
	Yes		No		Do not know	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
DVA Definition	208	58.1	78	21.8	72	20.1
Gender of victim	196	54.7	80	22.4	82	22.9
Gender of offender	234	65.4	61	17.0	63	17.6
Age of victim	269	75.1	42	11.8	47	13.1
Age of offender	252	70.4	51	14.2	55	15.4
Ethnicity of victim	214	59.8	87	24.3	57	15.9
Ethnicity of offender	217	60.6	86	24.0	55	15.4

Research Question 2 (B): Police Responses to Questionnaire: Has incidents reported to the police increased?

More than 9 out of ten police officers (93.6%) in the sample gave an opinion on whether DVA to women had changed over the past 5 years, with 76.2 % suggesting it had increased, 15.6% saying it had stayed the same and only 1.7% claiming it had decreased (Q.10). There were fewer responses from police officers in relation to male victims with 6 out of 10 (60.9%) giving an opinion. Of these, 25.7% suggested that it had increased, 33.8% saying that it had stayed the same and only 1.4% claiming it had decreased over the past 5 years (Q.9).

Research Question 3; Experiences of Domestic Abuse (DVA)

Responses to the Questionnaire gave information about the experiences of 320 police officers in relation to the type of DVA reported to them by female and male victims. The police officers perceived DVA as a problem between heterosexual couples with 76% of respondents categorizing violence to women by men and 24% of women to men. Only 4% of police officers had experience of DVA between two men or two women (homosexual and lesbian couples). Therefore, the perceptions beliefs and opinions of police officers reported on the questionnaire predominantly related to heterosexual couples (Q.5).

Table 3.3 indicates that, in the police officer's experience, female victims were more likely to suffer from severe physical violence/GBH (41.4%) and psychological and verbal abuse (22.8%) compared to male victims. Whereas male victims were more likely to disclose to the police moderate/minor physical injuries (49.4%). Sexual abuse showed the least difference and was mentioned by 14.8% of police respondents for female victims and 13.3% for male victims (Q.5, 8). Overall, nearly three times as many police officers (74%) referred to female victims (n=237) compared to (26%) referring to male victims (n=83) in relation to all types of DVA (Chi-squared test= 25.92 (df=3), $p < 0.0001$). This reflects the lack of police officers with male victims.

Table 3.3

Type of domestic violence and abuse by Gender based on police officers' experience (N=320)

Type of violence	Female		Male		Both Genders	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Moderate/Minor physical	50	21.1	41	49.4	91	28.4
Severe physical (GBH)	98	41.4	23	27.7	121	37.8
Sexual	35	14.8	11	13.3	46	14.4
Psychological /verbal	54	22.8	8	9.6	62	19.4
Total	237	100	83	100	320	100

Chi-squared test= 25.92 (df=3) $p < 0.0001$

There were few significant gender differences in police officers (N=358) opinions on the causes of DVA to women and men (Qu.20A, 20B). Factors reported to be causes for women and men as victims were; drug and alcohol misuse (86.3% vs 86.8% of respondents respectively), issues about the children (75.4% vs 81.6%), access to safe alternative accommodation (73.2% vs 72.1%), retaliation to abuse (77.6% vs 69.5%), financial worries (82.7% vs 54.7%), infidelity (70.9% vs 55.8%), partner's history of violence (42.1 % and 51.4%), unemployment (20.7% vs 27.0%), and other factors (55.6% vs 45.8%). Only the impact of a patriarchal culture (73.4% vs 19.8% respectively) and lack of support from the criminal justice system (5.3% vs 31.5%) were deemed by police officers to significantly differ as a likely cause of DVA (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.05$, $df=1$, two-tail).

Research Question 4: Reasons why female and male victims fail to report.

In the opinion of the police respondent sample (N=358), 88.3% of women and 83.5% of men were reluctant to report DVA victimization (Q.18B,18A). Police respondents (n=336), reported no significant differences for female and male victims' reasons for NOT reporting DVA. They implied that discrimination (31%), few DVA services (23%), intimidation (15%), shame and stigma of media reports (14%), lack of community support (6%) and other personal reasons (9%) were responsible for victims failing to report (Q.18A,18B,19A,19B).

However, there were significant differences between males (51.4% and 40.8% of the time) and females (99.4% and 98.3% of the time) in police officers opinions that victims are encouraged to report DVA incidents to the police and social services (respectively), with male victims encouraged much less than female victims (Q.11A, 11B,12A,12B). These opinions may be related to a lack of police training to support male victims of DVA. About a third of police respondents (34.1%) had attended training in relation to male victims in comparison to nine out of ten (92.7) police officers who had attended training to support female victims (Q.13A,13B). Only 27.4% of police claimed there were safe refuges for male victims compared to 91.9% who claimed safe refuges for female victims (Q.14A,14B). In the experience of police officers, only 11.5% of males take their children with them compared to 91.9% of

female victims (Q.15A,15B). All these differences between male and female victims were significant when a Fisher's Exact test was applied ($p < 0.05$, $df=1$, two-tail).

Overall, 95.3% of police officers believed that female victims would receive intervention in Greece for the DVA they had suffered but only 55.9% of police officers believed that male victims would be helped. Regarding treatment programmes for offenders, nearly half of the police responders believed that these were available to men (49.7%) and women (45.8%) in the Greek community. A minority of police officers believed that there were intervention programmes in prisons for men (10.9% of police) and women (20.9% of police) regarding DVA (Q.16A,17A,16B,17B). However, evidence of implementation of these treatment and intervention programmes in Greece is hard to find.

Research Question 5: Police interventions in relation to Gender

Regarding the likely action taken by the police (Q.7) with offenders (See Table 3.4); a report only with no further action was more likely with female victims (22.0%) than with male victims (8.5%). By contrast, arrest of the offender was the most common response, with little difference between female and male victims (50.6% and 59.8% respectively). Police participants ($N=250$) indicted that offenders against male victims were more likely to be charged (28%) but less likely to be convicted (3.7%), whereas the opposite was reported for offenders of female victims (14.3% and 13.1% respectively, Chi-Squared Test=17.02 ($df=3$), $p < 0.001$). Of 348 police respondents 36 (10.3%) had experience of securing a conviction for DVA. This success was mainly significantly associated with evidence of sexual abuse to the victim in 58% of convictions, evidence of physical abuse in 19.4% and psychological/emotional abuse in 22.0%.

In the police respondents experience ($N=200$), both the offender and victim were previously known to the police nearly two-thirds (65%) of the time. The police officers claimed that only 6% of cases neither the victim nor the offender were known to the police beforehand. Where only one of the DVA partners are known to the police (29% of the time), it is more likely to be the female partner (34.9%) rather than the male partner (18.3%) and this was the situation over all cases (Chi-Squared test 7.86 ($df=2$) $p < 0.02$) – See Table 3.5.

Table 3.4

Action taken by the police by gender of DVA victims according to their opinion and experience (N=250)

Intervention Ends in:	Female victims		Male Victims		Both Genders	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Reported only	37	22.0	7	8.5	44	17.6
Arrest	85	50.6	49	59.8	134	53.6
Charged	24	14.3	23	28.0	47	18.8
Conviction	22	13.1	3	3.7	25	10.0
Total	168	100	82	100	250	100

Chi-Squared test= 17.02 (df=3) $p<0.001$

Table 3.5

Police experience of previous knowledge of DVA victim and/or offender by gender of victim (N=200)

Variable	Female victim		Male Victim		Both	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Victim or offender not known to police	5	3.9	7	9.9	12	6.0
Victim or offender known to police	45	34.9	13	18.3	58	29.0
Both Victim and offender known to police	79	61.2	51	71.8	130	65.0
Total	129	100	71	100	200	100

Chi-Squared test 7.86 (df=2) $p<0.02$

Overall (for both genders), there were no significant differences in the way the police reported their response when the offender is known compared to when the victim is known (See Table 3.6). Indeed, there was a similar percentage for both known offenders and known victims in relation to arrests (52%) and charges (19%), when females and males are combined. However, if the offender was known to the police following

female victim reports, the opinion was they were *less* likely to be prosecuted (see Table 3.6). Significantly more female than male victim reports ended in 'report only' (33.7% vs 10.6%) and as a result there were less end in 'charges' (12.6% vs 28.8) for known offenders (Chi Squared: 14.32 df=3, $p < 0.002$). Furthermore, if the victim was known to the police following female victim reports, the opinion was they were *more* likely to be prosecuted See Table 6). When the victim is known; significantly more female than male reports end in 'convictions' (16.0% vs 5.4%) and less ended in 'charges', only (13% vs 32.1%) (Chi Squared: 14.51 df=3, $p < 0.002$).

Table 3.6

Action taken by the police with known offenders and known victims by Gender of DVA victim

Intervention Ends in	Female victim				Male victim				Both genders***			
	Known Offender		Known Victim		Known Offender		Known Victim		Known Offender		Known Victim	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Reported only	32	33.7*	24	18.3	7	10.6*	4	7.1	39	24.2	28	15
Arrest	46	48.4	69	52.7	37	56.1	31	55.4	83	51.6	100	53.5
Charged	12	12.6*	17	13.0	19	28.8*	18	32.1	31	19.3	35	18.7
Conviction	5	5.3	21	16.0**	3	4.5	3	5.4 **	8	5.0	24	12.8
Total	95	100	131	100	66	100	56	100	161	100	187	100

**When the offender is known; more female than male victim reports end in 'report only' and less in 'charges',*

Chi Squared: 14.32 df=3, p< 0.002

***When the victim is known; more female than male victim reports end in 'convictions' Chi Squared: 14.51 df=3, p< 0.002,*

**** No significant differences between known victims and known offenders.*

Discussion

The general population in Greece, like in the USA (Straus, 1993), views female assaults less serious than assaults committed by men. Similarly, since police most often deal with female victims of DVA, they may have a more difficult time viewing males as victims, as observed in the USA (Buzawa & Austin, 1993). Therefore, when a male meets the legal criteria of victim, he may have greater difficulty than a female victim in having an assault defined as an DVA incident and obtaining the help and assistance required. This Study investigated whether Greek police officers recognized both female and male victims of DVA and whether they respond differently. This study represents a first attempt to gather police officer's opinions on gender in relation to DVA and information on the way that police officers respond to victims based on gender. However, the perceptions, beliefs and opinions of police officers reported in this study predominantly related to heterosexual couples, as less than 2% had experience of DVA between same sex couples.

Currently official police statistics on DVA at a National level is not available in Greece. Major police directories in Greece were able to provide only limited statistics (summarized in Table 1 and 2). According to these official statistics on DVA there has been an increase in the number of reported incidents during the last six years. However, the reason is not clear. It may be a consequence of the economic crisis in Greece or that people are more aware of DVA with an increase in reports to the police. Indeed, there have been major campaigns' highlighting DVA and police officers have received training on how to deal with DVA incidents. The official data provided by the Greek police did not separate females and males, except for domestic homicide. On average 90% of victim reports were investigated and 39% of offenders arrested each year. The official data demonstrated a significant increase in victim reports of DVA incidents investigated and offenders reported and arrested from 2010 to 2015 (Table 1). By contrast, domestic homicide statistics show no significant relationship with time over this six-year period, although the number of male victims appeared to decrease (Table 2). However, there is no mention of the gender of the offender, so we cannot say if these incidents are related to homosexual or heterosexual murders.

Findings from the police questionnaire reflected the respondent's perceptions, beliefs and opinions based on the experiences of 358 police officers (90% male, 10% female). This revealed that only 54.7% always recorded the gender of the victim and 65.4% the gender of the offender, when investigating an DVA incident. Three-quarters of the police officers believed that DVA to women had increased in Greece during the past five years but only a quarter felt that DVA to men had increased.

The Questionnaire also asked about the experiences of police officers in relation to the abuse reported by women and men who are DVA victims. Their responses indicated significant differences between female and male victims. From the 320 Police officers who responded to questions on the type of violence observed; female victims were associated with severe physical violence/GBH and psychological and verbal abuse, whereas male victims were associated with moderate and minor physical injuries. Sexual abuse was mentioned by police respondents for a similar number of female than male victims. The fact that Greek police officers believe that female victims suffer more severe injury and coercive psychological abuse compared to male victims who suffer less severe injuries is consistent with data from domestic violence cases in England (Hester 2013) and a previous study of cohabitating couples in Greece (Tzamalouka et al., 2007). This suggest that DVA used by men against female partners is much more severe than used by women against men as observed in DVA cases described by Marianne Hester (2013). Therefore, when mutual aggression occurs between intimate partners, it is more likely that the woman will be worse affected (Dixon & Browne 2003, 2006).

There were few significant gender differences in police officers (N=358) opinions on the causes of DVA to women and men. Consistent with the literature (e.g.; Browne & Herbert, 1997), this included; drug and alcohol misuse, issues about the children, access to safe alternative accommodation, retaliation to abuse, financial worries, infidelity, partner's history of violence and unemployment. Only the impact of a patriarchal culture on women and lack of support from the criminal justice system for men were deemed by police officers to significantly differ as a likely cause of DVA.

Police respondents (n=336) reported no significant differences for female and male victim's reasons for failing to report DVA. Nevertheless, 98% of police officers

believed that females were encouraged to report DVA to police and social services compared to less than 52% of police officers for male victims. Only 27.4% of police claimed there were safe refuges for male victims compared to 91.9% who claimed safe refuges for female victims.

Many men may justifiably fear that they will receive different treatment due to an attitude geared towards protecting women. What is worse is that some abusive women may exploit this fear. They may sometimes manipulate the situation, making the victim less likely to report. Hines et al (2007) recognized that some women acknowledge that the DVA 'system was designed to help them and that they may sometimes use their gender to gain advantage over their male partners'. Browne (1999) found that abusive women often claim self-defense because 'they know society will believe them rather than their male partner'. This may be used as a threat by female abusers, as a tool to prevent the male victim from reporting assault and to continue the abuse.

Many male victims may not want to involve the police because they lack faith in the police impartiality. Therefore, it can be concluded that the attitudes of the police, whether deliberate or unintentional, are one of the reasons that less attention is paid to male victims of DVA.

The Questionnaire to the police asked about their experience of interventions and police responses and whether these were the same for all the victims regardless their gender. Regarding the likely action taken by the police with offenders; the police respondents (N=250) stated that arrest of the offender was the most common response for both female and male victim reports with a higher number of female offenders arrested (59.8%) than male offenders (50.6%). In addition, police participants indicted that offenders against male victims were more likely to be charged but less likely to be convicted whereas the opposite was reported for offenders of female victims (see Table 4). For both genders, if the offender was known to the Greek police, the opinion was they were less likely to be prosecuted.

The police officer's opinions on police response is again consistent with data from domestic violence cases in England (Hester 2013), as it was observed that women were more likely to be arrested than men. This was related to the fact that women were more likely to use weapons (Hester 2013). It is claimed that the gender neutrality associated

with positive arrest policies in the USA may result in female gender injustice where women get arrested for self-defense from more severe male aggression (Durfee 2012; Miller 2001).

In most countries, the police are the first state agency to respond to DVA incidents, following reports from the victim or by a third party who witnessed or became aware of an DVA incident. The outcome of an DVA incident potentially relies on the way the police respond.

The Greek Police have made DVA one of their priorities, as first responders. The Chief of the Greek Police has issued a training guide for police officers, highlighting expected behaviors from officers and cautioning against the use of stereotypes. The standardized procedures that the police should follow once they are dispatched to respond to an DVA incident are described by Chatzifotiou et al. (2016): A report (anonymous or identified) must be filed at the police department, either by the victim themselves or by another individual. If the incident reported is considered an offense, the perpetrator is arrested, an evidentiary case is built against them and they are ordered to appear before the District Attorney (Public Prosecutor). Yet when the incident does not fall under the aforementioned category of “offense”, the police authorities inform the District Attorney, who in turn orders police authorities to begin a preliminary investigation of the case and to collect all evidentiary materials that may support legal action against the perpetrator at a later date.

Conclusion

Overall, the findings from this study largely supported the findings of the Systematic Review (Chapter 2). The Greek police officer responses to the Questionnaire would indicate that further training is required to establish equal rights and police responses to both female and male DVA victims. The opinions expressed by the Greek police respondents in this study, may be related to a lack of police training to enhance support male victims of DVA. About a third of police respondents (34.1%) had attended training in relation to male victims in comparison to nine out of ten police officers (92.7%) who had attended training to support female victims. This demonstrates that new Greek Law and Guidelines need to be equally applied to both men and women,

especially in relation to the increase in domestic violence and abuse reports to the Greek police.

A gender sensitive approach to determine the primary aggressor has been recommended by Miller (2001). This approach differentiates between initiator and retaliator by considering the context and pattern of incident over time on a case by case basis rather than the police taking a purely incident based approach.

There was a paucity of research identified in the scoping exercise for the systematic literature review in relation to professional responses to DVA victims. Hence, the Questionnaire for police officers was adapted for use with professionals in order to explore professionals' recognition of gender issues in relation to DVA in Greece. Furthermore, to compare professional responses to female and male victims to that of police officers in order to inform and validate victim experiences in Chapter 6.

Chapter 4

Professionals' recognition of the role of gender within Domestic Abuse in Greece

Abstract

Aims: This study investigates the role of gender in Domestic Abuse (DVA), as recognized by professionals in Greece. The aim of the research was to investigate the perceptions and beliefs of professionals who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded. **Method:** A sample was collected from five DVA support organizations in Greece. The head of each organizations was approached by the researcher and asked to distribute a questionnaire to Professionals who work with DVA victims. In total 327 professionals completed the questionnaire. **Results:** 211 (65%) professionals confirmed that they had dealt with a female victim and a male offender, whereas only 91 (28%) claimed they had recorded at least one case of female offender and male victim. In their experience, female victims suffered mostly from severe physical violence/GBH (33% of respondents), whereas male victims were most likely to disclose to the police minor/moderate physical injuries (15%). Professionals reported significant differences for female and male victims as to reasons for NOT reporting DVA. They implied that absence of support services (31%) for males was the main reasons that make male victims reluctant to report the incident to the police. Regarding females this reason was only 18%. With regard to the causal factors of DVA professionals believed that they were similar for men and women. **Conclusion:** Findings of this Study, which were based on the opinions and experiences of professionals working with DVA victims, may not reflect the true picture of victim experiences. Nevertheless, evidence emerged from professional opinions that the gender of the victim is thought about and male and female victims are treated differently.

Professionals' recognition of the role of gender within Domestic Abuse in Greece

Introduction

The European Commission (2016) investigated 'gender-based violence' by carrying out a survey in 28 member states in June 2016, involving 27,818 people of the general public. Overall, the survey found that 74 per cent of respondents considered 'domestic violence' against women to be common in their country and were aware of support services for victims. By contrast, 29 per cent thought that 'domestic violence' against men to be common in their country. Almost all respondents (96%) said 'domestic violence' against women and men was unacceptable (96% and 94% respectively) but few believed it should be a criminal offence (12% to 14%) and 15 per cent of respondents viewed 'domestic violence to be a private matter between family members. These viewpoints were more common in Eastern Europe where the respondents were least aware of support services for victims.

Regarding incidents of DVA, 24 per cent of respondents knew a friend or family member who had been a victim, 18 per cent knew of someone in their neighbourhood and 10 per cent knew of someone at work. In all three contexts, most of these victims are most likely to be women. Seven out of ten respondents had spoken about what they knew either with friend or family member (39%) or with the people involved (33%) but only 12% had told the police. The remainder of respondents (3 out of ten) were reluctant to share their knowledge because it was none of their business, not wanting to create trouble or a lack of clarity or proof.

In Greece, there were 3,902 incidents of DVA for 2015 (see Chapter 3). The population of Greece in 2015 was 10,977,697 with approximately two-thirds aged between 15 and 64 years, representing about 7,300,000 (United Nations Statistics Division, 2018). This gives an approximate rate of 1 DVA incident reported to the police for every 1,800 people in this age group (0.06%). Of the 3,902 incidents in 2015 nationally; 91.3 % were investigated by the police and 41% of identified offenders were arrested. These 2015 rates are the highest for six years (see chapter 3). The incidents rate of 0.06% for the Greek population is the same as that reported by Petropoulos et al. 2016. If we compare the incident rate of 0.06% with the (27%)

prevalence rate for any form of DVA (Tzamalouka 2007) then only one Greek victim in 400 is reporting the DVA incident to the police.

Many victims and survivors of DVA, rely on their informal networks. They also require the availability of victim refuges, counselling and the support of social and health services. Early intervention can enable people to break away from the entrapment of an abusive relationship, with help on alternative housing, income, separation and divorce. Professionals working in this field play a vital role in addressing these issues.

People experience many barriers when seeking services for DVA. In the USA, DVA is usually seen as a woman's problem (Douglas et al., 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Johnson, 2012). Men encounter external barriers such as being accused as a perpetrator and being referred to violence reduction programs, (Douglas et al., 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Tsui et al., 2010). Internal barriers prevent reporting the abuse or seeking help. These include denial, fear, stigma and/or shame and embarrassment in admitting they were abused (Barkhuizen, 2015; Douglas et al., 2012; Drijber et al., 2013; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Shuler, 2010; Tsui, 2014; Tsui et al., 2010).

The relative lack of services for male victims seems to occur in many countries for example, England and Wales have only 60 shelter locations available for male DVA victims, compared to 7,500 locations where shelters are available for women DVA victims (Hall, 2012).

Aims of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate the role of gender Domestic abuse (DVA), as recognized by professionals in Greece. The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of Professionals who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded and responded to.

The following five research questions were posed:

Research Question 1: How is DVA recorded by professionals and is it separated by gender?

Research Question 2: Has DVA incidents reported to support organisations increased?

Research Question 3: What are the experiences of professionals in relation to the abuse reported by women and men who are DVA victims?

Research Question 4: Is professional support the same for all the victims regardless their gender?

Research Question 5: Are professionals' interventions the same for all the victims regardless their gender?

Research Question 6: What are professionals' opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems?

Research Question 7: What are the likely causes of domestic abuse against men and women?

Methods

Participants

Overall, 327 Greek professionals who work in the field of DVA completed the Questionnaire from a sample of 350 questionnaires distributed using a snowballing method within five organisations (97% response rate). Most respondents were social workers and volunteers working with victims who were referred or contacted the support agencies or social services. In addition, the questionnaire was passed to a minority of psychologists and lawyers working with these organisations and their clients. The main criterion for the selection of the participants were that they have worked or are still working with DVA victims either male or females. A limitation of the research was that the profession of each respondent was not recorded.

Procedures

DVA support organizations were approached by letter (Appendix 10) and asked to distribute a questionnaire for professionals to complete. The Questionnaire on attitudes and opinions about domestic abuse reports (Appendix 5) had been previously distributed to the police (see Chapter 3). All five DVA support organizations that accepted to take part in this research were asked to distribute the Questionnaires, provided by the researcher, using a snowballing method. In total, 327 questionnaires were received from the following organizations:

1) DIMOS PATREON DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SUPPORT (DPDSS) provided 12 questionnaires. This is a Local Authority organisation in Patra, Greece that supports people experiencing problems in their personal, family and social lives. Social Service Officers address daily living needs (housing, education nutrition, exemption or reduction of municipal fees, etc.). Individual and family counseling is available to adults and young people, parents and individuals dependent on substances and alcohol. It also provides individual and group counseling for parents on family relationships, communication and education. In addition, psychological services/psychotherapy is offered to adults with anxiety, phobias, depression and personality disorders.

2) THE NATIONAL CENTRE FOR SOCIAL SOLIDARITY (EKKA) provided 36 questionnaires and is a State Organization based in Athens under the authority of the Ministry of Labour, Social Insurance and Social Solidarity. It provides social support services, care and solidarity to individuals, families, groups and populations experiencing crisis situations or need emergency social aid (par.2, article 6, Bill 3106/2003). The services provided include:

- “Counseling as well as information regarding welfare issues at a personal, group and community level;
- Emergency and short-term psychological support to individuals, families and groups experiencing crisis situations;
- Emergency intervention "on the spot" in situations of crisis due to social problems or physical phenomena and mass disasters for the provision of psychological and social support;
- Shelters for emergency social care to vulnerable individuals being in need of emergency social aid.
- Facilitate access to social welfare and legal services for individuals and groups being in need of emergency social aid;
- Coordination and implementation of social welfare and volunteer programmes to treat the social needs for emergency situations and to prevent social exclusion”.

3) THE PARENTAL EQUALITY ASSOCIATION (GONIS) provided 66 questionnaires. This is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) and non-profit association with departments around

Greece that advocates harmonious and comprehensive upbringing of a child, which promotes the presence of both parents regardless of their marital status in a non-violent home environment.

4) The ASSOCIATION FOR MEN & FATHERS DIGNITY and EQUAL PARENTITY (SYGAPA) provided 74 questionnaires. This is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) and no profit association with departments around Greece that provides help and support to mostly male (but also female) victims of DVA and especially to those who are claiming custody of their children after they have been alienated from them. It works closely with the 'Fathers4Justice' in the UK and its mission is:

- "To end fatherlessness and family breakdown.
- To ensure all children having a meaningful, loving relationship with their fathers.
- To ensure fathers have a legal presumption of 50/50 shared parenting after separation.
- To protect children, fathers, grandparents and other family members from cruel and degrading treatment which can result in their forced separation through the courts.
- To open the door on closed courts and secure open justice for all with the introduction of a 'duty of candor', scrutiny, transparency and regulation of the courts.
- To end Child Support discrimination against fathers on the basis of their gender.
Child support should mean emotional and financial support.
- To end the demonization and denigration of men and boys in society.
- To engage in immediate, radical reform of the entire family justice system".

5) UNITED WOMEN ASSOCIATIONS OF HERAKLION (UWAH) provided 128 questionnaires. This is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) and non-profit association on the island of Crete. It is an organization for women's and children rights that operates a 24/7 emergency telephone line, a shelter for women victims of domestic abuse, a counselling centre and a homeless unit for people in economic crisis.

This NGO is active in the following fields:

- "Protection of women rights and the promotion of gender equality including migrant women.

- Provision of shelter assistance and psycho-social support services to abused women and children;
- Operation of Counselling Centre for women aiming at the scientific provision of services (psychological support, legal advice, return of abused women to the labour market etc).
- Provision of counselling and social services to women in danger and children including migrant women.
- SOS helpline operation for reporting domestic abuse incidents and support (24/7);
- Actions of dissemination, awareness raising and education for the abused women either at private level or social level (work etc.);
- Mentoring to women on re-entering the labour market (women victims of domestic abuse).
- Supporting women with self-help groups in Heraklion;
- Protection of abandoned children of age 0-6;
- Promotion of Foster Families within society.
- Provision of services to homeless persons and persons that face poverty problems, including migrants”.

UWAH cooperates closely with local institutions, the local authorities, social workers and the police.

In addition to the above, 11 independent professionals in the field of domestic abuse also agreed to share their experiences and complete the questionnaire. Only two organizations (KETHI, General Secretary of Equality) refused to take part in the research since as they admitted their responses are going to be biased toward female victims of DVA. Professionals from these two organizations only work with female victims and would have little knowledge of male victims.

The head of each organisation was approached by the researcher and asked to distribute the questionnaire (see Appendix 5) and an information sheet (see Appendix 9) to professionals that work with DVA victims, professionals consented to participate by filling in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire used for this research was created by the researcher and the study was approved from the University of Nottingham School of Medicine Ethics committee before it

was distributed. The Questionnaire was distributed to and returned by professionals during a 12month period (1 October 2016 to 30th November 2017). All questionnaires were completed and returned by the end of 2017.

Materials

The same questionnaire was used as that described in Chapter 3 and adapted for use with professionals (see Appendix 5). It contained three main sections in the following order;

Section one asked about the type of organization, the way DVA is defined or not and the ways on how DVA incidents are recorded from that organization (e.g. age of victim/offender, gender of victim/offender ethnic group etc.).

Section Two asked about the amount of support and interventions that is available to victims of domestic abuse.

Section Three asked about perceptions on causes of domestic abuse and reasons that make victims reluctant to report the offence. How relevant organisations were seen to treat the DVA victim concluded the questionnaire.

Each of the three sections was divided in two with the first part focused on perceptions about male victims and the second part focused on perceptions about female victims.

A pilot study was run in order to ensure that all questions and instructions were easily understood, and no changes were needed. Two Greek professionals completed the pilot questionnaire in their offices and did not reveal any problems in the information and consent procedure, preceding instructions or the content and structure of the questionnaire for self-administration. It had been translated from English into Greek language and back translated by an official translator to avoid any possible mistakes.

Treatment of Data

Again, the Chi-Square Test was used together with a Bonferroni Correction (see page 91) to infer significant differences between variables based on professional responses.

In addition, Spearman's Rank order correlation co-efficient (Spearman's rho) was calculated were professional responses to female and male victim questions appeared similar. Like the chi-square test, Spearman's rho is a non-parametric test that does not assume 'homogeneity of

variance' and is used in preference to a parametric test (e.g.; Pearson's r correlation co-efficient) where it is observed that the data is not normally distributed.

Spearman's rho is a descriptive statistic. It summarises the direction and degree of relationship between two variables. It compares the rank order of frequencies (e.g.; rank order highest to lowest) between two variables and provides a level of significance (probability p value) for the degree of similarity (positive correlation) or contrast (negative correlation) of that relationship. A Spearman's rho correlation co-efficient of greater than 0.90 was deemed highly significant as it approaches a perfect correlation of 1.0 (Siegel & Castellan, 1989).

With 30 Questions and a significance level set at $p < 0.05$, the Bonferroni Correction was calculated; <https://www.easycalculation.com/statistics/bonferroni-correction-calculator.php>. A probability level as $P < 0.002$ was accepted on the multiple chi-squared tests or Fisher's exact tests carried out on the questionnaire's nominal data.

With a confidence level of 95%, and a power level of 80%, the sample size needed to be 384 – so the study was underpowered at $N=327$ and responses to the questions were dichotomized for analyses. <https://selectstatistics.co.uk/calculators/sample-size-calculator-population-proportion/>

Ethical issues

The same ethics procedures were carried out as described for the Questionnaire study of the police (see page 92).

Results

Research Question 1: How is DVA recorded by professionals and is it separated by gender?

In terms of what information is recorded by professionals, responses to the Questionnaire by 327 professionals revealed that; 69.1% of the sample worked to a specific definition of DVA, 67.3% records the gender of the victim and 52.6% the gender of the offender. In addition,

76.5% record the age of the victim and 69.7% the age of the offender. With regard to ethnic group, 59.3% record this for the victim and 60.2% for the offender (Q.2,3,4,6).

With regard to information recorded on categories of violence based on gender of victim and gender of offender, 211 (64.5%) professionals confirmed that they dealt with a female victim and a male offender whereas for 91 (27.8%) claimed they had recorded at least one case of female offender and male victim. Regarding homosexual relationships only 2 (0.6%) professionals mentioned female to female domestic abuse and the same number mentioned the male to male abuse. In other words, 302 (92.3%) professionals had experience domestic abuse in heterosexual relationships and only 4 (1.2%) in homosexual relationships. 21 professionals, (6.5%) did not give an answer to this question. (Q.5).

Research Question 2: Has DVA incidents reported to support organisations increased?

Table 4.1 shows more than nine out of ten professionals (94.9%) in the sample gave an opinion on whether DVA to women had changed over the past 5 years, 75.8 % suggesting it had increased, 17.4% saying it had stayed the same and only 0.6% claiming it had decreased.

Table 4.1

Professional opinions on changes in the number of referrals for male and female victims of Domestic Abuse. (N=327).

<i>Opinions on changes</i>	Women		Men	
	n	%	n	%
Increased	248	75.8	153	46.8
Decreased	2	0.6	0	0
Stayed the Same	57	17.4	95	29.1
No Answer	20	6.1	79	24.2
Total	327	100	327	100

There were fewer responses from professionals in relation to male victims with 7 out of 10 (75.8%) giving an opinion. Of these, 46.8% suggested that it had increased, 0% saying that it had decreased and only 29.1% claiming it had stayed the same over the past 5 years. Although there were less respondents believing that male victims had increased, there were no significant differences between respondent's opinions when 'increased' was compared to 'decreased/stayed the same' responses (Chi Square = 0.23, df=1, p = 0.88). (Q.9,10).

Research Question 3: What are the experiences of professionals in relation to the abuse reported by women and men who are DVA victims?

Responses to the Questionnaire (Q.8) gave information about the experiences of professionals in relation to the type of abuse reported to them by female and male victims of DVA. Table 4.2 indicates that female victims were usually suffering from severe physical violence/GBH (46.6%), and sexual violence (19.6%), followed by physical moderate/minor violence (18.6%) and psychological/verbal abuse (15.2%). Whereas male victims were most likely to disclose to the police minor/moderate physical injuries (50%) followed by severe physical violence (26.1%), sexual (18.2%) and psychological and verbal abuse (5.7%). However as indicated in Table 4.2, the responses came from 292 out of 327 professionals. The remaining 35 professionals (10.7%) were excluded from the chi-square calculation since no information was provided. In relation to all types of DVA, it was noted that 70% of professionals referred to female victims (n=204) compared to 30% referring to male victims (n=88). This reflects the lack of professional experience with male victims.

Research Question 4: Is professional support the same for all the victims regardless their gender?

In terms of what professionals believe regarding support available to male victims of DVA (Table 4.3), responses to the Questionnaire by 327 professionals revealed that; 183 (56%) of male victims are encouraged to report incidents to the police and 39 (11.9%) of professionals say that they are not. This is in stark contrast to female victims, as 325 (99.4%) of professionals stated that females are encouraged to report, and no professionals said that they are not. The

same trend appeared regarding encouragement of DVA victims to contact social services with 215 (65.7%) responding *yes* for male victims and 15 (4.6%) responding *no*. Whereas for female victims 321 (98.2%) said that they are encouraged to contact social services and only 6 (1.8%) said that they are not (Q.11A,11B,12A,12B). Of the sample of 327 professionals, 93.3% stated that their organisation has staff trained in supporting female victims and 5.5% said that they have not, while for male victims 66.4% replied *yes* and 4.9% *no* (Q.13A,13B). Overall, 93.9% of the professionals were aware of safe refuges available for female victims and 1.5% were not. While for male victims only 26.6% said that there were some safe refuges and 52.3% said that they were not. Finally, on the question about if male and female victims can take their children with them 93.9% said *yes* and 1.5% *no* for females whereas for males 10.7% replied *yes* 37.3% *no*. For one more time, there were fewer responses from professionals in relation to male victims giving an opinion. In some questions the missing percentage touches 52%. Whereas regarding women this was always less than 4.6% (Q.14A,14B,15A,15B).

Apart from “does your organisation has staff trained to support victims”, variables regarding the support provided to male and female victims showed a significant change in attitudes and beliefs reported by professionals (see table 4.3). The majority of responders believed that there is less support available to male victims compared to female victims (McNemar test $p < 0.001$).

Table 4.2*Experiences of professionals in relation to the abuse reported by women and men (N=292) **

Type of violence	Gender of victim **					
	Female victim		Male victim		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Physical moderate/ minor violence	38	18.6	44	50.0	82	28.0
Physical severe violence	95	46.6	23	26.1	118	40.4
Sexual violence	40	19.6	16	18.2	56	19.3
Psychological and verbal abuse	31	15.2	5	5.7	36	12.3
Total	204	100	88	100	292	100

*35 professionals provided no information

** $\chi^2=32.48$ $df=3$ $p<0.0001$

Table 4.3

Professionals opinions on whether support is provided to male and female victims of Domestic abuse are the same for all the victims regardless their gender. (N=327)

Professionals' belief on:	Are victims encouraged to report incidents to the police? **				Are victims encouraged to contact social services? **				Does your organization have staff trained in supporting victims? NS				Are you aware of 'safe refuges' in your area for the victims of violence? **				Can victims take their children? **			
	M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Yes	183	82.4	325	99.4	215	65.7	321	98.2	217	66.4	305	93.3	87	26.6	307	93.9	35	10.7	307	93.9
No	39	17.6	0	0	15	4.6	6	1.8	16	4.9	18	5.5	171	52.3	5	1.5	122	37.3	5	1.5
Do Not Know/Missing	105	32.0	2	0.6	97	29.7	0	0	94	28.7	4	1.2	69	20.6	15	4.6	170	52.0	15	4.6

***McNemar Test of Change M to F $p < 0.001$ (Not including Don't Know/Missing Cases).*

Table 4.4

Professionals opinions on whether interventions provided to male and female victims of Domestic abuse are the same for all the victims regardless their gender.(N=327)

Professional's belief	Are there treatment/intervention programmes for victims of DVA **					Are there treatment/intervention programmes for offenders of DVA **				
	M		F			M		F		
	n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%	
No	30	9.2	20	6.1		26	8.0	0	0.0	
Community	196	59.9	284	86.4		175	53.5	154	47.1	
Prison	0	0.0	0	0.0		33	10.1	63	19.3	
Do not know/missing	101	30.9	23	7.0		93	28.4	110	33.6	

***McNemar Test of Change M to F $p < 0.0001$ (Prison combined with Community - Not including Don't Know/Missing Case)*

Research Question 5: Is professional interventions the same for all the victims regardless their gender?

In terms of what professional's believe regarding interventions available to male and female victims of DVA (Table 4.4), responses to the Questionnaire by 327 professionals revealed that; 86.4% stated that Community intervention programs are available for female victims and 59.9% for male victims. Only 9.2% believe that there is no treatment/intervention programme regarding female victims and 6.1% for males.

Regarding male DVA offenders, 53.5% mentioned community programs 10.1% prison and 8% that there is nothing available. Professionals' replies were quite similar for female offenders with 47.1% mentioned community 19.3% prison and none of there that there are no programs (Q.16A,16B,17A,17B).

Variables regarding interventions provided to male and female victims and offenders showed a significant change in attitudes and beliefs reported by professionals (see table 4.4). The majority of responders believed that there is less intervention programmes available to male victims and male offenders in comparison to female victims and female offenders (McNemar test $p < 0.0001$).

Research Question 6: What are professionals' opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems?

Of the 327 professionals, 303 (92.7%) stated that there is reluctance for male victims to report the violence to them (Table 4.5). Regarding female victims the number of professionals who claimed that there is reluctance for women to report was slightly less 300 (91.7%) (Q.18A,18B). Furthermore, Professionals respondents ($n=327$), showed a significant correlation (Spearman rho, $r = 0.63$, $p < 0.04$, 2-tail) for female and male victim's reasons for NOT reporting. A third of professionals implied that 'absence of support services' was the main reason for male victims not to report the incident to the police. This reason was also given the second highest ranking for females not reporting. Professionals in Greece considered the most important factor for females was the fear of media reports (Q.19A,19B).

Table 4.5

Professional's opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems. (N=327)

<i>Professional's beliefs</i>	Female			Male		
	n	%	Rank*	n	%	Rank*
No reason	24	8.0	4.5	0	0.0	1.5
Less likely to be listened to than women/men	0	0.0	1.5	16	5.3	3
Fear of discrimination by police or support staff	43	14.3	7	24	7.9	4
Fear of discrimination. in CJS	32	10.7	6	40	13.2	9
Fear of media reporting	61	20.3	10	31	10.2	7
Female/male peer group pressure.	1	0.3	3	0	0.0	1.5
Intimidation from family.	56	18.7	8	37	12.2	8
Absence of support services	59	19.6	9	100	33.0	10
Fear of discrimination. against same sex relationships by police or support staff	0	0.0	1.5	29	9.6	6
Other	24	8.0	4.5	26	8.6	5
Do not know/missing	n=27	-	-	n=24	-	-

*Spearman rho, $r = 0.63$, $p < 0.04$, 2-tail

Table 4.6*The likely causes of domestic abuse against men and women (N=332)*

Professional's beliefs	Very unlikely				unlikely				neither				Likely				Very likely			
	M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Partner's history of violence	4	1.2	7	2.1	58	17.7	67	20.5	95	29.1	112	34.3	134	41.0	119	36.4	36	11.0	22	6.7
Drug/alcohol abuse.	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.6	3	0.4	45	13.8	40	12.2	74	22.6	66	20.2	206	63.0	218	66.7
Financial worries.	4	1.2	6	1.8	50	15.3	39	11.9	77	23.5	9	2.8	192	58.7	267	81.7	4	1.2	6	1.8
Employment problems.	8	2.4	12	3.7	43	13.1	26	8.0	180	55	219	67	84	25.7	47	14.4	12	3.7	23	7.0
Relationships (affairs, previous partners etc.).	0	0.0	0	0.0	58	17.7	43	13.1	80	24.5	53	16.2	70	21.4	36	11.0	119	36.4	195	59.6

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

Retaliation against partner's violence.	0	0.0	0	0.0	48	14.7	31	9.5	50	15.3	38	11.6	203	62.1	227	69.4	26	8.0	31	9.5
Issues with children in relationship.	2	0.6	3	0.9	12	3.7	18	5.5	52	15.9	56	17.1	191	58.4	221	67.6	70	21.4	29	8.9
Lack of support in criminal justice system.	19	5.8	29	8.9	40	12.2	63	19.3	171	52.3	218	66.7	64	19.6	17	5.2	33	10.1	0	0.0
Absence of alternative, safe accommodation.	0	0.0	0	0.0	27	8.3	32	9.8	73	22.3	55	16.8	193	59.0	230	70.3	34	10.4	10	3.1
Cultural Practices.	20	6.1	24	7.3	72	22	57	17.4	178	54.4	225	68.8	43	13.1	21	6.4	14	4.3	0	0.0
Other	0		3	0.9	2	0.6	34	10.4	38	11.6	105	32.1	123	37.6	185	56.6	164	50.1	0	0.0

Research Question 7: What are the likely causes of domestic abuse against men and women?

There were few significant differences in professionals (N=327) opinions on the causes of DVA to women and men (Table 4.6). In order of the frequency of responses, factors reported to be *likely* or *very likely* for women and men as victims were; 'drug and alcohol misuse' (86.9% vs 85.6% of respondents respectively), 'issues about the children' (76.5% vs 79.8%), 'retaliation to abuse' (78.9% vs 70.1%), 'access to safe alternative accommodation' (73.4% vs 69.4%), 'partner's history of violence' (43.1 % 42%), 'unemployment' (21.4% vs 29.4%), 'the impact of a patriarchal culture' (6.4% vs 17.4% respectively) and 'other factors' (56.6% vs 50.1%). Only, 'financial worries' (83.5% vs 59.9%), and 'lack of support from the criminal justice system' (5.2% vs 29.7%) were deemed by professionals to significantly differ as a likely cause of DVA between women and men, when *likely* plus *very likely* were compared to *neither* plus *unlikely* plus *very unlikely* (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.05$, $df=1$, two-tail).(Q.20A, 20B).

Discussion

All six agencies used common language in their websites. These were "victims," "survivors," "Individuals," "adults," or "families. In addition, they all used the same definition for the term DVA. Two of them EKKA and Dimos Patreon were government organizations and three non-profit ones. Although all the agencies recognised both females and males as victims, SYGAPA was the only one that focused on men as victims of domestic abuse. This agency provided support services to men and shelters for men.

This Study investigated whether 327 professionals recognized both female and male victims of DVA and whether they respond differently. All respondents had met and treated women who had experienced DVA and most of them (6 out of 10) with both genders. However, a significant difference was seen in questions regarding the recognition and treating of men who have experienced abuse.

Domestic Abuse and Gender is recorded by professionals

Findings from the professional questionnaire were based on the opinions and experiences of 327 professionals (80% female, 20% male). This revealed that only 69.1% always recorded the

gender of the victim and 69.7% the gender of the offender, when investigating an DVA incident.

DVA incidents reported to organisations

According to the data given by the professionals, DVA has dramatically increased during the last five years for both genders. In fact, 75.8% of the professionals believed that DVA to women had increased in Greece during the past five years and 46.8% felt that DVA to men had increased. However, the reason is not clear. It may be a consequence of the economic crisis in Greece or that people are more aware of DVA with an increase in seeking for help rate (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2013).

In Greece, perceptions of the general public in relation to DVA are different from those of other European countries (European Commission, Eurobarometer 449, 2016). For example, two thirds (67%) of people consider female DVA victims to be common in Greece compared to for four fifths of people (80%) in the UK. Only 15 percent of Greek people thought male DVA victims were common compared to 34 per cent in the UK. Less people in Greece (51%) knew of victims; among friends and family (20%), neighbours (25%) or at work (6%) in comparison to people who knew victims in the UK (70%); among friends and family (36%), neighbours (19%) or at work (15%). In Greece, more people (28%) considered DVA to be a private matter to be sorted out in the family compared to people in the UK (9%) and less people (38%) in Greece knew of support services for DVA victims in comparison to people (81%) in the UK.

Experiences of professionals in relation to the abuse reported by women and men who are DVA victims

The Questionnaire also asked about the experiences of professionals in relation to the abuse reported by women and men who are DVA victims. Their responses indicated some significant differences between female and male victims. From the professionals who responded to questions on the type of violence observed; both female and male victims were associated with violent behaviour. However, the percentage of professionals who had experienced of severe physical abuse suffered by male victims was only 7.9%. For severe physical abuse suffered by female victims the percentage was 32.5%, nearly a third of professionals. There were similar reports from the police (see Chapter 3) that women suffer more severe physical violence than

men, with men suffering more minor physical abuse than women. Indeed, the professional also reported that minor physical abuse was observed for 13.0% of female victims compared to 15% of male victims. Hence, women are at more risk of severe injury as shown by previous studies (Palmetto et al, 2013; Dixon et al, 2007). These findings contradict studies using the conflict tactics scale with student or community populations where the findings show no significant differences between males and females in the use of physical violence towards their intimate partners (Graham-Kevan., 2007).

Other types of violence experienced by professional dealing with cases of DVA showed a similar pattern, with professionals having experience of more female victims than male victims for sexual abuse (13.7% vs 5.6%) and for psychological and verbal abuse (10.6% vs 1.7%). At that point it has to be highlighted that only (75.9%) from the professionals gave an opinion in relation to male victims whereas the response regarding female victims reached (93.6%).

Causes of domestic abuse against men and women

There were few significant gender differences in professionals' opinions on the causes of DVA to women and men. Consistent with the literature (e.g.; Browne & Herbert, 1997), this included; drug and alcohol misuse, issues about the children, access to safe alternative accommodation, retaliation to abuse, impact of patriarchal cultures, infidelity, partner's history of violence and unemployment. Only, financial worries (83.5% vs 59.9%), lack of support from the criminal justice system (5.2% vs 29.7%) and other factors (56.6% vs 87.8%) were deemed by professionals to significantly differ as a likely cause of DVA (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.05$, $df=1$, two-tail).

Professionals' opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems

Professional respondents reported significant differences for female and male victims' reasons for NOT reporting DVA. They implied that absence of support services (30.6%) for males was the main reason that makes male victims reluctant to report the incident to the police. Regarding females this reason was only 18% of respondents.

Research in many countries around the world; support that the absence of services for male victims, and their fear of a lack of support, is the reason why men do not report the abuse to the police. In the Netherlands, Drijber et al. (2013) found in their study, that men do not report their abuse victimisation to police, because the men did not believe that the police would take any action on their behalf. In the United Kingdom, Hall (2012) stated "...male victims of women perpetrators are more often ignored by the police," he goes on to state "...women are more often released from police custody in a shorter span of time" (p. 40). Indeed, Evans (2016) claimed the Australian police have told victims to 'grow some balls' (para.31). Regarding attitudinal and cultural influences, DVA is more likely to occur where violence and gender inequality are accepted (WHO, 2013). Many societies, including Greece, are shaped by a patriarchal belief system that values masculinity, heterosexuality and male dominance and control of women (Dutton, 2006; Hatty, 2000). Consequently, in most industrial nations, men are generally considered capable of causing more harm to others than are women and communities fail to recognise or acknowledge acts of female-perpetrated violence (Hatty, 2000; DeFrancisco & Palczewski, 2014).

According to professionals Shame and stigma of media reports was significant but contrary to our hypothesis. It was claimed that media is a reason for not reporting for 18.7% of female victims and only 9.5% of males. There was no significant difference regarding fear of discrimination 28.4% for males and 22.9% for females, intimidation with 12.2% for men and 17.1% for women and other personal reasons with 8% and 7.3% retrospectively.

Professional support for victims regardless their gender

Regarding professional's beliefs for the support available to male and female victims of domestic abuse, nearly all (99.4%) respondents believe that female victims are encouraged to report DVA to the police and social services compared to just over half (56%) of the professionals for male victims. Nearly all (93.3%) of the sample stated that their organisation had staff trained in supporting female victims, while only two-thirds of respondents stated the same was true for male victims (66.4%). Domestic abuse agencies, the police and hotlines have been accused of not believing or taking seriously men's disclosures of the abuse they have suffered. They also have been criticised for not responding with the help such men need. (Douglas et al., 2011; Drijber et al., 2013). Nevertheless, men who sustained severe assaults

were more twice as likely to contact the police and seek immediate medical attention (Douglas et al., 2012; Drijber et al., 2013).

More than 93.9% of the professionals are aware of safe refuges available for female victims while for male victims only 26.6% said that there are some safe refuges available. Finally, on the question about if male and female victims can take their children with them 93.9% said yes and 1.5% no for female victims, whereas 10.7% replied yes 37.3% for male victims. Again, more time there were fewer responses from professionals in relation to male victims giving an opinion? In some questions the missing percentage touches 52%. Whereas regarding women this was always less than 4.6%.

There is a shortage of emergency accommodation for male victims of domestic abuse, even though local councils have the same legal responsibility to male and female victims under the Housing Act 1986 and the Equality Act 2010. It is also recognised that there is not enough housing support for female victims (UK. Government, 2018).

In the United Kingdom, it is claimed that there are just 19 organisations that accept male victims and offer a total of 78 spaces for refuge or safe house provision for victims of any gender (The ManKind Initiative, 4 July 2016). Within this provision only 20 spaces are dedicated to male DVA victims (58 spaces being for victims of either gender). Seven organisations cannot accommodate men with children (Op. cit).

In Greece, according to the European Anti-Violence Network – EAVN (2012), there are six shelters and one counselling centre for female victims of domestic abuse and their children . These depend on financial support from the European Union. The existing shelters cover the basic housing needs for female victims and offer counselling services in Greek. There are no no services for men.

In 2013, the Greece Office for Gender Equality - GOG (within the Ministry for Labour) claimed there were 16 shelters across the country located in Ioannina, Athens, Thessaloniki, Iraklio, Chania, Parta, Korintho, Alexandroupoli, Veria, Kordelio, Kozani, Corfu, Larisa, Lamia, Tripoli and Rhodes (GOG, 2014). The shelters have approximately 20 beds only for

women and their children (age limit for boys is 12 years old) (ibid.) to stay for up to two months. Before accessing the shelter, women are required to report DVA to the police (ibid.).

According to a human rights Country Report for Greece in 2013, the "Greek Orthodox Church and a variety of NGOs also operated shelters and walk-in centres, providing counselling and assistance to victims" (US Department of State 2014 p. 25)

Conclusion

Professional opinion is that DVA is prevalent in Greek society with more women than men suffering severe forms of DVA.

In the UK the definition of DVA has been expanded to include power and coercive control as well as physical violence (Home Office, 2013a). Nevertheless, it would seem that this new emphasis on physical violence in the context of power and control has exacerbated the usual gender stereotypes associated with DVA. This may have had an impact, making it more difficult for men to gain recognition as victims of DVA (Josolyne, 2011; Dutton & White, 2013).

The findings of this Study reflect the literature on the differences in response to male and female victims of DVA. The weight of evidence suggests that the support available to male victims of DVA is still inadequate. Society is beginning to accept that men can also be victims of DVA but there is still a lack of understanding of DVA amongst the general public according to a recent EU survey referred to above (European Commission, 2016). The underlying cause for this lack of understanding is that DVA was originally seen as a crime committed by men and the victims were mostly women. Nevertheless, in many countries support services for both women and men are poor as exemplified by Greece.

In this study, professional opinion confirmed that the causes of DVA victimisation are a complex, multifactorial issue with societal and formal barriers inhibiting access to support. Responses to DVA by police and professionals may be influenced by ideological values and assumptions (Wallace 2014) such as the rhetoric that gives the impression that it is not possible for men to be victims because they should be able to defend themselves. However, DVA is not

always about physical strength; it is also about power and coercive control (Elliot, 1996). Both male and female DVA offenders can control their victims, and inflicting both physical, sexual and psychological harm upon them (George & Yarwood, 2004; Brogden & Nijhar, 2004; Josolyne, 2011).

Male victims require the same level of support as female victims, both in terms of service provision and advocacy. The Greek professionals' responses to men are different to their responses to women. This is influenced by awareness campaigns, and policies still oriented towards female victims. Professionals indicate that masculinity continues to play a role in the reluctance of male victims to report DVA, approach support services, or to voice that they are a victim (Brogden & Nijhar, 2004). Men fear they will be scorned and shamed after disclosure.

Support services for DVA should meet the needs of both female and male victims (EHRC, 2012). Both this Study and other research (e.g.; Robinson & Rowlands, 2006) illustrates that the responses to men and women are different, although there are similarities in experiences of domestic abuse for all victims. For this reason, generic services are considered ineffective (Hester et al., 2012), and there is a need to develop separate services for gay and heterosexual male victims that reflect their specific service needs (Robinson & Rowlands, 2006; McClennen et al. 2008). Further research is required to gain a better understanding of what methods of intervention are effective with both male and female victims from same-sex relationships as well as opposite sex partners (Hester et al., 2012).

The next Chapter 5 compares the differences and similarities in Police and Professionals' responses to the questionnaire. The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of police officers compared to professionals who work and support DVA victims and evaluate whether DVA is recorded and responded in a 'gender neutral' way or otherwise.

Chapter 5

Differences and similarities in Police and Professionals' recognition of the role of gender within Domestic Violence and Abuse in Greece.

Abstract

This investigation compared police and professional responses towards female and male victims of DVA and is one of the few attempts to research whether recent changes in gender neutral opinions and attitudes to domestic violence and abuse (DVA) victims are evident in Greece. Overall, 358 Greek police officers from eight major police services in Greece and 327 Greek professionals who work in the field of DVA completed the same Questionnaire. The main criterion for the selection of the 685 total participants was that both police officers and professionals have worked or are still working with female or male DVA victims. The findings of this study reflected a lack of experience with male victims for both professionals and police officers with no significant difference between the two groups. Both groups reported that severe physical violence was the most common type of DVA suffered by female victims and that moderate/minor physical injury was the most common type of DVA suffered by male victims. A rank order of professional and police responses revealed ‘absence of support services’ was the most frequent response for not reporting abuse and ‘drug and alcohol misuse’ as the most frequent response, from all participants, as a causal factor. For women, ‘financial worries’ was the second most frequent causal factor whereas for men it is ‘issues with children in the relationship’. The finding that police and professional support staff hold very similar views on DVA victims in Greece could have an impact on how police work together with social workers when combatting domestic violence.

Keywords: Domestic violence, police, social work, types of violence.

Differences and similarities in Police and Professionals' recognition of the role of gender within Domestic Violence and Abuse in Greece.

Introduction

The police occupy a unique position at the forefront of the criminal justice response to domestic abuse. The police are understood to provide a 'domestic violence service' (Hester, 2013: 623). Police practice in domestic abuse is both reactive and proactive. For victims seeking criminal justice intervention, the police are usually the first agency of contact. They react to a report or complaint and take the case through arrest, detention, investigation and charging of a suspect. While many incidents of domestic abuse are not usually reported to the police, published crime data shows that in the 12-month period ending 30 June 2017, there were over 4.4 million crimes recorded by police in England and Wales. This compared with 3.9 million crimes recorded in the previous year. In both 12-month periods domestic violence and abuse (DVA) crime accounted for 11 percent of the total recorded crime.

Historically, in both UK and Greece, domestic violence was considered a private issue and discussions regarding domestic violence in public weren't acceptable and viewed as a social relationship issue (Kronenberg, 2013). Rarely was abuse between couples viewed as criminal or as a serious social problem (Erez, 1986). When police officers responded to domestic abuse calls, arrest of the offender was usually the last option even when an arrest was justified based on probable cause (Bard & Zacker, 1971). The perception of domestic abuse as a private matter between intimate partners has and still does inhibit any formal response to domestic abuse such as arrest (Klinger, 1995).

Johnson (2005) refers to the work of Steinmetz (1977) who first described 'battered husbands' syndrome and the impact that this had on the view of domestic abuse as a solely male against female action. She reported that abuse against men by women was as common in the USA as men against women.

Speaking up about domestic abuse can be difficult. Many victims face substantial barriers to seeking help, or even acknowledging to themselves that they are in an abusive relationship. Victims can face emotional barriers – like low self-esteem, self-blame, fear, guilt, love and commitment – as well as practical, financial or physical barriers to extricating themselves from an abusive relationship. As reported by Allen-Collinson (2009:1) “Concepts of intimate partner abuse and violence are shifting, complex, situational and multifaceted”.

A safety net of formal support in the UK

All victims of domestic abuse, regardless of gender, ought to be able to access support to manage their relationship, keep themselves safe, exercise their rights to their property, children, secure justice and to rebuild their lives. Some of this support can be provided by friends and family, but some relies on specialist services and state structures.

While many victims and survivors of domestic abuse ~~will~~ rely on their informal networks, they also need strong state provision of formal services, from specialist refuges to counsellors. A lack of support may prohibit an individual’s capacity to break away from an AR. The victim moving on and leaving the abusive relationship (AR) behind requires skilled, supportive and informed professionals. The police must ensure on going witness support for successful prosecutions. Professional support is required to help the victim find alternative housing, a job and income. Legal support is required to split out joint-assets and detangle joint-accounts. In the most extreme cases, victims need a completely new start, often in a refuge mile away from their homes, belongings, families and jobs.

In the UK, funding has been made available for police SOS hotlines, refuges, counselling services and support centres. There is increased responsibility for local authorities to house victims of domestic abuse and new laws which broaden the definition of domestic abuse to include non-physical behaviour and coercion. Strengthening of court non-molestation orders and occupation orders has given more options to the DVA victim. (DVA is formally recognised ‘regardless of sexuality and gender’; and improvements in the court process have included Specialist Domestic Abuse Courts and Independent Domestic Abuse Advisers (Crown Prosecution Service and Home Office (2011)). In addition, the UK police have improved victim protection to increase successful prosecutions. Alongside these positive measures for adults,

there has been a new focus on young people and teen abuse with the lowering of the age of adult domestic abuse cases to include individuals aged 16 and 17 years old. These changes have been partly brought about by police and professional training throughout the UK. Changes in Greece have not happened to the same extent.

Lack of formal support in Greece

The Government of Greece has developed policies to prevent domestic violence and implemented a 'awareness raising campaign' as part of the National programme to prevent and combat violence against women (2009-2013). This included a 24-hour SOS hotline (EAVN 7-8 Feb. 2012, 3, 4, 7). The line received approximately 12 calls per day and a total of 2,795 phone calls in nine months between March and November 2011 (US Country Report for Greece 2013 No. 25, 27 Feb. 2014).

The EAVN discussion paper published in 2012 indicates that due to a lack of financial provisions there was only one counselling centre and six shelters throughout Greece for female victims of domestic violence and their children (Petroulaki, 2012). Indeed, the Coordinator for the Gender Equality Office of the Ministry of Labour noted that shelters and counselling centres depend on financial support from the European Union and whenever EU funding stopped, the provided services stopped too (Coordinator 26 Apr. 2014).

It is difficult for female victims of domestic violence to leave their homes because of the high unemployment rate in Greece; women are afraid that they will not be able to find a job to support themselves and their children. What is on offer is limited, the existing shelters cover basic housing needs for victims and offer some counselling services but only in Greek. There are no employment programmes, no services for children and no "second stage" provisions and facilities after the end of short- term accommodation in a shelter (EAVN 7-8 Feb. 2012, 3).

In 2013, there were 16 shelters across Greece, located in Ioannina, Athens, Thessaloniki, Iraklio, Chania, Parta, Korintho, Alexandroupoli, Veria, Kordelio Thessaloniki, Kozani, Corfu, Larisa, Lamia, Tripoli and Rhodes (Coordinator for the Gender Equality Office of the Ministry of Labour 26 Apr. 2014), although US Country Reports 2013 claim that the EU structural funds programme financed 19 shelters for victims of violence and the establishment of 25 counselling

and support services centres in all major cities (US Country Reports for Greece 2013 - No.25, 27 Feb. 2014).

Shelters accept all female victims of domestic violence, even without legal papers. However, before accessing a shelter, women are required to report domestic violence to the police. Most of the shelters have 20 beds for women and their children (age limit for boys is 12 years old). Women and children can "usually" stay in a shelter for two months and a "little longer" if needed (Coordinator for the Gender Equality Office of the Ministry of Labour 26 Apr. 2014).

Police and Professional Responses

Nevertheless, in Greece changes in police and professional responses to DVA victims have been less impressive. Women reporting domestic violence cases at a police station in Greece often receive inappropriate answers from police officers (Coordinator for the Gender Equality Office of the Ministry of Labour 26 Apr. 2014). For example;

“Ok, now go back to your family and try to make up with your husband”, or

“Ok, you made your report, you can go”

In practice some police officers never write up an official report (ibid.). even though police stations generally have a manual on how police should treat victims of domestic violence (US Country Reports for Greece 2013 - No.25, 27 Feb. 2014).

In England and Wales, Applegate (2006) conducted interviews with senior officers and middle managers in an English police force exploring their views of domestic abuse and the impact of central government policy initiatives. He concluded that attitudes to domestic abuse is more enlightened than they once were, though it should be noted that a recent thematic inspection by Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of (police) Constabulary (HMIC) suggested positive attitudes to domestic abuse among senior officers were not matched by the quality of response (see HMIC, 2015). Applegate (2006) also found, that frontline officers felt their discretion in dealing with domestic abuse had been curtailed, though this finding was based on responses to fewer than one hundred postal questionnaires.

Aims

The aim of this investigation was to compare police and professional responses towards female and male victims of DVA and whether recent changes in gender neutral opinions and attitudes to DVA victims are evident in both police and professionals in Greece.

The objective was to gain an understanding of the perceptions and beliefs of both Police officers and professionals who work and support DVA victims and evaluate the way that DVA is recorded and responded to.

The following five research questions are compared for female and male DVA victims;

Research Question 1: Experience of professionals and police of DVA in opposite sex couples and same sex couples.

Research Question 2: Professionals and police opinions on what is recorded when dealing with female and male victims of DVA.

Research Question 3: Professionals and police opinions on changes in the number of referrals for female and male victims of DVA.

Research Question 4: Experiences of professionals and police in relation to the type of abuse reported by female and male victims of DVA.

Research Question 5: Experiences of professionals and police in relation to support for female and male victims of DVA.

Research Question 6: Opinions of professionals and police on interventions for male and female victims of DVA.

Research Question 7: What are police and professionals' opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems?

Research Question 8: What are the likely causes of domestic abuse against men and women?

Methods

Participants

Overall, 358 Greek police officers from eight major police services in Greece and 327 Greek professionals who work in the field of DVA completed the same Questionnaire. The main criterion for the selection of the 685 total participants was that both police officers and professionals have worked or are still working with female or male DVA victims.

Materials

The same questionnaire used for police (Chapter 3) and professionals (Chapter 4) was used to compare the two samples.

Procedures

Police directories and DVA support organizations were approached for access to police and professionals to complete a Questionnaire on attitudes and opinions about domestic abuse referrals. The head of each police department or DVA support organisation was approached by the researcher and asked to distribute the questionnaires to police and professionals that work with DVA victims. To facilitate a valid comparison, the same Questionnaire was distributed to and returned by the police during a 12month period (1st April 2016 to 31st March 2017) and was distributed to and returned by professionals during an overlapping 12month period (1 October 2016 to 30th November 2017). All questionnaires were completed and returned by the end of 2017.

In total, 380 Greek police officers were approached and 358 completed the questionnaire (95% response rate). In addition, 350 Greek professionals were approached and 327 completed the Questionnaire (97% response rate). Regarding police officers the sample was collected from eight major police services in Greece (see Chapter 3). The professionals were from five agencies dealing with DVA (For details of the Agencies – see Chapter 4 pages 111 to 114).

Treatment of Data

Again, the Chi-Square Test was used together with a Bonferroni Correction (see Chapter 3; page 91) to infer significant differences in the responses of police and professionals to the questionnaire. In addition, Spearman's rho was applied (see Chapter 4; page 116) to evaluate any significant similarities or contrasts between police and professional's opinions.

With 30 Questions and a significance level set at $p < 0.05$, the Bonferroni Correction was calculated; <https://www.easycalculation.com/statistics/bonferroni-correction-calculator.php>. A probability level as $P < 0.002$ was accepted on the multiple chi-squared tests or Fisher's exact tests carried out on the questionnaire's nominal data (see Chapter 3; p.91). A Spearman Rho

correlation co-efficient (See Chapter 4; p.116) was calculated where professional and police responses appeared similar.

With a confidence level of 95%, and a power level of 80%, the sample size needed to be 384 – so the study reached power required at N=685 and responses to the questions were dichotomized for analyses.

<https://select-statistics.co.uk/calculators/sample-size-calculator-population-proportion/>

Ethical issues

The ethical procedures for the police and the professionals were the same and these are described in Chapter 3 – page 92.

Results

Research Question 1: Experience of professionals and police of DVA in opposite sex couples and same sex couples.

Most (97.3%) of police and professionals' respondents have experienced DVA between opposite sex couples and only a small minority (2.7%) have experienced abuse between same sex couples. Experience of same sex couples was slightly higher for the police (4%) than for professionals (1.3%) but not significant.

Research Question 2: Professionals and police opinions on what is recorded when dealing with female and male victims of DVA.

Table 5.1 gives the professional and police opinions on what information is recorded when dealing with DVA. Responses to the Questionnaire by 327 professionals and 358 police officers and had, on average, 68 and 66 'do not know' or missing responses. The remainder of respondents revealed that; 72.7% of the police sample and 94.6% of the professional sample worked to a specific definition of DVA. Regarding gender, 71% of the police officers and 99.1% of the professionals recorded the gender of the victim and but only 66.4% of professionals and 79.3% of the police recorded the gender of the offender. Hence, significantly

more professionals said that they used a specific definition and recorded the gender of the DVA victim, whereas significantly more police said that they recorded the gender of the DVA offender (see Table 5.1).

There were no significant differences between police and professionals for age and ethnicity. Overall, 88.5% of respondents recorded the age of the victim and 82.5% the age of the offender. Regarding ethnic group, 71.5% of all respondents recorded ethnicity for the victim and 72.0% for the offender. (Quest: 2,3,4,5,6).

Table 5.1*Comparison of professionals and police opinions on what information is recorded when dealing with Domestic Abuse*

Variables	Professionals (N=327)					Police (N=358)					Statistic	
	Yes		No		Do Not Know/ Missing	Yes		No		Do Not Know/ Missing	Chi Square df = 1	Probability
	n	%	n	%	N	n	%	n	%	N	χ^2	p
DVA Definition	226	94.6	13	5.4	88	208	72.7	78	27.3	72	43.31	p<0.0001
Gender of victim	220	99.1	2	0.9	105	196	71.0	80	29.0	82	70.55	p<0.0001
Gender of offender	172	66.4	87	33.6	68	234	79.3	61	20.7	63	11.75	p<0.001
Age of victim	250	91.2	24	8.8	53	269	86.5	42	13.5	47	3.23	p= 0.07 NS
Age of offender	228	81.7	51	18.3	48	252	83.2	51	16.8	55	0.21	p= 0.645 NS
Ethnicity of victim	194	71.9	76	28.1	57	214	71.1	87	28.9	57	0.04	p= 0.842 NS
Ethnicity of offender	197	72.4	75	27.6	55	217	71.6	86	28.4	55	0.05	p=0.829 NS

Research Question 3: Professionals and police opinions on changes in the number of referrals for female and male victims of DVA.

Table 5.2 shows professionals and police opinions on changes in the number of referrals for female and male victims of DVA over the past 5 years. More than nine out of ten professionals (94.9%) and police officers (93.6%) in the sample gave an opinion on whether DVA to women had changed over the past 5 years. No significant difference between the two groups was found for opinions on female victims with 75.8 % of the professionals and 76.2 % police officers suggested it had increased, while 17.4% of the professionals and 15.6% of the police officers saying it had stayed the same. Only 0.6% of the professionals and 1.7% of the police officers claiming it had decreased (Q.10).

There were fewer responses from both professionals and police officers in relation to male victims of DVA with 7 out of 10 (75.8%) of the professionals and 6 out of 10 (60.9%) of the police officers giving an opinion. Of these, 46.8% professionals and 25.7% police officers suggested that it had increased, 29.1% of the professionals and 33.8% of the police officers saying that it had stayed the same and only 1.4% police officers and 0% professionals claiming it had decreased over the past 5 years (Q.9). Although there were less respondents believing that male victims had increased there was significant difference between professional and police respondent's opinions when increased' was compared to 'decreased/stayed the same' responses. The police, who had marginally more experience with same sex couples compared to professionals (4% vs 1.3%) but were significantly less likely to say that male victimization had increased over the past 5 years (Chi Square =21.5, df=1, $p<0.0001$).

Table 5.2

Comparison of professionals and police opinions on changes in the number of referrals for female and male victims of Domestic Abuse over the past 5 years.

<i>Opinions on changes in past 5 years</i>	Professionals (N=327)				Police (N=358)				chi square test df = 1*	
	Women		Men		Women		Men		women	men
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
increased	248	75.8	153	46.8	273	76.2	92	25.7	2.0	21.5
decreased	2	0.6	0	0.0	6	1.7	5	1.4	P = 0.37	P < 0.0001
stayed the same	57	17.4	95	29.1	56	15.6	121	33.7	N S	
no answer	20	6.1	79	24.2	23	6.4	140	39.1	missing	missing
Total	327	100	327	100	358	100	358	100		

*'increased' was compared to 'decreased/stayed the same' responses.

Table 5.3

Comparison of experiences of professionals and police in relation to the type of abuse reported by female and male victims

Type of abuse	Professionals (N = 292)				Police (N=320)				Chi Square test	
	Female victim		Male victim		Female victim		Male victim		Females	Males
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Physical moderate/ minor injuries	38	18.6	44	50.0	50	21.1	41	49.4	df = 3	df = 3
Physical severe violence	95	46.6	23	26.1	98	41.4	23	27.7	n = 441	n = 171
Sexual abuse	40	19.6	16	18.2	35	14.8	11	13.3	$\chi^2=5.80$	$\chi^2=1.58$
Psychological and verbal abuse	31	15.2	5	5.7	54	22.8	8	9.6	P=0.1216	P=0.664
Total	204	100	88	100	237	100	83	100	NS	NS

Research Question 4: Experiences of professionals and police in relation to the type of abuse reported by female and male victims of DVA.

Responses to the Questionnaire gave information about the experiences of 292 professionals and 320 police officers in relation to the types of DVA reported to them by female and male victims (Table 5.3). Both professionals and police officers perceived DVA as a problem between heterosexual couples with 70% of professional and 76% of police officers respondents categorizing violence to women by men. In addition, 30% of professionals and 24% of police officers categorized violence to men by women. Only 4% of police officers and 1.3% of professionals had experience of violence DVA between two men or two women (homosexual and lesbian couples). Therefore, the perceptions beliefs and opinions of both samples reported on the questionnaire predominantly related to heterosexual couples (Q.5).

Regarding professionals' experiences in relation to the type of abuse reported by female and male victims of DVA no significant difference was identified. As shown in Table 5.3, according to 292 professionals who gave information about their experiences female victims are usually suffering from severe physical violence/GBH (46.6%), and sexual violence (19.6%), then moderate/minor physical injuries (18.6%) and psychological/verbal abuse (15.2%). By contrast, male victims were most likely to disclose moderate/minor physical injuries (50.0%), then severe physical violence (26.1%), sexual abuse (18.2%) and verbal/psychological abuse (5.7%).

Table 5.3 also indicates similar opinions were given by the 320 police officer's responses, female victims were again more likely to suffer from severe physical violence/GBH (41.4%) then psychological and verbal abuse (22.8%), moderate/minor physical injuries (21.1%) and sexual abuse (14.8%). Whereas male victims were more likely to disclose to the police moderate/minor physical injuries (49.4%), then Severe physical violence (27.7%), sexual abuse (13.3%) and psychological and verbal abuse (9.6%%) (Q.5,8).

Overall, 70% of professionals referred to female victims (n=204) compared to 30% referring to male victims (n=88) in relation to all types of DA. Likewise, 74% of police officers referred to female victims (n=237) compared to 26% referring to male victims (n=83) in relation to all types of DVA. This reflects the lack of professional and police experience with male victims, which showed no significant difference.

Research Question 5: Experiences of professionals and police in relation to support for female and male victims of DVA.

In terms of what professionals believe regarding support available to female and male victims of DVA (Table 5.4), responses to the Questionnaire by 327 professionals revealed that; 183 (82.4%) of male victims are encouraged to report incidents to the police and 39 (17.6%) of professionals say that they are not. This is in stark contrast to female victims, as 325 (99.4%) of professionals stated that females are encouraged to report their victimisation and no professionals said that they are not. The same trend appeared regarding encouragement of DVA victims to contact social services with 215 (65.7%) claimed yes for male victims and 15 (4.6%) no; whereas for female victims 321 (98.2%) said that they are encouraged to contact social services and only 6 (1.8%) said that they are not (Q.11A,11B,12A,12B). Of the sample of 327 professionals, 93.3% stated that their organisation has staff trained in supporting female victims and 5.5% said that they have not, while for male victims 66.4% replied yes and 4.9% no (Q13A, 13B). Overall, 93.9% of the professionals are aware of safe refuges available for female victims 1.5% are not while for male victims only 26.6% said that there are some safe refuges and 52.3% that they are not. Finally, on the question about if male and female victims can take their children with them 93.9% said yes and 1.5% no for females whereas for males 10.7% replied yes 37.3% no. For one more time there were fewer responses from professionals in relation to male victims giving an opinion. For some male victim questions the number of professional participants responding 'don't know' or leaving the question unanswered (missing) reached over half (52%) of respondents. By contrast, for female victim questions the number of participants responding 'don't know' or leaving the question unanswered (missing) was always less than 4.6%. (Q.14A,14B,15A,15B).

Table 5.4:*Comparisons of experiences of professionals and police in relation to support for female and male victims*

Variables	Professionals (N=327)										Police (N=358)										Statistic Chi square test	
	Female victims					Male victims					Female victims					Male victims					Female	Male
<i>Opinions</i>	Yes		No		Do Not Know	Yes		No		Do Not Know	Yes		No		Do Not Know	Yes		No		Do Not Know	df = 1	df = 1
	n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%		n	%	n	%			
Are victims encouraged to report incidents to the police?	325	100	0	0.0	2	183	82.4	39	17.6	105	356	99.4	0	0.0	2	184	79.7	47	20.3	127	n = 681 NS	n = 453 $\chi^2=0.57$ P=0.45 NS
Are victims encouraged to contact social services?	321	98.2	6	1.8	0	215	93.5	15	6.5	97	352	98.3	0	0.0	6	146	58.6	103	41.4	109	n = 673 NS	n = 479 $\chi^2=$ 78.19, P< 0.0001

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

Does your organization have staff trained in supporting victims?	305	94.4	18	5.6	4	217	93.1	16	6.9	94	332	93.8	22	6.2	4	122	46.4	141	53.6	95	n = 677 $\chi^2=0.12$ P=0.72 NS	n = 496 $\chi^2=$ 124.79 P< 0.0001
Are you aware of 'safe refuges' in your area for the victims of abuse?	307	98.4	5	1.6	15	87	26.6	171	52.3	69	329	95.9	14	4.1	15	98	4.8	184	65.2	76	n = 655 $\chi^2=3.57$ P=0.06 NS	n = 540 $\chi^2=0.64$ P=0.80 NS
Can victims take their children?	307	98.4	5	1.6	15	35	10.7	122	37.3	170	329	95.9	14	4.1	15	41	24.0	130	76.0	187	n = 655 $\chi^2=3.57$ P=0.06 NS	n = 328 $\chi^2=0.13$ P=0.72 NS

In terms of what police officers believe regarding support available to male victims of domestic abuse, responses to the Questionnaire by 358 police officers revealed that; 184 (79.7%) of male victims are encouraged to report incidents to the police and 47 (20.3%) of police officers say that they are not. This is in stark contrast to female victims, as 356 (99.4%) of police officers stated that females are encouraged to report and no police officers, apart from two (0.6%) that they gave no answer, said that they are not. The same trend appeared regarding encouragement of DVA victims to contact social services with 146 (58.6%) claimed yes for male victims and 103 (41.4%) no; whereas for female victims 352 (98.3%) said that they are encouraged to contact social services 6 (1.7%) gave no answer and 0 said that they are not (Q.11A,11B,12A,12B). Of the sample of 358 police officers, 332 (93.8%) stated that their organisation has staff trained in supporting female victims and 22 (6.2%) said that they have not, while for male victims 122 (46.4%) replied yes and 141 (53.6%) replied no (Q.13A,13B). Overall, 329 (95.9%) of the police officers are aware of safe refuges available for female victims and only 14 (4.1%) are not. Regarding male victims only 98 (34.8%) said that there are some safe refuges and 184 (65.2%) that they are not. Finally, on the question about if male and female victims can take their children with them 329 (95.9%) of the police officers said yes and only 14 (4.1%) said no for females, whereas for male victims only 41 (24%) replied yes and 130 (76%) replied no. For one more time there were fewer responses from police officers in relation to male victims giving an opinion. For some male victim questions, like professional participants, the number of police participants responding 'don't know' or leaving the question unanswered (missing) again reached over half (52%) of respondents. By contrast, for female victim questions the number of participants responding 'don't know' or leaving the question unanswered (missing) was always less than 4.6%. (Q.14A,14B,15A,15B).

Significant differences between professional and police responses emerged only for two questions (Q.12B,13B) with professional and police responses indicating male victims are given more encouragement by professionals to contact social services and professionals receive more training to support male victims compared to police officers (see Table 5.4).

Research Question 6: Opinions of professionals and police on interventions for male and female victims of DVA.

In terms of what 327 professional's believe regarding interventions available to female victims of domestic abuse (Table 5.5), responses to the Questionnaire by 304 (93%) professionals revealed that; 284 (86.4%) stated that community intervention programs are available for female victims and 20 (6.1%) believe that there are not. By contrast, responses from only 126 (38.5%) professionals, on male victims, revealed that; 196 (59.9%) stated that community intervention programs are available for male victims and 30 (9.2%) believe that there are not.

Regarding the 217 (63.4%) professionals who responded to questions about female DVA offenders (Table 5.5); 154 (47.1%) mentioned community programs and 63 (19.3%) mentioned prison programs for female offenders. Whereas the 264 (80.7%) professionals who responded to questions about male DVA offenders; 26 (8%) that there is nothing available for male offenders, 175 (53.5%) mentioned community programs and 63 (19.3%) mentioned prison programs (Q.16A,16B,17A,17B).

In terms of what 358 police officers believe regarding interventions available to female victims of domestic abuse (Table 5.5), responses to the Questionnaire by 341 (95.3%) police revealed that; all 341 (95.3%) stated that community intervention programs are available for female victims. By contrast, responses from only 233 (65.1%) police, on male victims, revealed that; 200 (55.9%) stated that community intervention programs are available for male victims and 33 (9.2%) believe there are not.

Regarding the 239 (66.8%) police officers who responded to questions about female DVA offenders; 164 (45.8%) mentioned community programs and 75 (21.0%) mentioned prison programs for female offenders. Whereas the 243 police who responded to questions about male DVA offenders; 26 (7.3%) that there is nothing available for male offenders, 178 (49.7%) mentioned community programs and 39 (10.9%) mentioned prison programs (Q.16A,16B,17A,17B).

The only significant difference between professionals and police was that all police officers believed that community programmes were available for female victims whereas 6.1% of professionals believed nothing was available (see Table 5.5).

Research Question 7: What are professionals' opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems?

Of the 327 professionals, 303 (92.7%) stated that there is reluctance for male victims to report the violence to them (see Table 5.6). Regarding female victims the number of professionals who claimed that there is reluctance for women to report was slightly less 300 (91.7%) (Q.18A,18B). Furthermore, professional respondents (n=327), showed a significant correlation (Spearman rho, $r = 0.63$, $p < 0.04$, 2-tail) for female and male victim's reasons for NOT reporting. A third of professionals implied that 'absence of support services' was the main reason for male victims not to report the incident to the police. This reason was also given the second highest ranking for females not reporting. Professionals in Greece considered the most important factor for females was the fear of media reports (Q.19A,19B).

Of the 358 police officers, 298 (83.2%) stated that there is reluctance for male victims to report the violence to them (see Table 5.6). Regarding female victims the number of police officers who claimed that there is reluctance for women to report was higher 336 (93.9%) (Q.18A,18B). Nevertheless, Police officers' respondents (n=358), showed a significant correlation (Spearman rho, $r = 0.63$, $p < 0.04$, 2-tail) for female and male victim's reasons for NOT reporting. Almost one in four of police officers (21.5%) implied that 'absence of support services' was the main reason for male victims not to report the incident to the police. Police officers in Greece also considered 'absence of support services' as the most important factor for females followed by fear of media reports (Q.19A,19B).

Table 5.6 shows each factor ranked high to low (10 to 1) for professional and police responses on female and male reasons for not reporting. A comparison of these rankings shows a highly significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to reasons given for female victims not to report (Spearman's Rho $r = 0.96$, $p < 0.0001$ - 2-tail). In addition, a significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to reasons

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

Table 5.5

Comparison of opinions of professionals and police on interventions for male and female victims

Variables	Professionals (N=327)														Police (N=358)																	
Opinions	Female*							Male**							Female*							Male**										
	No		Comm unity		Prison		Do Not Know	No		Commun ity		Prison		Do Not Know	No		Commun ity		Prison		Do Not Know	No		Commun ity		Prison		Do Not Know				
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%				
Treatment /interventi on programm es for <u>victims</u> of DVA.	20	6.1	284	86.9	N/A		23	7.0	30	9.2	196	59.9	N/A		101	30.9	0	0.0	341	95.3	N/A		17	4.7	33	9.2	200	60.0	N/A		125	35.0
Treatment /interventi on programm es for <u>offenders</u> of DVA .	0	0.0	154	47.1	63	19.3	110	33.6	26	8.0	175	53.4	63	19.3	63	19.3	0	0.0	164	45.8	75	21.0	119	33.2	26	7.3	178	49.7	39	11.0	115	32.0

**Statistics - Chi Square tests Professional vs Police Comparisons for Females (Community and Prison combined):*

Victims; n = 645, df=1, $\chi^2=23.15$, $P<0.0001$. Offenders; n = 456, df=2, $\chi^2=0.30$, $P=0.59$ NS.

*** Statistics - Chi Square tests Professional vs Police Comparisons for Males (Community and Prison combined):*

Victims; n = 459, df=1, $\chi^2=0.77$, $P=0.78$, NS. Offenders; n = 477, df=1, $\chi^2=0.35$, $P=0.84$, NS.

Table 5.6*Professionals and police opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their abuse*

Variables	Professionals (N=327)***						Police (N=358)****					
	Female			Male			Female			Male		
<i>opinions</i>	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
No reason	24	8.0	4.5	0	0.0	1.5	20	6.0	5	0	0.0	1
Less likely to be listened to than women/men.	0	0.0	1.5	16	5.3	3	0	0.0	1.5	17	5.7	3
Fear of discrimination by police or support staff.	43	14.3	7	24	7.9	4	52	15.5	8	28	9.4	4
Fear of discrimination in CJS.	32	10.7	6	40	13.2	9	47	14.0	7	40	13.4	9
Fear of media reporting.	61	20.3	10	31	10.2	7	65	19.3	9	31	10.4	5.5

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

Female/male peer group pressure.	1	0.3	3	0	0.0	1.5	7	2.1	3	13	4.4	2
Intimidation from family.	56	18.7	8	37	12.2	8	42	12.5	6	37	12.4	7.5
Absence of support services.	59	19.6	9	100	33.0	10	84	25.0	10	64	21.5	10
Fear of discrimination against same sex relationships by police or support staff.	0	0.0	1.5	29	9.6	6	0	0.0	1.5	31	10.4	5.5
Other/Do not know/missing	24	8.0	4.5	26	8.6	5	19	5.7	4	37	12.4	7.5
	n=27	-	-	n=24	-	-	n=22	-	-	n=60	-	-

*Spearman's $Rho r = 0.96$, $p < 0.0001$ (2-tail) highly significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to reasons given for female victims not to report.

** Spearman's $Rho r = 0.79$, $p < 0.004$ (2-tail) significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to reasons given for male victims not to report.

*** Spearman's $Rho r = 0.63$, $p < 0.04$, (2-tail) significant correlation between male and female victim rankings by professionals.

**** Spearman's $Rho r = 0.63$, $p < 0.04$, (2-tail) significant correlation between male and female victim rankings by police.

given for male victims not to report (Spearman's Rho $r = 0.79$, $p < 0.004$ - 2-tail). Therefore, a comparison of professionals and police responses demonstrate that they have similar opinions on why women and men are reluctant to report their victimization.

Research Question 8: What are the likely causes of domestic abuse against men and women?

There were few significant gender differences in professionals ($N=327$) opinions on the causes of DA to women and men (see Table 5.7). Factors reported to be *likely* or *very likely* for women and men as victims were; drug and alcohol misuse (86.9% vs 85.6% of respondents respectively), issues about the children (76.5% vs 79.8%), access to safe alternative accommodation (73.4% vs 69.4%), retaliation to abuse (78.9% vs 70.1%), partner's history of violence (43.1 % 42%), unemployment (21.4% vs 29.4%), the impact of a patriarchal culture (6.4% vs 17.4% respectively) and other factors (56.6% vs 50.1%). Only, financial worries (83.5% vs 59.9%), lack of support from the criminal justice system (5.2% vs 29.7%) were deemed by professionals to significantly differ as a likely cause of DVA (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.05$, $df=1$, two-tail) (Q.20A 20B).

There were few significant gender differences in police officers ($N=358$) opinions on the causes of DVA to women and men (see Table 5.7). Factors reported to be *likely* or *very likely* for women and men as victims were; drug and alcohol misuse (86.3% vs 86.9% of respondents respectively), issues about the children (76.4% vs 81.6%), access to safe alternative accommodation (73.2% vs 72.1%), retaliation to abuse (77.7% vs 69.6%), partner's history of violence (42.2 % 51.4%), unemployment (20.7% vs 26.8%), and the impact of a patriarchal culture (6.4% vs 19.8% respectively) and other factors (56.6% vs 45.8%). Only, financial worries (82.7% vs 54.7%), and lack of support from the criminal justice system (5.3% vs 31.6%) were deemed by police officers to significantly differ as a likely cause of DVA (Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.05$, $df=1$, two-tail) (Q.20A,20B).

Table 5.7*Professionals and police opinions on the causes of domestic abuse against female and male victims*

Variable	Professionals (N=327)***						Police (N=358)*****					
	Female*			Male**			Female*			Male**		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Partner's history of violence	141	43.1	4	170	52.0	5	151	42.2	4	184	51.4	5
Drug/alcohol abuse	284	86.9	11	280	85.6	11	309	86.3	11	311	86.9	11
Financial worries	273	83.5	10	196	59.9	7	296	82.7	10	196	54.7	6
Employment problems	70	21.4	3	96	29.4	2	74	20.7	3	96	26.8	2
Relationships (affairs, prev. partners etc.)	231	70.6	6	189	57.8	6	254	70.9	6	200	55.9	7
Retaliation against partner's violence	258	78.9	9	229	70.1	9	278	77.7	9	249	69.6	8

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

Issues with children in relationship.	250	76.5	8	261	79.8	10	270	75.4	8	292	81.6	10
Lack of support in criminal justice system.	17	5.2	1	97	29.7	3	19	5.3	1	113	31.6	3
Absence of alternative, safe accom.	240	73.4	7	227	69.4	8	262	73.2	7	248	72.1	9
Cultural Practices	21	6.4	2	57	17.4	1	23	6.4	2	71	19.8	1
Other	185	56.6	5	164	50.1	4	199	55.6	5	164	45.8	4

**Spearman's Rho $r = 1.00$, $p < 0.0001$ (2-tail) highly significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to causes of domestic abuse for women.*

***Spearman's Rho $r = 0.98$, $p < 0.0001$ (2-tail) highly significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to causes of domestic abuse for men.*

****Spearman's Rho $r = 0.90$, $p < 0.0002$ (2-tail) significant correlation between male and female victim rankings by professionals.*

*****Spearman's Rho $r = 0.85$, $p < 0.001$ (2-tail) significant correlation between male and female victim rankings by police.*

Table 5.7 shows each factor ranked high to low (11 to 1) for professional and police responses on the causes of DVA for female and male victims. A comparison of these rankings shows a highly significant perfect correlation between professionals and police in relation to opinions on the causes of DVA for female victims (Spearman's Rho $r = 1.00$, $p < 0.0001$ - 2-tail). In addition, a highly significant correlation between professionals and police in relation to opinions on the causes of DVA for male victims (Spearman's Rho $r = 0.98$, $p < 0.0001$ - 2-tail). Furthermore, there was a significant correlation on professional's opinions of the causes of DVA for women and men (Spearman's Rho $r = 0.90$, $p < 0.0002$ - 2-tail) and similarly, there was a significant correlation on police officer's opinions of the causes of DVA for women and men (Spearman's Rho $r = 0.85$, $p < 0.001$ - 2-tail). Therefore, a comparison of professionals and police responses demonstrate that they have nearly the same opinions on the causes of DVA for women and men and the rank order of importance. Within professionals and police groups the opinions on the causes for female and male victims are also very similar.

Discussion

This investigation compared police and professional responses towards female and male victims of DVA and is one of the few attempts to research whether recent changes in gender neutral opinions and attitudes to DVA victims are evident in both police and professionals in Greece. The objective was to determine differences and similarities in the perceptions and opinions of police officers compared to professionals who work and support DVA victims.

To facilitate a valid comparison, the same Questionnaire was distributed to and returned by the police during a 12month period (1st April 2016 to 31st March 2017) and was distributed to and returned by professionals during an overlapping 12month period (1 October 2016 to 30th November 2017). All questionnaires were completed and returned by the end of 2017. Responses from the police are detailed in Chapter 3 and responses from professional are detailed in Chapter 4.

The findings of this study reflected a lack of experience with male victims for both professionals and police officers with no significant difference between the two groups. Approximately, a quarter (26%) of police officers and three out of ten (30%) professionals referred to male victims when reporting their experience of types of abuse. This compares to

nearly three-quarters (74%) of police officers and seven out of ten professionals (70%) who reported their experience of types of abuse female victims suffered. Even fewer (2.7%) police and professionals' respondents had experienced DVA between same sex couples, which was slightly higher for the police (4%) than for professionals (1.3%) but not significant. Nevertheless, police were significantly less likely than professionals (25.7% vs 46.8%) to say that male victimization had increased over the past 5 years. Both police and professional agreed on the observation that female victimization has increased over the same time period. These findings support the general observation of research that experience, and information related to male victims is more difficult to obtain than for female victims (Douglas & Hines, 2011).

Professional and police opinions on what information is recorded when dealing with DVA, showed significantly more professionals (94.6%) compared to police (72.7%) said that they used a specific definition. A similar significant difference was evident for recording the gender of the DVA victim (99.1% vs 71.0% respectively), whereas significantly more police (79.3%) compared to professionals (66.4%) said that they recorded the gender of the DVA offender (see Table 5.1). These significant differences underly the purpose and function of police and support services, with police being offender focused and support agencies victim focused. However, an operational definition should be important for both groups (HMIC, 2014). There were no significant differences between police and professionals for recording age and ethnicity and all demographic factors (gender, age, ethnicity) were reported to be recorded in at least 71% of cases, with the exception of gender of the offender, which was recorded by professionals in two-thirds (66.4%) of cases.

Research that is available (see Chapter 2) agrees with the findings from this study of police and professionals responses in that they both reported that severe physical violence was the most common type of DVA suffered by female victims, as it accounted for 41% and 47 % of responses respectively. By contrast, police and professional both reported that moderate/minor physical injury was the most common type of DVA suffered by male victims, as this represented half (49.4% and 50.0%) of all responses related to men. In addition, police and professionals both agree that least common was 'psychological and verbal abuse'. Nevertheless, women were 2 to 3 times more likely to suffer this type of DVA than men according to both police (22.8 % vs 9.6%) and professionals (15.2% vs 5.7%) responses. This

contradicts the myth of the 'nagging female spouse' as has been observed by other research studies (Hughes et.al, 2013; McHugh & Hambaugh, 2010).

A few significant differences between police and professionals did emerge in relation to support and interventions available for female and male victims of DVA. Regarding support, results indicated that male victims are given more encouragement by professionals to contact social services and professionals receive more training to support male victims compared to police officers (see Table 5.4), yet their contact with men as victims seems to be less. Over 87% of all respondents believed that community programmes were available for female victims whereas no more than 60% believed that community programmes were on offer for male victims. Approximately, half of all respondents believed that community offender programs were present for male and female offenders but only one in five professionals and one in ten police thought that prison programmes were in place (see Table 5.5). Both police and professionals agreed that there is a paucity of support and interventions available for male victims, which agrees with previous research. Men experience many barriers when seeking services for domestic violence, which include internal barriers and external barriers, possibly due to society's misconception that domestic violence has always been a woman's problem (Douglas et al., 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Johnson, 2012).

With respect to police and professional opinions on the reasons why female and male victims fail to report their problems, Table 5.6 shows there were highly significant correlations both within (females vs males) and between the two groups (professionals vs police) for the rank order of factors associated with female and male victim's reasons for not reporting their abuse. Professional and police responses place 'absence of support services as the most frequent response for not reporting, from most participants, suggesting this is the most important factor (see Table 5.8). For women, the 'fear of media reports' appears the second most frequent, whereas for men it is the 'fear of discrimination by the criminal justice system'. This supports victim reports (see Chapter 6 and 7) and earlier research on this topic (Hines & Douglas, 2009; Hines et al. 2007; Donovan et al, 2006; Stitt & Macklin 1995).

Based on the information derived from police and professional's responses to victims in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 evaluating the influence of gender of the victim and the offender. A structured questionnaire for victims was devised to explore the research question from a victim

perspective. In the next Chapter 6, female and male victims are asked to give their opinions on their experiences of police response to their DVA calls.

Chapter 6

Victim opinions of police responses to reports of domestic violence and abuse

Abstract

This Study aims to investigate differences in female and male victim experiences after making a report to the Greek police about domestic violence and abuse (DVA) and whether these experiences differ in the presence or absence of children. A victim sample consisting of 75 participants was recruited from five agencies offering counseling and support for DVA victims in Greece. All participants completed a 59 item questionnaire, which had nine sections; demographics (9 questions), police interview (5 questions), weapons (4 questions), injuries and evidence (3 questions), children and witnesses (12 questions), arrest (2 questions), protective orders (4 questions), information provided (6 questions) and police report (14 questions). Comparing 58 female and 17 male victims, with similar demographic characteristics; there were 18 significant differences ($p < 0.001$) and 13 trends ($p < 0.002$ to $p < 0.05$) found for 31 out of 50 questions. Only questions related to safeguarding children and witnesses showed no differences. A comparison of questionnaires from 38 female victims with children with 20 with no children determined that the influence of children in the home on police responses was small. It was found that a small number of factors (9 out of 50 questions) were influenced by the presence of children. Mostly, these were factors associated with information, advice and actions to safeguard the child(ren). Overall, results showed there were profound differences between the experiences reported by women compared to men for police responses to the victim. Evidence is provided to support the notion that male victims in Greece are discriminated against, as they do not fulfil the gender stereotype expected by police officers. This suggests that more police training is required to ensure gender 'neutral' police responses when attending a domestic dispute or responding to a report of DVA.

Victim opinions of police responses to reports of Domestic Violence and Abuse.

Introduction

In September 2013, Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) was contracted by the Home Secretary to review the police response to domestic violence and abuse (DVA). The report, "Everyone's business: Improving the police response to domestic abuse" found that, while most forces and police and crime commissioners have said that domestic abuse is a priority for their areas, this isn't being translated into an operational reality. HMIC was concerned to find that, despite the progress made in this area over the last decade, not all police leaders were ensuring that domestic abuse is a priority in their forces – it was often a poor relation to other policing activity. According to the report, there are "fundamental weaknesses in the service provided to victims of domestic abuse by the police service". The Report made 11 recommendations and called on forces to "take urgent action to improve their ways of working to make their services more effective" (HMIC 2015 p8).

According to research, less than half of all victims of violence at the hands of spouses or other family members report their abuse to the police (Grech & Burgess, 2011). A UK Home Office paper (2004:34) states that "The British Crime Survey shows that less than one in four women and one in ten men (23% and 8% respectively) of the worst cases of domestic violence were reported to the police, so solely relying on police data means that many cases of domestic violence will not be recorded." However Britton (2012) in the latest analysis of the British Crime Survey (BCS) comments that although the under-reporting of crime to the police is especially prevalent within domestic or intimate violence, the BCS self-completion survey has the advantage of being able to gain more information not reported to the police. He states (2012:83) that "around six percent of women and four percent of men had experienced partner abuse in the last year, equivalent to around 900,000 female and 600,000 male victims". Therefore, not all victims of domestic violence call the police in domestic violence incidents (Stanko, 1989). Some victims do not call the police because of fear of discrimination (see Chapter 5) and lack of protection from future acts of abuse.

There are three reasons for concern about this. First, when DVA goes unreported, offenders go undetected and unpunished, thereby robbing the law of any deterrent effect it might have had. Second, failure to report may mean that victims do not receive the mental and physical support

they need or would benefit from receiving (Bosick et al., 2012). Third, inaccurate information on the actual number of incidents may lead to the misallocation of funds for management (Bosick et al., 2012).

Most victims hope that the abuse will stop without legal intervention and are entrapped in the abusive relationship by financial dependence, and a wish to 'save their relationship' (Davis & Smith, 1995; Browne & Herbert, 1997, Browne et al, 2017). Furthermore, they often lack support from families, and/or police and professionals, to make a change or fear family breakdown (Op. cit.). The lack of help and support is cited by police and professionals dealing with DVA as a reason for victims of either gender not reporting or staying in an abusive relationship (Anderson et al., 2003; see Chapter 5).

Victims' decision to seek police and legal intervention is influenced by several factors. Victims may call the police not necessarily to have their abuser arrested, but because they believe the presence of law enforcement allows them to muster some degree of control of their situation and send a message that the abuser's behavior is wrong, the victim has 'had enough' and wishes to record the abuse took place (Ford, 1991; Hoyle & Sanders, 2000; Smith, 2000; Leisenring, 2012). Other victims may not call the police because of their perceptions that the abuse may increase in severity and frequency if the abuser is arrested (Johnson, 2007) or legal intervention may lead to the children being removed and taken into public care (Felson et al., 2002; Browne et al. 2017).

Even when victims call the police, they may do it for very different reasons. An interview study of 65 women who had suffered DVA and reported it to the police in the UK, found that approximately half the women wished their partner to be arrested, the other half just wished the violence to stop and the police do nothing, calm the abuser down or get help for the abuser (Hoyle & Sanders, 2000). In a study by Bohmer et al. (2002), a female victim of DVA proclaimed "I need him to pay the bills more than I need him to pay for the violence" (p.82). Indeed, research has demonstrated that there is mixed support for mandatory arrest policies and many women do not believe that their partner's arrest will be benefit their situation, although they may support arrest for DVA offenders in general (Bohmer, et al., 2002; Barata & Schneider, 2004; Smith, 2001).

Victim opinions of Police responses

A telephone interview study by Johnson (2007) found that one third of 39 female DVA victims in Alabama regretted calling the police. Whereas, interviews carried out by Leisenring's (2012) showed that 21 of 40 Californian women (mean age of 32 and 43% African American) expressed their dissatisfaction with responding police officers. Fourteen of these women reported an unwanted arrest involving their partner and/or themselves and 7 claimed they were not taken seriously; the police were not sympathetic and/or blamed them for the abuse.

Victims' satisfaction with police response to domestic abuse incidents is influenced by several factors including the positive attitude of police officers (Stephens & Sinden, 2000) and prior positive contact with the police (Goldstein, 1982). Whether the police act in accordance with the victims' preferences seems to be a major and obvious factor for victim satisfaction as observed in several studies (Apsler, 2003; Buzawa & Austin, 1993; Chandek & Porter, 1998; Muraoka, 1996; Robinson & Stroshine, 2005; Rajah et al., 2006).

A timely response to DVA victims' calls for assistance, the provision of information regarding shelters further protection, court orders all increase the likelihood that victims will be satisfied with police response (Erez & Belknap, 1998; Johnson, 2007; Muraoka, 1996; Yegidis & Renzy, 1994). Victims being able to make statements about the abuse, having officers to listen to and understand the situation, and speaking with officers separate from the abuser, were all characteristics of the police officers' response to DVA seen as positive and satisfying to the victims (Johnson, 2007; Robinson & Stroshine, 2005).

However, victims' expectations differ in terms of an arrest being made and obviously women who experience their own arrest or dual arrest were the most likely to say they would not want to involve the police in future incidents of DVA (Johnson, 2007; Leisenring, 2012).

Several studies have demonstrated a strong association between women's dissatisfaction with police response and the willingness to call them again (Apsler, et al, 2003; Fleury-Steiner et al, 2006; Johnson, 2007). Indeed, Leisenring (2012) found that 19 of her 40 female victim interviewees would 'hesitate' to use the criminal justice system' in future, as in their view involvement of the police made matters worse. This observation highlights the need for the police to question and understand the victim's perspective.

Male victims experience even more barriers when they ask for help for DVA, possibly due to society's misconception that DA has always been a woman's problem (Douglas et al., 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Tsui et al., 2010). When men were asked about the reason that they don't always report the abuse or seek help from the police or DA services, they stated fear of ridicule, lack of support services for men, denial and the stigma that men can't be abused and/or the shame and embarrassment of being a male victim (Barkhuizen, 2015; Drijber et al., 2013; Shuler, 2010; Tsui, 2014).

To date few studies have considered males victims perceptions of police responses. Typically studies that come across a minority of male victims exclude them from the analyses to investigate a homogeneous sample of female victims. For example, Johnson (2007) randomly selected ten DVA incident reports each month for 13 months (1st Jan. 2000 to 31 Jan 2001) yielding 130 incident reports for review. Of these, 109 (84%) cases concerned a female victim and 21 (16%) cases concerned a male victim. Supporting previous research Johnson (2007) observed that female victims were more likely to suffer more serious physical assaults (30% of female victims) compared to male victims but were significantly more likely to use a weapon against their partner (28.6% of cases) than men (8.3% of cases). However, telephone interviews were only carried out with a random sample of 50 of the 109 female victims and only 39 women agreed to participate (78% response rate). No male victims were interviewed.

The experience of DVA victims in Greece

Furthermore, there are no known studies of victim opinions of police responses to DVA calls for assistance in Greece of any kind. It has been noted that women from Albania or other countries who have an accent when they are speaking Greek may have difficulties reporting a crime to the police (Coordinator of the Gender Equality Office in Ioannina - 26 Apr. 2014). This includes DVA, as police officers "usually ignore [women] or even make fun of them" when they come to report a case of domestic violence (ibid.). Indeed, all women reporting domestic violence cases at a police station in Greece often receive inappropriate answers from police officers: "'ok, now go back to your family and try to make up with your husband'," or "'ok, you made your report, you can go'," in practice the police officers rarely write an official report (ibid.). Few observations have been made about male victims in Greece.

Aims of the Study

During the past 5 years, Greek police officers have acquired training and good practice in responding to domestic violence. One issue is the way that police officers respond to reported incidents of domestic violence. This Study aims to investigate differences in female and male victim experiences after making a report to the Greek police about DVA and whether these experiences differ in the presence or absence of children.

This Questionnaire Study investigates Greek victim opinions on the police response they received after making a DVA call for assistance to the following four research questions: (1) What help and advice do police make available to victims of DVA and how helpful or not do victims find the information provided. (2) How are the DVA calls handled by the police and how satisfied are the victims with the outcome of being interviewed and any police report made. (3) Are there differences in victim experiences based on the gender of the victim. (4) How does the presence or absence of children impact on the police response.

The following hypotheses were posed for the current study.

Null Hypothesis 1: Victim opinions on police responses to DVA cases will show no differences between female and male victims for help and advice given by police officer(s) attending the incident.

Null Hypothesis 2: Victim opinions on police responses to DVA cases will show no differences between female and male victims for victim satisfaction with the outcome of police officer(s) attending the incident, the interview and the police report.

Null Hypothesis 3: Female victim opinions on police responses to DVA cases will show no differences between children present and children absent for help and advice given by police officer(s) attending the incident.

Null Hypothesis 4: Female victim opinions on police responses to DVA cases will show no differences between children present and children absent for victim satisfaction with the outcome of police officer(s) attending the incident.

Methods

Participants

The Greek victim sample consisted of 75 participants, of which 58 were female (38 living with children) and 17 were male (11 living with children). All DVA victims were attending five agencies offering counseling and support for victims in Greece. The number of victims approached by the Centre administrators was 104 and 29 refused to participate giving an approximately 72% response rate. The victims were being supported by five agencies in Greece dealing with DVA (For details of the Agencies – see Chapter 4 pages 116 to 118).

- 1) DIMOS PATREON DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SUPPORT (DPDSS) provided 5 female victim questionnaires.
- 2) THE NATIONAL CENTRE FOR SOCIAL SOLIDARITY (EKKA) provided 18 female victim questionnaires.
- 3) THE PARENTAL EQUALITY ASSOCIATION (GONIS) provided 9 victim (7 female and 2 male) questionnaires.
- 4) The ASSOCIATION FOR MEN & FATHERS DIGNITY and EQUAL PARENTITY (SYGAPA) provided 15 male victim questionnaires only.
- 5) UNITED WOMEN ASSOCIATIONS OF HERAKLION (UWAH) provided 28 female victim questionnaires.

Procedure

After getting ethical approval from the University of Nottingham and Medical School Ethics Committee (see Appendix 13), DVA support organizations in Greece were asked to help the researcher to identify the victims and advise if it would be feasible to approach them (see Appendix 10). There was no cover letter/e-mail that was sent directly to potential participants since they have been recruited to complete the study questionnaire by the support agency administrator. So, a covering e-mail/letter (Appendix 10) had been sent to Centre managers inviting them to circulate the information letter (Appendix 11), the consent form (Appendix 12) and the questionnaire (Appendix 6) to potential participants through the Agency

administrator. At the end of the data collection the completed questionnaires were waiting to be collected by the researcher from each agency in Greece. The Questionnaire was distributed to and returned by victims during a 12month period (1 October 2016 to 30th November 2017). All questionnaires were completed and returned by the end of 2017.

Materials

A victim orientated questionnaire (see Appendix 6) was created by the researcher to provide the relevant information on victim opinions of the police response they had experienced after reporting the last incident of DVA they had suffered. All participants completed the 59 item questionnaire, which had nine sections; demographics (9 questions), police interview (5 questions), weapons (4 questions), injuries and evidence (3 questions), children and witnesses (12 questions), arrest (2 questions), protective orders (4 questions), information provided (6 questions) and police report (14 questions). At first, a pilot study was run in order to ensure that all questions and instructions were easily understood, and no changes were needed. Two Greek female victims from UWAH took part in the pilot study. The pilot study was conducted at the UWAH offices and was completed by the researcher face to face with the individual respondent. The pilot study did not reveal any problems in the procedure or the questionnaire for self-administration. The Questionnaire was back translated from English into Greek language by an official translator to avoid any possible mistakes.

Treatment of Data

After all the questionnaires were completed, the victim data were collected and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows Version 25 in order to carry out the appropriate statistical analyses. The Chi-Square Test was used together with a Bonferroni Correction (see Chapter 3; page 91) to infer significant differences in the police responses experienced by female (n=58) and male victims (n=17) to the questionnaire. In addition, Spearman's rho was applied (see Chapter 4; page 116) to evaluate any significant similarities or contrasts between female and male victim opinions.

Because of performing several independent statistical tests simultaneously, the Bonferroni correction is used again, as a multiple-comparison correction. Spurious positive associations that may occur by chance are avoided by lowering the significant p value (eg; from $p < 0,05$ at a 95% level of confidence to $p < 0.01$ at a 99% level of confidence) to account for the number of comparisons being performed (Seigel and Casterlan, 1989).

The Bonferroni Correction was calculated;

<https://www.easycalculation.com/statistics/bonferroni-correction-calculator.php>.

A probability level at $P < 0.001$ was accepted, due to the larger number (58 variables) of statistical comparisons with multiple chi-square tests or Fisher's exact tests, compared to previous Chapters. Similarly, the same tests and probability criteria were applied to nominal data to compare police responses experienced by female victims living with children ($n=38$) and female victims without children ($n=20$). Of the 17 male victims, 11 had children and 6 did not. To confound matters, only 7 (of 11) fathers were living with their children, so all men they were dropped from the comparison.

With a confidence level of 95%, and a power level of 80%, the sample size needed to be minimum 68 – so the study reached power required at $N=75$ and responses to the questions were dichotomized for analyses. However, for the comparison of female victims with children ($n=38$) and female victims without children ($n=20$), the sample size of 58 women was slightly underpowered.

<https://select-statistics.co.uk/calculators/sample-size-calculator-population-proportion/>

Ethical issues

Informed Consent: Participants were informed about the purpose and nature of this research study prior deciding whether, or not, to take part. An information letter was given to all participants stating the purpose of the study and how long the questionnaire would take to complete. Participants were approached to participate by the administrator of the support and counseling service within each agency.

Voluntary Participation: Participants have been informed that their decision to participate are their choice and that their decision would not have any negative consequence for any future

services received from either the police or DVA support organizations. In addition, each participant has been told that they could take as long as they wish to consent and that they have the right to withdraw at any stage. The consent form acknowledged their voluntary participation and was kept by the administrator.

Protection of Participants: Efforts were made to ensure that participants were aware of the nature of this study in order to make informed decision whether, or not, it will be likely to cause any distress. The researcher considered it extremely unlikely that content of the questionnaires would result in any risk of harm or stress to participants. Moreover, participants were informed that they have the right to stop the progress of the participation at any time.

Confidentiality: Every effort was made to ensure participants of anonymity and confidentiality. Participants were reminded of the anonymity and confidentiality to gain valid and honest responses. Participants were also be notified that any report of research findings would be an overall summary report with no identifying information of any kind and everyone's anonymity would be preserved. On request, the report would be made available to all those involved in the Study. would contain no identifying information.

Debriefing: All participants were provided with an organized session by the support agency in order to receive written as well as verbal debriefing and discuss any queries.

Results

Demographic characteristics of female and male victim respondents (Table 6.1)

In total, 75 victims in a heterosexual relationship completed the Questionnaire; 77.3% were women and 22.7% were men. More women (72.4%) than men (52.9%) remained in a relationship with their abusive partner but not significantly so. Most participants (86.7%) were of Greek Nationality. A similar percent of female victims (FVs-46.6%) and male victims

Table 6.1

Demographic Characteristics of female and male victims of DVA completing the questionnaire on police response (N=75).

Ques	Variables	Category	Females		Males		Total		Statistics Fisher’s Exact (FE) or Chi-Square (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n= 58		n=17					
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
D1	Age	18-40	37	63.8	11	64.7	48	64.0	0.005	p =0.945 NS
		More than 40	21	36.2	6	35.3	27	36.0		
D2	Nationality	Greek	49	84.5	16	94.1	65	86.7	FE	p =0.439 NS
		Other	9	15.5	1	5.9	10	13.3		
D3	Current Relationship status	Married/Cohab	42	72.4	9	52.9	51	68.0	2.291	p =0.130 NS
		Separated/Div	16	27.6	8	47.1	24	32.0		
D4	Education	Not/basic Education	27	46.6	7	41.2	34	45.3	0.153	p =0.695 NS
		Higher Education	31	53.4	10	58.8	41	54.7		
D5	Number of children	No children	20	34.5	6	35.3	26	34.7	0.004	p =0.951 NS
		1 or more children	38	65.5	11	64.7	49	65.3		
									N/A	N/A

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

D6	Children live with you	No	20	34.5	10	58.8	30	40.0	3.24	p =0.072 NS
		Yes	38	65.5	7	41.2	45	60.0		
D7	Children are	Biological	38	100.0	11	100.0	48	100.0	N/A	N/A
		Adopted								
D8	Employment status	Employed	30	51.7	15	88.2	45	60.0	7.302	p =0.007 NS
		Unemployed	28	48.3	2	11.8	30	40.0		

(MVs-41.2%) had further/higher Education but less women (51.7%%) were employed compared to men (88.2%%), which nearly reached significance ($P<0.007$). There was no significant difference in the age range of the 58 female DVA victims and 17 male DVA victims. Table 6.1 shows that overall 48 victims were between 18 to 40 years old (37 females and 11 males) and 27 victims were between 40 and 60 (21 females and 6 males).

Regarding children, 49 (65.3%) participants had at least one child and 26 (34.7%) had no children. All children were biologically related to the DVA victim and for FVs with children ($n=38$); all mothers lived with their children. For MVs with children ($n=11$), 7 (63.6%) lived with their children.

Overall, female and male victims of DVA showed no significant differences in respect of demographic characteristics with only employment status approaching significance, with more men in a job.

Table 6.2

Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to police interviews. (N=75).

Ques	Variable	Category	Females		Males		Total		Statistic Fisher's Exact (FE) or Chi-Square test (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n=58		n=17					
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
Police interview:										
1.	Did you feel the officer showed concern for you and your safety?	No	7	12.1	8	47.1	15	20.0	1.49	P=0.222 NS
		Yes	51	87.9	9	52.9	60	80.0		
2.	Did the officer ask you about the history of abuse in the relationship?	No	18	31.0	8	47.1	26	34.7	24.20	P<0.0001
		Yes	40	69.0	9	52.9	49	65.3		
3.	Did the officer ask you whether the abuser had ever been abusive to the children?	No	5	13.5	14	82.4	19	35.0	21.62	P<0.0001
		Yes	32	86.5	3	17.6	35	65.8		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

4.	Did the officer ask you specific information about any threats made against you?	No	9	16.7	13	76.5	22	31.0	41.47	P<0.0001
		Yes	45	83.3	4	8.2	49	69.0		
5.	Did the officer ask you if your partner has ever forced you to have sex	No	3	5.4	13	81.3	16	22.2		
		Yes	53	94.6	3	5.4	56	77.8		

Table 6.3

Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to weapons used and injuries and evidence (N=75).

Ques	Variable	Category	Females		Males		Total		Statistic Fisher's Exact (FE) or Chi-Square test (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n=58		n=17					
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
<i>Weapons used:</i>										
6.	Did the officer ask you if the abuser ever used weapons against you?	No	1	0	12	80.0	12	16.4	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	58	100	3	20.0	61	86.4		
7	Did the officer ask you if the abuser ever used weapons against your children?	No	3	8.1	12	80.0	15	28.8	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	34	91.9	3	20.0	37	71.2		
8	Did the officer ask if the weapons have guns or has access to weapons?	No	7	12.1	14	93.3	21	28.8	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	51	87.9	1	1.9	52	71.2		
9.	If you told the officer the abuser has weapons, did the officer remove the weapons?	No	0	0.0	17	100.0	17	25.4	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	50	100.0	0.0	0.0	50	75.6		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

<i>Your injuries and evidence:</i>										
10	Did the officer ask about all your injuries?	No	1	1.7	13	86.7	14	19.2	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	57	98.3	2	13.3	59	80.8		
11	Did the officer take pictures of all your injuries or arrange to have pictures taken?	No	10	17.2	14	82.4	24	32.0	25.61	P<0.0001
		Yes	48	82.8	3	17.6	51	68.0		
12	Did the officer collect, or take pictures of, all physical evidence?	No	12	24.5	13	86.7	25	39.1	18.65	P<0.0001
		Yes	37	75.5	2	13.3	39	60.9		

Table 6.4

Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to children and witnesses. (N=75).

Ques	Variable	Category	Females		Males		Total		Statistic Fisher’s Exact (FE) or Chi-Square test (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n=38		n=11		N=49			
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
<i>Children and witnesses:</i>										
13	Do any of your children have become victim of abuse?	No	21	63.6	3	33.3	24	57.1	FE	P=0.139 NS
		Yes	12	36.4	6	66.7	18	42.9		
14	Do any of your children was observer of the abuse against you?	No	7	18.4	3	27.3	10	20.4	FE	P=0.673 NS
		Yes	31	81.6	8	72.7	39	79.6		
15	Have your children or some of them encouraged you to call the police?	No	20	52.6	5	45.5	25	51.0	0.175	P=0.675 NS
		Yes	18	47.4	6	54.5	24	49.0		
16	Were your children pleased when the police arrived?	No	8	25.8	6	66.7	14	35.0	FE	P=0.044 NS
		Yes	23	74.2	3	33.3	26	65.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

17	Were any of your children afraid from the police?	No	14	42.4	5	50.0	19	42.4	FE	P=0.728 NS
		Yes	19	57.6	5	50.0	24	55.8		
18	Were any of your children identified as safe by the police?	No	10	31.3	5	62.5	15	37.5	FE	P=0.126 NS
		Yes	22	68.8	3	37.5	25	62.5		
19	Did the officer get a statement from each of the children who are old enough to talk?	No	26	70.3	7	77.8	33	71.7	FE	P=1.000 NS
		Yes	11	29.7	2	22.2	13	28.3		
20	Do you feel the officer interviewed your children with sensitivity?	No	7	21.2	6	75.0	13	31.7	8.603	P=0.007 NS
		Yes	26	78.8	2	25.0	28	68.3		
21	Did the officer remove the children from the place that you were interviewed?	No	6	15.8	3	27.3	9	18.4	FE	P=0.04 NS
		Yes	32	84.2	8	72.7	40	81.6		
22	If the children were at home when the police arrived did the officer took them to a safe place?	No	17	44.7	7	63.6	24	49.0	1.219	P=0.269 NS
		Yes	21	55.3	4	36.4	25	51.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

23	Did the officer ask you about the possibility of other witnesses?	No	12	20.7	8	47.1	20	26.7	FE	P=0.058 NS
		Yes	45	79.3	9	52.9	55	75.3		
24	Did the police interview other possible witnesses or try to interview them?	No	8	24.2	4	36.4	12	27.3	FE	P=0.457 NS
		Yes	25	75.8	7	63.6	32	72.7		

Table 6.5

Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to arrest, protected orders and information provided. (N=75).

Ques	Variable	Category	Females		Males		Total		Statistic Fisher's Exact (FE) or Chi-Square test (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n=58		n=17					
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
Arrest:										
25	Did the officer arrest the abuser?	No	0	0.0	12	92.3	12	16.9	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	58	100	1	7.7	59	83.1		
26	If the abuser left the scene, did the officer ask where the abuser is?	No	0	0.0	9	60.0	9	12.3	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	58	100	6	40.0	64	87.7		
Protective orders:										
27	Did the officer ask you if you have a protective order against the abuser?	No	20	34.5	13	76.5	33	44.0	9.406	P=0.002 NS
		Yes	38	65.5	4	23.5	42	56.0		
38	Did the officer ask to see the protective order?	No	18	31.6	13	76.5	31	41.9	10.841	P=0.002 NS
		Yes	39	68.4	4	23.5	43	58.1		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

29	If you didn't have a restraining order, did the officer offer you an Emergency Protective Order?	No	20	34.5	10	62.5	30	40.5	4.084	P=0.043 NS
		Yes	38	65.5	6	37.5	44	59.5		
30	Did the officer issue you an Emergency Protective Order?	No	22	38.6	11	62.5	33	45.2	4.586	P=0.032 NS
		Yes	35	61.4	5	37.5	40	54.8		
Information provided:										
31	Did the officer give you verbal information on the services available to you?	No	9	15.5	13	76.5	22	29.3	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	49	84.5	4	23.0	53	70.7		
32	Did the officer give you written information on the services available to you?	No	7	12.1	11	64.7	18	24.0	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	51	87.7	6	35.3	57	76.0		
33	Did the officer give you the crime report number?	No	0	0	3	17.6	3	4.0	FE	P=0.01 NS
		Yes	58	100	14	82.4	72	96.0		
34	Did the officer ask you if you had any questions?	No	8	13.8	13	76.5	21	28.0	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	50	86.3	4	23.5	54	72.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

35	If you had questions, did the officer answer your questions to your satisfaction?	No	16	27.6	13	76.5	29	38.7	13.247	P<0.0001
		Yes	42	72.4	4	23.5	46	61.3		
36	Did the officer adequately explain to you what will happen next and when it will happen?	No	26	44.8	15	88.2	41	54.7	9.996	P=0.002 NS
		Yes	32	55.2	2	11.8	34	45.3		

Table 6.6

Differences between female and male victims on police responses to their request for help related to police report. (N=75).

Ques	Variable	Category	Females		Males		Total		Statistic Fisher's Exact (FE) or Chi-Square test (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n=58		n=17					
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
Police report:										
37	Did the officer write up a domestic violence crime report?	No	0	0.0	9	52.9	9	12.0	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	58	100	8	47.1	66	88.0		
38	Do the police report accurately reflect the story you told to the officer?	No	22	38.6	9	60.0	31	43.1	2.219	P=0.155 NS
		Yes	35	61.4	6	40.0	41	56.9		
39	Do the police report accurately describe the history of abuse?	No	35	60.3	11	64.7	46	61.3	0.105	P=0.745 NS
		Yes	23	39.7	6	35.3	29	38.7		
40	If the abuser has a criminal history did the	No	7	24.1	12	75.0	19	42.2	10.934	P=0.002 NS
		Yes	22	75.9	4	25.0	26	57.8		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	police attach a copy of the abuser's criminal history to the domestic violence report?									
41	If you told the officer about abuse to the children does the police report accurately describe that abuse?	No	3	7.9	3	30.0	6	12.5	FE	P=0.095 NS
		Yes	35	92.1	7	70.0	42	87.5		
42	Do the police report accurately describe incidents of forced sex?	No	11	20.0	14	100.0	25	36.2	30.912	P<0.0001
		Yes	44	80.0	0	0.0	44	63.8		
43	Do the police report accurately describe all your injuries?	No	18	33.3	11	68.8	29	41.4	6.380	P=0.012 NS
		Yes	36	66.7	5	31.3	41	58.6		
44	Are all threats against you correctly quoted in the police report?	No	21	36.2	3	21.4	24	33.3	FE	P=0.359 NS
		Yes	37	63.8	11	78.6	38	66.7		
45	Do the police report accurately record the statements of the children?	No	12	31.6	3	37.5	15	32.6	FE	P=1.000 NS
		Yes	26	68.4	5	62.5	31	67.4		
46	Do the police report contain the statements of the other witnesses?	No	12	50.0	5	38.5	17	45.9	0.452	P=0.501 NS
		Yes	12	50.0	8	61.5	20	54.1		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

47	Do the police report accurately list all the physical evidence available?	No	14	34.1	8	57.1	22	40.0	2.300	P=0.129 NS
		Yes	27	65.9	6	42.9	33	60.0		
48	Overall, does the police report seem fair to you in the way it was written?	No	26	44.8	5	38.5	31	43.7	0.175	P=0.676 NS
		Yes	32	55.2	8	61.5	40	56.3		
49	Overall, does the police report seem complete in covering the incident?	No	14	24.1	10	66.7	24	32.9	FE	P=0.004 NS
		Yes	44	75.9	5	33.3	49	67.1		
50	Do you feel that the recommended charges on the report are adequate to cover what happened to you?	No	39	67.2	10	58.8	49	65.3	0.411	P=0.521 NS
		Yes	19	32.8	7	41.2	26	34.7		

Differences between female and male victims to police responses (Table 6.2)

Police interview (Table 6.2; questions 1 to 5)

Of the five questions relating to the victim's experience of the initial police interview, female victims remembered more relevant questions than male victims in relation to concern for safety (87.9% vs 52.9%), previous history of abuse (69% vs 52.9%), any abuse of the children (86.5% vs 17.6%), threatening behaviour (83.3% vs 8.2%) and forced sex (94.6% vs 5.4%). The last three questions showing highly significant differences.

Weapons (Table 6.3; questions 6 to 9)

Police officers were also significantly more concerned about weapons used against women or their children (100% and 91.9%) compared to being used against men and their children (20% and 20%). The police officer asking FVs about the possibility of male perpetrators having access to weapons was dramatically different compared with MVs (87.9% vs 1.9%). When police were told about a weapon FVs reported they removed the weapon every time, whereas MVs reported it made no difference when they told the police their abusive female partner had a weapon.

Injuries and evidence (Table 6.3; questions 10 to 12)

Like police interview and weapon responses, police asking about injuries to the victim and his/her children again showed more concern for women than men (98.3% vs 13.3%). Records in writing or on camera of the physical evidence of injury and property damage were more likely to be reported by FVs than MVs (82.8% & 75.5% vs 17.6% & 13.3% respectively).

Witnesses and children (Table 6.4; questions 13 to 24)

Regarding the children caught up in the abusive relationship of the parents, 42.9% of victims reported that the children were abused as well. More MVs (66.7%) claimed their partner was abusing the children than FVs (36.4%). This was not a significant difference due to the reduced power of the small sample size of victims with children who responded to the question 33 FVs and 9 MVs.

Indeed, Table 6.2 (questions 13 to 24) shows that there were few differences in police responses related to child and witness factors which suggests that women and men had similar

experiences. Nevertheless, some interesting victim responses were found: Alarming, four out of five participants claimed that their children had witnessed the partner abuse. Nearly half (49%) reported their child(ren) encouraged them to call the police. Although 55.8% said their children were fearful of police involvement, 65% claimed their children were pleased when the police arrived.

On arrival, 81.6% of victims reported that the police interviewed them in the absence of the child(ren), being sensitive to the needs of the child and their safety (68.3% and 62.5% respectively). However, only 28.3% of victims observed a statement being taken from the child(ren) by the police officer. By contrast, three quarters of victims involve other adult witnesses and nearly all these reported that the adult witness had been interviewed (72.7%).

Arrest (Table 6.5; questions 25 and 26)

All 58 FVs reported that their male partner was arrested and/or had been asked to provide information as to their whereabouts. By contrast only one male victim of 13 respondents stated his abusive female partner had been arrested (7.7%). It is possible that some or all the 4 MVs non-respondents had been involved in a dual arrest. Six (40%) out of 15 MVs reports said they had been asked about the location of their abusive female partner. According to victim experiences there was a significant bias toward male arrest compared female arrest in Greece.

Protective orders (Table 6.5; questions 27 to 30)

Victims reports indicated a trend ($p < 0.002$) for protective restraining orders to be more likely discussed with female victims than male victims (68.4% vs 23.5%). The same trend was observed for emergency protective orders (65.5% vs 37.5%).

Information provided (Table 6.5; questions 31 to 36)

In terms of the information provided to the victim by the police, again FVs reported receiving significantly more verbal and written information than MVs (84.5% vs 23.5% and 87.7% vs 35.3% respectively). Compared to men, women also reported that they had greater opportunity to asked questions (86.3% vs 23.5%) and were more likely to be satisfied (72.4% vs 23.5%) with the answers. In addition, there was a trend ($P < 0.002$) for more FVs than MVs to receive an explanation on what happens next (55.2% vs 11.8%) and be given a crime number of the incident (100% vs 82.4%).

Police report (Table 6.6; questions 37 to 50)

All FVs replied that a police report was written following the DVA incident. Only 47.1% of MVs stated the same, which was highly significant. Although, two-thirds of victims felt the police report was complete, there was a trend ($p < 0.004$) for more FVs to see it as complete (75.9%) compared to MVs (33.3%). Other aspects of the Police report showed no significant differences between FVs and MVs. Approximately a half to two-thirds of victims (54.1% to 67.4%) found the police report of their DVA incident to be accurate and fair, in terms of what happened (story), criminal history, injuries, physical evidence, threats and witness statements. Victim satisfaction with the accuracy of the abuse suffered by the children was exceptionally high (87.5%). By contrast, victim satisfaction with the accuracy of their own abuse history was low for both women (39.7%) and men (35.3%). This reflected the low rate of satisfaction for both women (32.8%) and men (41.2%) with the conclusion and 'charge' recommendations of the police report.

Demographic characteristics of female victims with and without children (Table 6.7)

In total, 58 female victims in a heterosexual DVA relationship completed the Questionnaire; 38 had all biological children living with them and 20 had no children. Of the 17 male victims, 11 had children and 6 did not. To confound matters, only 7 (of 11) fathers were living with their children, so all men they were dropped from the comparison.

Comparing the 38 mothers with the 20 other women in a DVA relationship on demographic variables (see Table 6.3), there were no significant differences between the two samples, although there was a trend ($p < 0.03$) for more mothers to still be in the abusive relationship (81.6%) than other women without children (55%). Most participants (85%) were of Greek Nationality, 53.4% had further/higher Education and 51.7% were employed. Table 6.1 shows that overall 37 victims were between 18 to 40 years old (27 with children and 10 without) and 21 victims were between 40 and 60 (11 with children and 10 without).

Table 6.7*Demographic characteristics of female victims with and without children (N = 58)*

Ques	Variables	Category	Females With children n= 38		Females Without children n=20		Total		Statistics Fisher's Exact (FE) or Chi-Square (2tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
D1	Age	18-40	27	71.1	10	50.0	37	63.8	2.514	P=0.113 NS
		More than 40	11	28.9	10	50.0	21	36.2		
D2	Nationality	Greek	32	84.2	17	85.0	49	85.5	FE	P=1.000 NS
		Other	6	15.8	3	15.0	9	15.5		
D3	Marital status	Married	31	81.6	11	55.0	42	72.4	4.634	P=0.031 NS
		Divorced	7	18.4	9	45.0	16	27.6		
D4	Education	Not/basic Education	16	42.1	11	55.0	27	46.6	0.876	P=0.349 NS
		Higher Education	22	57.9	9	45.0	31	53.4		
D6	Children live with you	No	38	100.0	N/A		38	100.0	N/A	N/A
		Yes								
D7	Children are	Biological	38	100.0	N/A		38	100.0	N/A	N/A
		Adopted								
D8	Employment status	Employed	21	55.3	9	45.0	30	51.7	0.553	P=0.457 NS
		Unemployed	17	44.7	11	55.0	28	49.3		

Table 6.8

Police response related to females' victims living with and without children (N=58).

Ques	Variables	Category	Females without children n= 20		Females with children n=38		Total		Statistics Fisher's Exact (FE) or Chi-Square test (2-tailed) df = 1	Probability
			n	%	n	%	n	%		
<i>Police interview:</i>										
1	Did you feel the officer showed concern for you and your safety?	No	4	20.0	3	7.9	7	12.1	FE	P=0.219 NS
		Yes	16	80.0	35	92.1	51	87.9		
2	Did the officer ask you about the history of abuse in the relationship?	No	12	60.0	6	15.8	18	31.0	11.966	P<0.001
		Yes	8	40.0	32	84.2	40	69.0		
4	Did the officer ask you specific information about any threats made against you?	No	8	44.5	1	2.8	9	16.7	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	10	55.6	35	97.2	45	83.3		
5	Did the officer ask you if your partner has ever forced you to have sex?	No	2	10.0	1	2.8	30	40.0	FE	P=0.288 NS
		Yes	18	90.0	35	97.2	53	60.0		
<i>Weapons used:</i>										
6	Did the officer ask you if the abuser ever used weapons against you?	No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-----	-----
		Yes	20	100.0	38	100.0	58	100.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

8	Did the officer ask if the abuser has weapons or has access to weapons?	No	5	25.0	2	5.3	7	12.1	FE	P=0.041 NS
		Yes	15	75.0	38	94.7	51	87.9		
9	If you told the officer the abuser has weapons, did the officer remove the weapons?	No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-----	-----
		Yes	17	100.0	33	100.0	50	100.0		
<i>Injuries</i>										
10	Did the officer ask about all your injuries?	No	1	5.0	0	0.0	1	1.7	FE	P=0.345 NS
		Yes	19	95.0	38	100.0	57	98.3		
11	Did the officer take pictures of all your injuries or arrange to have pictures taken?	No	8	40.0	2	5.3	10	17.2	FE	P=0.001
		Yes	12	60.0	36	94.7	48	82.8		
12	Did the officer collect, or take pictures of, all physical evidence?	No	6	37.5	6	18.2	12	25.5	FE	P=0.169 NS
		Yes	10	62.5	27	81.8	37	75.5		
<i>Children and witnesses</i>										
23	Did the officer ask you about the possibility of other witnesses?	No	7	35.0	5	13.2	12	20.7	FE	P=0.086 NS
		Yes	13	65.0	33	86.8	46	79.3		
24	Did the police interview other possible witnesses or make an attempt to interview them?	No	2	13.3	6	33.3	8	24.2	FE	P=0.242 NS
		Yes	13	86.7	12	66.7	25	75.8		
<i>Arrest</i>										
25	If the abuser was present, did the officer arrest the abuser?	No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-----	-----
		Yes	20	100.0	38	100.0	58	100.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

26	If the abuser left the scene, did the officer ask you for complete information about where the abuser is?	No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-----	-----
		Yes	20	100.0	38	100.0	58	100.0		
<i>Protective orders</i>										
27	Did the officer ask you if you have a protective order against the abuser?	No	9	45.0	11	28.9	20	34.5	1.495	P=0.222 NS
		Yes	11	55.0	27	71.1	38	65.5		
28	If you have a protective order, did the officer ask to see the order?	No	9	45.0	9	24.3	18	31.6	2.569	P=0.109 NS
		Yes	11	55.0	28	75.7	39	68.4		
29	If you didn't have a restraining order, did the officer offer you an Emergency Protective Order?	No	12	60.0	8	21.1	20	34.5	8.798	P=0.003 NS
		Yes	8	40.0	30	78.9	38	56.5		
30	Did the officer issue you an Emergency Protective Order?	No	15	78.9	7	18.4	22	38.6	19.580	P<0.0001
		Yes	4	21.1	31	81.6	35	61.4		
<i>Information provided</i>										
31	Did the officer give you verbal information on the services available to you?	No	9	45.0	0	0.0	9	15.5	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	11	55.0	38	100.0	49	84.5		
32	Did the officer give you written information on the services available to you?	No	7	35.0	0	0.0	7	12.1	FE	P<0.0001
		Yes	13	65.0	38	100.0	51	87.9		
33	Did the officer give you the crime report number?	No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-----	-----
		Yes	20	100.0	38	100.0	58	100.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

34	Did the officer ask you if you had any questions?	No	2	10.0	6	15.8	8	13.8	FE	P=0.701 NS
		Yes	18	90.0	32	84.2	50	86.2		
35	If you had questions, did the officer answer your questions to your satisfaction?	No	11	55.0	5	13.2	16	27.6	11.484	P<0.001
		Yes	9	45.0	33	86.8	42	72.4		
36	Did the officer adequately explain to you what will happen next and when it will happen?	No	18	90.0	8	21.1	26	44.8	25.186	P<0.0001
		Yes	2	10.0	30	78.9	32	55.2		
<i>Police report</i>										
37	Did the officer write up a domestic violence crime report?	No	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	-----	-----
		Yes	20	100.0	38	100.0	58	100.0		
38	Do the police report accurately reflect the story you told to the officer?	No	13	68.4	9	23.7	22	38.6	10.697	P=0.001
		Yes	6	31.6	29	76.3	35	61.4		
39	Do the police report accurately describe the history of abuse?	No	17	85.0	18	47.4	35	60.3	7.754	P=0.005 NS
		Yes	3	15.0	20	52.6	23	39.7		
40	If the abuser has a history with law enforcement, did the police attach a copy of the abuser's criminal justice history to the domestic violence report?	No	3	25.0	4	23.5	7	24.1	FE	P=1.000 NS
		Yes	9	75.0	13	76.5	22	75.9		
42	Do the police report accurately describe incidents of forced sex?	No	4	21.1	7	19.4	11	20.0	FE	P=1.000 NS
		Yes	15	78.9	29	80.6	44	80.0		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

43	Do the police report accurately describe all your injuries?	No	6	31.6	12	34.3	18	33.3	0.041	P=0.840 NS
		Yes	13	68.4	23	65.7	36	66.7		
44	Are all threats against you correctly quoted in the police report?	No	12	60.0	9	23.7	21	36.2	7.482	P=0.006 NS
		Yes	8	40.0	29	76.3	37	63.8		
46	Do the police report contain the statements of the other witnesses?	No	7	70.0	5	35.7	12	50.0	2.743	P=0.098 NS
		Yes	3	30.0	9	64.3	12	50.0		
47	Do the police report accurately list all the physical evidence available?	No	4	25.0	10	40.0	14	34.1	0.976	P=0.323 NS
		Yes	12	75.0	25	60.0	27	65.9		
48	Overall, does the police report seem fair to you in the way it was written?	No	12	60.0	14	36.8	26	44.8	2.841	P=0.092 NS
		Yes	8	40.0	24	63.2	32	55.2		
49	Overall, does the police report seem complete in covering the incident?	No	7	35.0	7	18.4	14	24.1	FE	P=0.203 NS
		Yes	13	65.0	31	81.6	44	75.9		
50	Do you feel that the recommended charges on the report are adequate to cover what happened to you?	No	14	70.0	25	65.8	39	67.2	0.105	P=0.745 NS
		Yes	6	30.0	13	34.2	19	32.8		

Police response related to female victims with and without children (Table 6.8)

To determine the impact of children on police responses to DVA calls, female victim questionnaires were compared between those women with children and those without on the following factors:

Police interview (Table 6.8; questions 1 to 5)

Of the four questions relating to the victim's experience of the initial police interview that could be compared, significantly more mothers remembered more relevant questions related to history of abuse (84.8% vs 40%) and threats from the abusive partner (97.2% vs 55.6%) than other women. The other two police interview questions related to safety (87.9% of FVs) and forced sex (60% of FVs) show no significant differences.

Weapons (Table 6.8; questions 6 to 9)

Police officers show general concern about weapons used against women or their children and ask all women about the use and availability of weapons, mothers or not with no significant differences between the two groups on these four questions.

Injuries and evidence (Table 6.8; questions 10 to 12)

Like police interview and weapon responses, police asking about injuries to the victim and his/her children again showed concern for all women, but photographic records of the injuries were more likely to be reported by mothers (94.7%) than other women (60%).

Witnesses (Table 6.8; questions 13 to 24)

Questions related to women with children could not be compared to those without children. There were no significant differences between the two groups on the two adult witness questions that could be compared. It was found that three quarters of female victims involved other adult witnesses and all the adult witness had been interviewed (75.8%).

Arrest (Table 6.8; questions 25 and 26)

All 58 FVs reported that their male partner was arrested and that they had been asked to provide information as to their whereabouts.

Protective orders (Table 6.8; questions 27 to 30)

Victims reports indicated a significant difference between mothers and other women for the police officer issuing an emergency protection order (81.6% vs 21.2%) and they are nearly twice as likely to be discussed with mothers (78.9% vs 40%).

Information provided (Table 6.8; questions 31 to 36)

In terms of the information provided to the victim by the police, all mothers reported receiving verbal and written information, whereas only 55% and 65% (respectively) of other women received the same. Just under nine out of ten women reported that they had the opportunity to asked questions, but mothers were nearly twice as likely to be satisfied (86.8% vs 45%) with the answers. In addition, significantly more mothers (78.9%) reported receiving an explanation on what happens next (78.9% vs 10%) compared to other women.

Police report (Table 6.8; questions 37 to 50)

All women replied that a police report was written following the DVA incident and they received a crime report number. Although, there was a trend ($p, 0.001$) for mothers (76.3%) to be more satisfied with the descriptions of what happened (story), than other women (31.6%). Compared to other women, a similar trend was observed for mother's satisfaction with the description of the history of abuse (52.6% vs 15%) and past history of threatening behavior (76.3% vs 40%). Therefore, victim satisfaction with the accuracy of their own abuse history was low for women without children. This reflects the greater concern for mothers, where police place a priority on the protection of the children and their mothers.

Discussion

The Study investigated differences in female and male victim experiences after making a report to the Greek police about DVA. A victim sample consisting of 75 participants were recruited from five agencies offering counseling and support for victims in Greece. All participants completed a 59item questionnaire, and whether these experiences differ in the presence or absence of children. A 99.9% confidence level was applied ($P < 0.001$) due to the multiple chi-squared tests or Fisher's exact tests carried out on the questionnaire's nominal data to compare police responses experienced by 58 female and 17 male victims on 59 questions. Similarly, the same tests and confidence level were applied to nominal data to compare police responses experienced by female victims living with biological children ($n=38$) and female victims without children ($n=20$). Of the 17 male victims, 11 had biological children and 6 did not have any children. Only 7 (of 11) fathers were living with their children, so all men they were dropped from the comparison.

Differences experienced by female and male victims

Overall, it was found that 64% of the sample were between the age of 18 to 40 years with the remainder over 40 years. Most of the participants (86.7%) were Greek and 44% had some form of further or higher education. Thus, female and male heterosexual victims of DVA showed no significant differences for demographic characteristics of age, ethnicity or education and only employment status approached significance ($P < 0.007$), with more men in a job. This supports previous research findings in the UK and the USA (MacQueen & Norris, 2016; Roark, 2016; see Chapter 2), which found unemployed women are more likely to contact the police about DVA.

In this Study, it was observed that more women (72.4%) than men (52.9%) remained in a relationship with their abusive partner but this was not a significant difference, which supports previous research on college students (Lo & Sporkowski, 1989). This is also supported by the opinions of police and professionals who believed that women and men are just as likely to leave an abusive relationship (see Chapters 3, 4 & 5).

All five questions relating to the victim's experience of the initial police interview showed that female victims reported more interest and relevant police questions than male victims. Only previous history of abuse showed little difference, with concern for

safety, abuse of the children threatening behaviour and forced sex all lower for male victims. This suggests that Greek police officers hold a stereotypical view that women are more vulnerable when interviewing DVA victims.

Police officers were also significantly more concerned about weapons used against women or their children and whether the perpetrator had access to weapons. Four highly significant differences in the four questions related to weapons are surprising when research has shown female perpetrators are more likely to use weapons against their male partners (e.g.: Hester 2013; Millar & Brown, 2010; Cho & Wilke, 2010; Hamilton & Worthen, 2011; see Chapter 2).

Like police interview and weapon responses, police asking about and recording photos of injuries of the victim and his/her children again showed more concern for women than men. Although, there is some justification of this as research evidence shows women suffer more serious injuries (eg: Hester, 2013; Finn et al. 2004; See Chapter 2) such highly significant differences on all three questions were not expected with standard police procedures.

Regarding the children caught up in the abusive relationship of the parents, 42.9% of victims reported that the children were abused as well. Two-thirds of victim mothers (66.7%) claimed their partner was abusing the children compared to just over a third of victim fathers (36.4%), but this difference did not reach significant. The overlap between DVA and child abuse is well documented (Browne & Hamilton, 1999; Browne et al. 2017) and so these findings come of no surprise. Indeed, there were no differences in police responses related to child and witness factors which suggests that women and men had similar experiences in relation to children and adult witnesses. Indeed, four out of five participants, regardless of gender, claimed that their children had witnessed the partner abuse. This confirms research findings reported 35 years ago (Sinclair, 1985).

All the female victims reported that their male partner had been arrested. By contrast only one male victim in 13 respondents stated his abusive female partner had been arrested. Therefore, according to victim experiences, there was a significant bias toward male arrest compared female arrest in Greece. This bias for men to be arrested more often than women after a DVA report is a common finding in the research literature (e.g.: Andrews & Johnson, 2013; Cho & Wilke, 2010; Durfee, 2012; Finn &

Stalans, 1997; Finn et al. 2004; Hamilton & Worthen, 2011; Lee et al. 2013; Millar & Brown, 2010; Roark, 2016; see Chapter 2).

Regarding information provided to the victim by the police, including protection orders, again women reported receiving significantly more verbal advice and written information than men. Women had greater opportunity to ask questions and were significantly more likely to be satisfied with the answers. In addition, there was a trend for more women to receive an explanation on what happens next and all women were the subject of a police report and given a crime number of the incident. Although, four out of five (82%) male victims got a crime number, less than half (47%) were the subject of a police crime report and those that were significantly less satisfied with the police report compared to female victims. The fact that police in Greece do not file a 'mandatory' report on DVA incidents with all victims has been noted before (Chatzifotiou et al. 2014).

Based on the above findings; Null Hypothesis 1 and 2 were rejected, as victim opinions on police responses to DVA cases showed differences between female and male victims for (1) help and advice given and (2) victim satisfaction with the outcome. The only exception to this bias was in relation to victim opinions on police concern with children and witnesses which showed little gender differences.

Differences between female victims living with and without children

In total, 58 female victims in a heterosexual DVA relationship completed the Questionnaire; 38 had all biological children living with them and 20 had no children. Overall, it was found that 63.8% of the sample were between the age of 18 to 40 years with the remainder over 40 years. Most of the participants (85.5%) were Greek, 46.6% had some form of further or higher education and 51.7% were employed. Thus, female victims with and without children showed no significant differences for demographic characteristics of age, ethnicity, education or employment. However, there was a trend ($p < 0.03$) for more mothers to still be in the abusive relationship (81.6%) than other women without children (55%). The fear of consequences for the children and remaining in the relationship has been observed by previous studies (Davies et al. 2009; Kelly, 2009; Wilson & Daly, 1993). Some women only decide to leave their abusive partner when he started to also abuse the children (Browne & Herbert, 1997).

Of the 50 questions related to police responses to female victims with and without children, only nine questions demonstrated a significant difference between the two groups (see Table 6.9). All nine questions showed that replies for experience of police responses was more positive for women victims with children compared to those without. Hence, the Greek police showed more sensitivity when children were present.

Table 6.9

Children's influence on police actions reported by female victims (N=58)

Variable on Police Actions	Females with Children (n=38)	Females without Children (n= 20)	Total	Chi-Square test Value (P<0.001)
	%	%	%	
Questioned history of abuse	84.8	40.0	67.9	11.5
Asked about threats	97.2	55.6	83.3	FE**
Pictures of injuries taken	94.7	60.0	82.8	FE**
Issued Emergency Protective order	81.6	21.1	61.4	19.58
Information about available services	100.0	55.0	84.5	FE**
Provided written information	100.0	65.0	87.9	FE**
Answered questions well	86.8	45.0	72.4	11.48
Explained what happens next	78.9	10.0	55.2	25.18
Report is clear & accurate	76.3	31.6	61.4	10.96

** *Fisher's Exact P<0.001*

During the initial police interview significantly more mothers remembered being asked about the history of abuse (84.8% vs 40%) and threats from the abusive partner (97.2% vs 55.6%) than other women. The other two police interview questions related to safety and forced sex show no significant differences. This suggests that Greek police officers

are influenced by the presence of children to take more time to investigate past abuse and threats with mothers compared to women without children.

Police officers show general concern about weapons for all women and no significant differences were found related to their use and availability. Weapons are an important consideration for possible perpetrator arrest in all DVA cases (Buzawa & Austin, 1993; Lee, Zhang & Hoover, 2013). Police asking about injuries again showed concern for all women, but photographic records of the injuries were more likely to be reported by mothers (94.7%) than other women (60%). Again, victim injuries are an important factor for decision to arrest in all DVA cases (Finn et al. 2004; Hamilton & Worthen, 2011; Lee, Zhang & Hoover, 2013; Millar & Brown, 2010; Roark, 2016; see Chapter 2). However, DVA has been shown to be more frequent and serious in families where both the mother and children are abused and photographic evidence may secure an emergency protection order for all the victims (Browne & Hamilton, 1999). Indeed, there was a significant difference between mothers and other women for the police officer issuing an emergency protection order (81.6% vs 21.2%) and they are nearly twice as likely to be discussed with mothers (78.9% vs 40%).

All 58 female victims reported that their male partner was arrested and that they had been asked to provide information as to their whereabouts. Furthermore, three quarters of female victims involved other adult witnesses and all witnesses had been interviewed (75.8%). This again confirms the bias for men to be arrested as observed above.

Nearly half (44%) of the significant differences between the two groups concerned the information provided to the victim by the police, all mothers with children reported receiving verbal and written information, whereas only 55% and 65% (respectively) of other women received the same. Just under nine out of ten women reported that they had the opportunity to ask questions, but mothers were nearly twice as likely to be satisfied (86.8% vs 45%) with the answers. In addition, significantly more mothers (78.9%) reported receiving an explanation on what happens next (78.9% vs 10%) compared to other women.

All women were the subject of a police crime report and were given a crime number. However, victim satisfaction with the clarity and accuracy of the report was significantly lower for women without children (31.6%) in comparison to mothers with

children (76.3%). This reflects the greater concern for mothers, where police place a priority on the protection of the children and their mothers.

Based on the above findings; Null Hypothesis 3 and 4 were partially rejected, as mothers with children showed significant differences on nine factors related to police responses compared to women without children (see Table 6.5). The presence of children appeared to influence the information and advice given to victims the greatest (4 out of 9 significant factors). Nevertheless, most of the time female victims with and without children reported that police responses to their DVA call were similar.

A limitation of the study was that the time taken by the police to respond to the DVA incident after the victim had reported it was not questioned or recorded. This may have had an impact on duration of the incident and coloured the views and opinions of the victim about the police response. A second limitation was that the time lapsed from the DVA incident(s) until the victim completed the questionnaire was not measured. This relates to victim recall, as how long ago the DVA incident(s) occurred may have affected the recollection of events.

Conclusion

Overall, female victim opinions on police responses to DVA reports in Greece found that a small number of factors (9 out of 50 questions) were influenced by the presence of children in the home. Mostly, these were factors associated with information, advice and actions to safeguard the child(ren). However, there were profound differences between the experiences reported by women compared to men for police responses to the victim, except for those police responses concerned with children and witnesses: Again, the gender similarity in this police response possibly relates to safeguarding the child(ren). Indeed, 42.9% of victims with children reported that the children were abused as well which is consistent with previous research (Browne & Hamilton, 1999, Browne et al. 2017) and four out of five victims claimed their children had witnessed the DVA, which constitutes emotional abuse of the child (Dorahy et al.2015; Prinz, 2016). There were no significant differences found between female and male victims regarding these findings.

Indeed, Table 6.2 (questions 13 to 24) shows that there were few differences in police responses related to child and witness factors which suggests that women and men had

similar experiences. Nevertheless, some interesting victim responses were found: Alarmingly, four out of five participants claimed that their children had witnessed the partner abuse. Comparing female and male victims, with similar demographic characteristics, on other factors; there were 18 significant differences ($p < 0.001$) and 13 trends ($p < 0.002$ to $p < 0.05$) found for 31 out of 50 questions about the police interview, use and availability of weapons, injuries and evidence, arrest, protective orders, information and advice provided and the police crime report. Hence, this Study supports the notion that male victims in Greece are discriminated against as they do not fulfil the gender stereotype expected by police officers. This suggests that more police training is required to ensure gender 'neutral' police responses when attending a domestic dispute and/or report of DVA.

It was observed from the findings of this Chapter that police and professional interventions did not always result in the victim separating and living apart from the offender. Therefore, the aim of the next study in Chapter 7 was to determine if Greek female and male victims of DVA differ in the factors, and reasons, they report about staying or leaving a DVA relationship. Demographic variables, feelings of fear, self-blame, low self-esteem, depression, learned helplessness, family and friend networks and the role of children were explored.

Chapter 7

Differences between female and male victims of domestic abuse on factors related to staying in or leaving an abusive relationship

Abstract

This study investigated the differences between female and male victims of domestic violence and abuse (DVA) in relation to factors that influence whether victims stay or leave the abusive relationship (AR). Six DVA support organizations in Greece were approached for access to victims, who were asked to complete a 74-item questionnaire. A Bonferroni Correction was applied due to the number of comparisons and the confidence limit was set at 99.9% ($p < 0.001$). Responses from 36 female and 18 male DVA victims were compared on 10 demographic characteristics; 52 factors relating to the AR and 12 factors related to the impact of children. No differences between female and male DVA victims were found for demographics characteristics related to age, education, ethnicity, and place of living but there was a trend for a lower number of female victims to be employed and to have left the AR compared to male victims. Female victims appeared more vulnerable than male victims with a significantly higher proportion of them suffering from internal inhibitors of fear, helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem compared to male victims. Regarding external factors female victims had significantly fewer financial resources and social support networks with more controlling partners than male victims. In addition, significantly more women were influenced by their child(ren) in their decision to stay compared to men. Female victims were significantly more likely to report threats to their child(ren) and for the child(ren) to witness assaults on them. A higher proportion of women reported that their child(ren) also suffered abuse by their partners than men. Regardless of victim gender, all victims reported that they had suffered from anxiety and depression, lying about injuries, giving up on change and excusing the abuse.

Keywords; Domestic violence, Intimate partner violence, Domestic abuse, Greek women, Greek men, Victim decisions.

Differences between female and male victims of Domestic Violence and Abuse on factors related to staying in or leaving an abusive relationship

Introduction

DVA is a serious concern for medical professionals, social service workers, mental health professionals and law enforcement agencies (Campbell, 2002). Home Office (2013), defines DVA as “Any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive or threatening behavior, violence or abuse between those aged 16 or over who are or have been intimate partners or family members regardless of gender or sexuality. This can include psychological, physical, verbal, sexual, financial and emotional abuse” (Home office, 2012; House of Commons, 2018).

Research on the reasons for victims to stay or leave an abusive relationship (AR) is generally focused only on females' choices to leave. However, studies of intimate relationships have indicated that males, like females, go through the same process when they decide to end an abusive relationship (Lo & Sporkowski, 1989).

Research on DVA has demonstrated that both males (Eckstein 2009) and females (Chang 1989) are criticized on when they remain silent about their victimization and stay in the AR. This is especially the case when the victim does not ask for support (McMahon & Pence 2003; Hartman & Belknap 2003; Romito & Grassi 2007).

The decision to leave an AR is a process that takes place over time. Many victims leave and return to an AR on several occasions before finally deciding to leave and never return. (Merritt-Gray & Wuest 1995). The concept of remaining in an AR may be temporary and part of a continuing procedure of leaving (Kirkwood 1993). Indeed, some researchers (Eckstein, 2011; Khaw & Hardesty, 2009) have applied the “Stages of Change Model” (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1984), to describe the process that victims go through in order to reach the final decision to end an AR. The “Stages of Change Model” includes five stages. (a) precontemplation, in which the individual does not aim to make a difference in the near future; (b) contemplation, that is when a problem's existence is recognized by the victim and transformation is thought through; (c) preparation, when individuals create a behavioural strategy to change over time; (d) action, when individuals apply their strategy towards the change; and (e) maintenance,

in which individuals try to strengthen and maintain this change (Prochaska & DiClemente 1984).

The reasons that female victims of DVA do not leave the AR are not simple. Barnett (2001) divides them into two main categories: Internal factors and External factors.

Internal Factors for Victims

Internal inhibitory factors involve views about self and situations that affect mental health. Victims of abuse are more likely to suffer from a high frequency of psychosexual dysfunction; as well as low self-esteem, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder depression, and obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) (Browne, 1993a; Cascardi et al. 1995; Mertin & Mohr, 2001; Handsel, 2007). In addition, many victims of DVA feel shame, humiliation, loneliness, fear and uncertainty about their future without the abuser.

Fear

In DVA research the role of fear has been examined as one of the main factors that the abusive partner causes to maintain control over the victim (Babcock, Miller, & Siard, 2003; Phelan et al., 2005; Miller, 2006; Thompson et al., 2006 Clements & Holtzworth-Munroe, 2009). According to existing literature, fear affects the victim's emotional reaction to his/her victimization (Hathaway et al., 2000; Barnett, Miller-Perrin, & Perrin, 2005; Vogel & Marshall, 2001; Scheffer et al. 2008) and victim fear influences their decision making and behaviour (Barrett & Pierre, 2011 Fanslow & Robinson, 2010; Watt, Bobrow, & Moracco, 2008; Dearwater et al., 1998). Fear in DVA is derived from the victim's perception of risk and the lack of control on this risk of abuse (Kilpatrick et al., 1989; Riggs, Kilpatrick, & Resnick, 1992; Weaver & Clum, 1995; Smith et al. 1995). Other reasons involve children and the threats that the abuser makes to hurt them. Fear of consequences, like stalking, more severe physical abuse or even homicide are extreme factors that may influence a victim's decisions to stay (Davies et al. 2009; Wilson & Daly 1993).

Research studies investigating the differences between DVA female victims and male victims concluded that men are less afraid of the abuse from their female partner

(Jacobson et al., 1994; Morse, 1995; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 1995; Cercone et al. 2005; Houry et al., 2008). Furthermore, males were less likely than females to report extreme fear when they were victims of abuse. It appears that both male and female perpetrators of abuse might use similar strategies to control, dominate and induce fear in their victims (e.g., Kimmel, 2002; Jacobson et al., 1994).

The victim's fear of their AR partner has been found to be positively correlated with severe mental health problems, including depression and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Hathaway et al., 2000; Hamberger & Guse, 2002; Lowe et al., 2007; Brown et al., 2008).

Mental Disorders and Substance Misuse

A follow-up study conducted by Campbell et al. (1995) on female victims of DVA discovered that women who stay in their AR were more likely to suffer from moderate to severe depressive symptoms than abused women who left their spouse or partner.

Academic research has strongly supported the relationship between DVA and the development of a mental disorder and substance misuse. A literature review by Khalifeh et al. (2016) found the frequency of DVA among women with serious mental disorders ranged from 15-22%, but this seems no higher than the prevalence in the general population (BCS 2017). Nevertheless, Trevillion et al. (2012), in their systematic review and meta-analysis found that female victims of DVA, compared to non-victims were seven times more likely to have a PTSD, four times more likely to have an anxiety disorder and three times more likely to have a depressive disorders than other. Using the Beck Depression Inventory on women who have been abused, Cascardi & O' Leary (1992), observed that 52% scored in high in the severe range of depressive symptomatology.

Furthermore, DVA is directly related with an increased risk of suicide (Martín-Baena, et al. 2018). Safe Lives 'Cry for Health' report explained that "we are more likely to hear that two women a week are killed by a current or ex-partner in England and Wales, but it is estimated many more take their own lives as a result of domestic abuse: every day almost 30 women attempt suicide as a result of experiencing domestic abuse, and every week three women take their own lives" (p.41). Women who seek medical help

and support are more likely to be suffering DVA than women in the general population (Feder et al. 2009).

Males who are victims or perpetrators of DVA have an increased risk of PTSD, depression, and suicide (Rhodes et al. 2008; Afifi et al. 2009; Randle & Graham, 2011) and substance misuse (Coker et al. 2002). Equally, males suffering from anxiety or depressive disorders are more likely to have suffered DVA (Trevillion et al. 2012). Whereas males with psychiatric disorders and substance misuse often report that they have been physically violent to a partner (Oram et al. 2013). Indeed, the term ‘Toxic Trio’ has been used to describe the issues of domestic violence, mental ill health and substance misuse which have been identified as associated with families where harm to women and children has occurred (Department of Health, 2015).

Low self-esteem

Depression and self-esteem are highly associated with the severity, frequency, and the consequences of physical aggression in an AR. The more severe and frequent the DVA, the higher the level of depression and lower the level of self-esteem (Lynch & Graham-Bermann, 2004; Follingstad et. al. 1991). Consequently, low levels of self-esteem reduced the likelihood of seeking counselling and support (Bowker & Maurer, 1986). Indeed, a study of abused and non-abused females conducted by Star (1978) found those that had been abused were more passive than those who were non-abused.

Low self-esteem and negative self-concept can impair a person’s ability to engage with other people in the community (Browne & Herbert, 1997). Self-blame can also cause more damage in that person’s confidence and capability to change the situation (Papadakaki et al. 2009). According to a study by Itzhaky & Porat (2005), females who leave their abusive partners are usually exhausted by feeling a lack of social support and suggest that this may result in the victim returning to the AR for emotional/financial safety.

Learned Helplessness

“Learned helplessness (LH) is a term specifying an person (or animal) learning to accept and endure unpleasant stimuli, and unwilling to avoid them, even when it is avoidable” (Seligman, 1970). It was proposed in the 1970s by Seligman as an explanation for the development of depression after repeated stress and a perceived lack of control over a situation. Consequently, people with LH develop an inability to make decisions or take determined action.

Walker (1984) suggested that women build a “cluster of psychological sequelae from living in a violent relationship” (p. 1), called an Abused Woman Syndrome. Four variables were assessed: attitudes toward women, depression, self-esteem and locus of control. Based on her previous clinical work with abused women, Walker (1978) hypothesised that the abused women’s experience would, over time, lead to the development of learned helplessness and depression. This in turn, diminishes the woman’s motivation to react. As a result, Walker (1984), claimed that abused women learn to perceive themselves as functionally helpless and powerless to escape their situation. Hence, they stay not because they want to but because they consider there is no point in trying to escape. According to Strube and Barbour (1984), a woman may become ‘Entrapped’ by making repeated efforts to improve the AR and stop the violence to no avail. The woman reaches a point where it becomes clear that her responses have no effect and stops trying to change things, accepting the inevitability of the AR. At this point she demonstrates ‘Learned Helplessness’. Wilson et. al. (1992) also investigated the relationship between help-seeking, learned helplessness, and severity of abuse. He concluded that, as levels of abuse increased, so did levels of learned helplessness.

However, other studies have failed to support the notion of learned helplessness. For example, Campbell et. al. (1994) concluded that “the majority of abused women, especially those given resources and discussion opportunities, are able to take actions to end the violence in their lives” (p. 109).

Self-Blame

Several researchers have demonstrating the tendency of victims to blame themselves for their inability to keep some control over their AR and suggested that their feeling

of self-blame could be a reason for victims staying with their abusive partners (Summers & Feldman, 1984). By contrast, other studies have demonstrated that the perpetrator is held primarily responsible for the violent incidents (Frieze, 1980). This may be related to personal experience over time; it has been observed that victims tend to blame themselves for the violence early in the AR but move the responsibility to their abusers after many violent incidents have occurred (McClennan et al. 1994).

As a victim turns the blame for violent incidents to the abusive partner, it would appear reasonable to expect that the abused victim would be more likely to leave his/her partner. However, Browne & Herbert (1997) observe that abused women remain in violent relationships due to their belief that they can change their partners and/or their husband will reform. If the woman perceives herself as competent in all or many other areas of her life, a woman who experiences violence from a partner assumes that she merely needs to find the right technique or behaviour that will cause the violence to cease. To leave would be to admit failure and defeat, especially if the woman or her culture believes divorcees are stigmatised.

Ferraro & Johnson (1983) in a review, identified female's possible reasons for staying in AR. Abused women tend to avoid directly accusing their abusers and externalize the problem by trying to find excuses (e.g. 'he was drunk'). They may focus on the protection and assistance of their children by reducing their own problems. Females also may use religion or traditional values like raising children with two parents as a reason for not leaving an AR (Kelly, 2009).

Research conducted by Eckstein (2009, 2010) and Muller et al (2009) using qualitative interviews with male victims indicate they may handle DVA in the same way. Men stay in ARs because of self-blame, negative self-concept and shame. If they accept being a victim of their female partner, they believe they will be seen as weak by friends and from the society. They fear that they will not be believed by the official authorities about their abuse and fear not being able to see their children (Eckstein 2009, 2010; Muller et al. 2009).

External Factors for Female Victims

Alternatively, or in addition, the female victim may believe that there may be external factors that would make it hard to leave such as difficulties finding a job and/or meeting new friends, that the economic hardship of leaving would be too great or that they could not cope alone, especially with children to care for (Browne & Herbert, 1997).

According to Jacobson et.al. (1996) and Truman-Schram et.al. (2000) the most consistent predictors of leaving are financial resources (e.g., employment or income) and social psychological factors (e.g., social support, commitment to the relationship). These are 'External inhibitory factors' which are components related to the setting of the relationship that may make it hard to leave (Barnett 2001).

Financial Resources

A common factor for DVA victims staying in the AR is inadequate financial resources. This might be due to the fact that the perpetrator has not allowed them to work and earn their own money, or because they have lost jobs because they were unable to come to work due to bruises or injuries (Swanberg & Logan 2005). In a study conducted by Frisch & MacKenzie, (1991) persistently abused women were less educated and less likely to work compared with women that had been occasionally abused in the past. Previous research has shown that both employment conditions and earning a salary are among the most influential factors for the prediction of a victim's decision to leave (Anderson & Saunders 2003; Lesser 1990; Williams 2000). It is also hard for many women to have access to resources such as therapy, legal advice, or social services, especially for females with financial restrictions (Barnett 2000).

Not Surprisingly, victims of DVA regularly depend on government support, like help with everyday expenses or paying rent since this is the only way they have in order to support themselves and their children after leaving an AR. If they do not have this help, they often become homeless and feel that there is no other option but to return to their AR (Bybee & Sullivan, 2005). In addition, to the abuse, these financial concerns have a negative impact on victim's psychological and physical well-being.

Friend and Family Support Networks

“The social network within which abuse occurs can have a powerful role, either in identifying abuse and supporting the victim, or in (often unwittingly) sustaining or enabling abuse” (Citizens Advice, 2015: p26).

Friends and family can have positive impact through their emotional support, by strengthening a victim’s confidence, self-esteem and dignity, and believing (and reinforcing) their account of the relationship (Klein R, 2014).

Horton and Johnson (1993) conducted a study of 185 self-identified abuse survivors who had been abuse free for at least 12 months. Of these, 158 (85%) no longer lived with the abusive partner and the rest (15%) maintained the relationship without abuse. Subjects were administered the Domestic Abuse Questionnaire, which includes an in-depth survey that analyses survivors’ use of personal coping skills and professional services. The overwhelming majority (96%) of women who left the relationship reported that they had discussed their abuse with someone or some agency. Of the women who left, 23% reported that a friend had been the most helpful in ending the abuse. By contrast, Tan et. al. (1995) suggested that while satisfaction with social support may increase abused women’s overall psychological wellbeing, it may not be significantly related to whether they continue to be involved with their violent partners.

Heggie’s (1985) study found that 84% of abused women’s social network were likely to know about the violence and that women were more likely to return to the abusive partner when they perceived their family and friends supporting a reconciliation. Indeed, contact with a member of the clergy tends to increase the likelihood that abused women will stay in abusive situations. ~~Although~~ Abused women tend to rate clergy as the least helpful in ending their abuse (Bowker & Maurer, 1986; Horton & Johnson, 1993).

Horton and Johnson (1993) reported that 62% of abused women who left had sought help from marriage counsellors or other clinicians, 52% from the clergy, 38% from “other professionals,” 38% from abused women’s shelters, 23% from support groups, and 27% from crisis lines. The women in Bowker and Maurer (1986) study reported

that they found counselling and women's groups to be the most helpful. In addition to providing emotional support, counselling may improve a woman's ability to leave the AR (Launius & Jenson, 1987).

Overall, research suggests that several factors are associated with victims of DV leaving or remaining with their abusive partners. However, there is little research within the Greek context (Chatzifotiou & Dobash, 2001; Chatzifotiou, 2003; Tzamalouka et al, 2007), where communities and religion play a crucial role in women's and men's lives and life circumstances are often different than that of other European countries. Furthermore, there is inadequate amount of research on the different reasons why female and especially male victims of DVA stay or leave abusive relationships (e.g., Cavanagh 1996; Rhodes & McKenzie 1998).

Aims of the Study

The goal of this study was to determine if Greek female and male victims of DVA differ in the factors, and reasons, they report about staying or leaving a DVA relationship. Demographic variables, feelings of fear, self-blame, low self-esteem, depression, learned helplessness, family and friend networks and the role of children were explored. Female and male DVA victims were compared on 10 demographic factors; 52 factors relating to the AR and 12 factors related to the role of children.

Methods

Design

This questionnaire study used a between groups (independent) design to investigate the differences between female and male DVA victim factors associated with the victim's decision to stay in abusive intimate partner relationship (AR). The independent variable was gender of the victim. The 74 dependent variables were responses to a questions which asked about 10 demographic characteristics, 12 factors related to the impact of children and 52 factors covering internal inhibitors of fear, self-blame, depression, learned helplessness, low self-esteem and external inhibitors such as social isolation and the lack of family and friend support networks.

Participants

The sample consisted of 54 victims of DVA of which 36 were women and 18 were men aged between 18 and 50 years old. All of them were attending DVA support organizations in Greece.

Procedure

Six DVA support organizations were approached for access to victims of DVA to complete a Questionnaire (see Appendix 10). One organization funded and supervised by the Ministry of the Interior; 'The Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI)' only deals with female victims and provided 21 questionnaires from women. The remaining 15 female and 18 male victim questionnaires were supplied by:

- 1) DIMOS PATREON DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SUPPORT (DPDSS) provided 3 female victim questionnaires.
- 2) THE NATIONAL CENTRE FOR SOCIAL SOLIDARITY (EKKA) provided 4 female victim questionnaires.
- 3) THE PARENTAL EQUALITY ASSOCIATION (GONIS) provided 3 female and 4 male victim questionnaires.
- 4) The ASSOCIATION FOR MEN & FATHERS DIGNITY and EQUAL PARENTITY (SYGAPA) provided 10 male victim questionnaires only.
- 5) UNITED WOMEN ASSOCIATIONS OF HERAKLION (UWAH) provided 5 female and 4 male victim questionnaires.

(For details of the Agencies – see Chapter 4).

The head of each organization was approached by the researcher and asked if their support and counseling administer could distribute the questionnaire (Appendix 7), the information sheet (Appendix 11) and Consent Form (Appendix 12) to DVA victims. The questionnaire used for this research was created by the researcher and the study was approved from the University of Nottingham School of Medicine Ethics committee (see Appendix 13). At first a pilot study was run in order to ensure that all questions and instructions were easily understood, and no changes were needed. Two female victims took part in the pilot study. The pilot study was conducted at the UWAH offices and was completed by the researcher face to face with the individual respondent. The pilot study did not reveal any problems in the procedure or the questionnaire for self-

administration. The Questionnaire was back translated from English into Greek language by an official translator to avoid any possible mistakes.

Following the pilot study, the proper study was conducted. Participants were given the choice to fill in the questionnaires whenever they felt ready within a two-month period. However, in agreement with the responsible Psychologist in the Counselling Centre for Abused Persons, the participants were asked not to take the questionnaires home in order to avoid possible arguments within their home environments. The Questionnaire was distributed to and returned by victims during a 5month period (1st January 2018 to 31st May 2018). All questionnaires were completed and returned by the end of June 2018.

Materials

The 74-item questionnaire was divided in two parts (Appendix 7). In the first part participants were asked to complete 10 questions related to their demographic details. In the second part, participants were asked questions about 64 factors associated with the decision to stay in the AR, 12 of these questions looked at the impact of children. The remaining 52 questions covered five internal inhibitors; F= Fear (11 items), H= Helplessness (12 items), B= Blame Self (4 items), E= Low Self Esteem (3 items), D= Depression (1 item) and four external inhibitors; T= Time in relationship (2 items), R= Recourses (3 items), S= Support from family and friends (8 items), C= Controlling partner (8 items).

Cronbach's alpha was calculated in order to determine the participants reliability of responses to questions related to specific factors as follows; Fear ($\alpha = .87$), Learned Helplessness ($\alpha = .88$), Self-blame ($\alpha = .80$), Low Self-Esteem ($\alpha = .92$), Depression ($\alpha = .88$) and Family and Friend Networks ($\alpha = .87$).

Treatment of Data

After all the questionnaires were completed, the data were collected and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows Version 25 in order to carry out the appropriate statistical analyses. Responses were recoded into normative data sets of dependent variables with Yes/No answers and these were compared to the independent variable of 'gender' (ie: female and male victims) so

statistical inferences were made on the differences of women and men associated with 64 dependent variables of their experiences of leaving or remaining in an AR. The Chi-Square Test was used together with a Bonferroni Correction (see Chapter 3; page 91) to infer significant differences experiences reported by female (n=36) and male victims (n=18) to the questionnaire. However, the Chi-square test is not accurate when 20% of cells the expected frequencies has an expected value of five or less. Under these circumstances, the Fisher's Exact test of association (df=1) was used to infer significance and the p (probability) value.

With 74 Questions, the Bonferroni Correction set a probability level as $P < 0.0007$. All findings with $p < 0.001$ were considered significant.

<https://www.easycalculation.com/statistics/bonferroni-correction-calculator.php>

With a confidence level of 95%, and a power level of 80%, the sample size needed to compare females and males on each question was a minimum of 48.

<https://select-statistics.co.uk/calculators/sample-size-calculator-two-proportions/>

Ethical issues

Informed Consent: Participants were informed about the purpose and nature of this research study prior deciding whether, or not, to take part. An information letter was given to all participants stating the purpose of the study and how long the questionnaire would take to complete. Participants were approached to participate by the administrator of the support and counseling service within each agency.

Voluntary Participation: Participants have been informed that their decision to participate will be their choice and that their decision would not have any negative consequence for any future services received from either the police or DVA support organizations. In addition, each participant has been told that they could take as long as they wish to consent and that they have the right to withdraw at any stage. The consent form acknowledged their voluntary participation and was kept by the administrator.

Protection of Participants: Efforts were made to ensure that participants were aware of the nature of this study in order to make informed decision whether, or not, it will be

likely to cause any distress. The researcher considered it extremely unlikely that content of the questionnaires would result in any risk of harm or stress to participants. Moreover, participants were informed that they have the right to stop the progress of the participation at any time.

Confidentiality: Every effort was made to ensure participants of anonymity and confidentiality. Participants were reminded of the anonymity and confidentiality to gain valid and honest responses. Participants were also be notified that any report of research findings would be an overall summary report with no identifying information of any kind and everyone's anonymity would be preserved. On request, the report would be made available to all those involved in the Study. would contain no identifying information.

Debriefing: All participants were provided with an organized session by the support agency in order to receive written as well as verbal debriefing and discuss any queries.

Results

Demographic Characteristics (see Table 7.1)

In total 54 DVA victims in in a heterosexual relationship completed the Questionnaire; two-thirds were women and one third were men. Three-quarters of the female victims (FV) were still with their abusive male partners and a quarter of the women were separated or divorced. There was a trend ($p < 0.01$) for less male victims (MV) to be still with their female partners (38.9%) and the majority of men were separated or divorced (61.1%). Most participants (81%) lived in a city in Greece and 19% lived in a village (with no significant difference between women and men. Four out of five participants in the sample ($N=54$) saw themselves as ethnically Greek and only 17% of female victims (FV) and 22% of male victims (MV) identified with other ethnic groups. A similar percent of FV (72%) and MV (78%) had further/higher Education but there was a trend ($p < 0.01$) for less women (56%) in employment compared to men (89%). For the 36 participants in a job, 92% were earning less than 20,000 euro per year with no significant difference for women and men. There was

Table 7.1*Demographic Characteristics of male and female Victims of Domestic Abuse seeking help and advice from support organisations (N=54) **

Variables	Category	Females		Males		Total	Statistic*	Probability
		n	%	n	%	n		
Gender		36	66.6	18	33.3	54		
Age	18-40 years	17	47.2	8	44.4	25	0.038	P=0.85 NS
	41-50 years	19	52.8	10	55.6	29		
Current Relationship status	With Partner (married/co-habit)	27	75.0	7	38.9	34	6.71	P=0.01
	Divorced/separated	9	25.0	11	61.1	20		
Ethnicity	Greek	30	83.3	14	77.8	44	0.24	P=0.62 NS
	Other	6	16.7	4	22.2	10		
Place of living	City	28	77.8	16	88.9	44	0.98	P=0.32 NS
	Village	8	22.2	2	11.2	10		
Education	basic educated	10	27.8	4	22.2	14	0.19	P=0.66 NS
	/further educated	26	72.2	14	77.8	40		
Number of children	None	8	22.8	1	5.6	9	2.40	P=0.01
	1 or more	28	77.8	17	94.4	45		
Children are	Biological	28	100.0	17	100.0	45	N/A	N/A
	Adopted	0	0.0	0	0.0	0		
Employment status	Employed	20	55.6	16	88.9	36	6.00	P=0.01
	Unemployed	16	44.4	2	11.1	18		
Victim Salary per year (n=36)	Less than 20.000 euro	18	90.0	15	93.8	33	0.16	P=0.69 NS
	More than 20.000 euro	2	10.0	1	6.3	3		

* *Chi Square Test (2-tailed), df = 1.*

also, no significant difference in the age range of the 36 female DVA victims and 18 male DVA victims. Table 7.1 shows that overall 25 victims were between 18 to 40 years old (17 females and 8 males) and 29 were between 40 and 50 (19 females and 10 males).

Regarding children, 45 participants had at least one child and 8 women and 1 man had no children. All these children were biologically related to the DVA victim. A majority 27 (75%) of female victims (FVs) remained in AR, whereas only a minority 7 (38.9%) of male victims (MVs) were in this position. Hence there was a trend ($p < 0.01$) for males to leave an AR compared to females.

Time in the Relationship (see Table 7.2)

Table 7.2 shows that most FVs (83%) reported that the first DVA incident occurred within the first 6 months of the start of the relationship, whereas most MVs 61% reported that the first DVA incident occurred after six months (Q1). However, with the two tail Bonferroni Correction ($p < 0.001$) this did not reach significance. The majority of victims (FVs 69%; MVs 56%) claimed they had suffered DVA for years before they asked for help.

Internal Inhibitors (See Table 7.2)

Fear (11 items)

For 7 (64%) of the 11 questions related to fear, significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 5 questions (Q. 20, 21, 26, 27, 39) and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for 2 more questions (Q. 6, 36) related to this internal inhibitory factor. In every case, FVs responded 'Yes' more often than MVs. Although all victims felt anxious in the presence of their partner and lied about their bruises (Q. 19, 46), FVs showed significantly more fearful responses to DVA than MVs.

Helplessness (12 items)

For half of the 12 questions related to learned helplessness, significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 4 questions (Q. 22, 23, 24, 42) and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for 2 more questions (Q. 47, 52). In every case, FVs responded 'Yes'

more often than MVs. Although all victims reported that they had ‘verbally tried to stop the abuse’ (Q. 50) and had ‘become passive and do nothing to change’ (Q. 49), FVs showed significantly more learned helplessness responses to DVA compared to MVs.

Blame (4 items)

For half of the 4 questions related to self-blame, a trend that FVs and MVs differ ($p < 0.01$) for 2 questions was found (Q. 31, 32). In both questions, FVs responded ‘Yes’ more often than MVs. Although all victims reported that their partner always had an excuse for the abusive behaviour (Q. 40) and made them feel they were in the wrong (Q. 33), FVs showed significantly more self-blame responses to DVA compared to MVs.

Low self-esteem (3 items) and Depression (1 item)

For all 3 questions related to low self-esteem, significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs, with FVs responding ‘Yes’ more often than MVs (Q. 43, 44, 45). Therefore, FVs showed significantly less self-esteem compared to MVs. All victims reported that they had suffered from depression (Q. 48).

External Inhibitory Factors (see Table 7.2)

Financial Resources (3 items)

No significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for the 3 questions (Q. 3, 4, 5) related to financial resources but a trend ($p < 0.002$) was found (Q. 3) indicating that MVs (72%) earn more than their abusive partner compared to FVs (28%). This result was inconsistent with the earlier demographic finding that there was no significant difference between men and women in terms of salary bracket, with nine out of ten victims earning less than 20,000 euros. However, it is consistent with the observed demographic trend ($p < 0.01$) that MVs are more often in a job compared to FVs (see above)

Table 7.2

Questionnaire Responses of Victims with and without children seeking help and advice from support organisations (N=54) in relation to time, resources, fear, Support, helplessness, self-blame, low self-esteem, depression and controlling partner.

	Inhibitor+	Factor Question	Category	Females		Males		Total	Statistic++	Probability
				n	%	n	%	n	Chi-square or Fishers exact test	
1.	T	How long you were in the relationship when the first incident occurred?	1-6 months	26	83.4	7	38.9	33	5.61	P=0.02
			More than 6 months	10	16.7	11	61.1	21		
2	T	For how long you have been in the Abusive relationship before you asked for help?	For Months	11	31.4	8	44.4	19	0.88	P=0.35
			For Years	24	68.6	10	55.6	34		
3	R	Earn more than partner	Yes	10	27.8	13	72.2	23	9.69	P=0.002*
			No	26	72.2	5	27.8	31		
4.	R	Feel secure with money	Yes	18	50.0	12	66.7	30	1.35	P=0.24
			No	18	50.0	6	33.3	24		
5.	R	Earn enough to support yourself	Yes	19	52.8	12	66.7	31	0.95	P=0.33
			No	17	47.2	6	33.3	23		
6.	F	Are you scared about your future?	Yes	27	75.0	7	38.9	34	6.71	P=0.01*
			No	9	25.0	11	61.1	20		
7.	S	Are you close to your parents?	Yes	13	36.1	9	50.0	22	0.96	P=0.32
			No	23	63.9	9	50.0	32		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	Inhibitor+	Factor Question	Category	Females		Males		Total n	Statistic++ Chi-square or Fishers exact test	Probability
				n	%	n	%			
8.	S	Do you believe that your parents will support you?	Yes	14	38.9	9	50.0	23	0.60	P=0.43
			No	22	61.1	9	50.0	31		
9.	S	Do you have close friends?	Yes	13	36.1	9	50.0	22	0.96	P=0.33
			No	23	63.9	9	50.0	32		
10.	S	Do you see your friends?	Yes	14	38.9	9	50.0	23	0.61	P=0.44
			No	22	61.1	9	50.0	31		
11.	C	Did you stop see your friends because of your partners behaviour?	Yes	24	66.7	3	16.7	27	12.00	P=0.001**
			No	12	33.3	15	83.3	27		
12.	C	Is your partner rude to your friends?	Yes	36	100.0	18	100.0	54	N/A	N/A
			No	0	-	0	-			
13.	S	Did you tell your family or friends what is happening?	Yes	17	47.2	4	22.2	21	3.16	P=0.08
			No	19	52.8	14	78.8	33		
14.	S	Did you tell anyone else?	Yes	35	97.2	5	27.8	40	30.13	P<0.0001**
			No	1	2.8	13	72.2	14		
15.	S	Did they offer support?	Yes	26	72.2	4	22.2	30	12.16	P<0.0001**
			No	10	27.8	14	77.8	24		
16.	F	How easy was it to accept that you are in a DA relationship?	Not very easy	23	63.9	14	77.8	37	1.07	P=0.30
			Very difficult	13	36.1	4	22.2	17		
17.	S	Have you ever felt that you have nowhere to go?	Yes	23	63.9	14	77.8	37	8.33	P=0.004*
			No	13	36.1	4	22.2	17		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	Inhibitor+	Factor Question	Category	Females		Males		Total n	Statistic++ Chi-square or Fishers exact test	Probability
				n	%	n	%			
18.	C	Have you ever been prevented from leaving or asking for help?	Yes	27	75.0	14	77.8	41	13.670	P<0.0001**
			No	9	25.0	4	22.2	13		
19.	F	Do you feel anxious when you are around your partner?	Yes	36	100.0	18	100.0	54	N/A	N/A
			No	0	-	0	-			
20.	F	Do you watch what you are doing to avoid make your partner angry?	Yes	36	100.0	4	22.2	40	22.59	P<0.0001**
			No	0	-	14	77.8	14		
21.	F	Have you changed your behaviour to stop the violence?	Yes	36	100.0	4	22.2	40	22.59	P<0.0001**
			No	0	-	14	77.8	14		
22.	H	Do you think escape is impossible?	Yes	36	100.0	4	22.2	40	22.59	P<0.0001**
			No	0	-	14	77.8	14		
23.	H	Do you see yourself as helpless and powerless to escape?	Yes	36	100.0	4	22.2	40	22.59	P<0.0001**
			No	0	-	14	77.8	14		
24.	H	Do you think that you have invest so much that you must tolerate?	Yes	36	100.0	4	22.2	40	22.59	P<0.0001**
			No	0	-	14	77.8	14		
25.	H	Do you believe that leaving would be failure and defeat?	Yes	36	100.0	15	83.3	51	FE	P=0.033
			No	0	-	3	16.7	3		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	Inhibitor+	Factor Question	Category	Females		Males		Total n	Statistic++ Chi-square or Fishers exact test	Probability
				n	%	n	%			
26.	F	Does expectation of more violence if you leave - make you to stay?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	12 6	66.7 33.3	48 6	FE	P=0.001**
27.	F	Are you afraid of voicing your opinion to your partner?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	12 6	66.7 33.3	48 6	FE	P=0.001**
28.	C	Does your partner criticize you in front of others?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	12 6	66.7 33.3	48 6	FE	P=0.001**
29.	C	Does your partner check what you are doing and do not believe?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	12 6	66.7 33.3	48 6	FE	P=0.001**
30.	C	Is your partner jealous?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	4 14	22.2 77.8	40 14	FE	P=.01*
31.	B	Does your partner said that he/she will stop if you start to behave?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	4 14	22.2 77.8	40 14	FE	P=.01*
32.	B	Have you been blamed that is your fault?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	4 14	22.2 77.8	40 14	FE	P=.01*
33.	B	Does your partner's behaviour make you feel that you are wrong?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	18 0	100.0 -	54	N/A	N/A
34.	C	Is your partner critical on daily things?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	18 0	100.0 -	54	N/A	N/A

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

	Inhibitor+	Factor Question	Category	Females		Males		Total n	Statistic++ Chi-square or Fishers exact test	Probability
				n	%	n	%			
35.	F	Does your partner threat to harm you?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	15 3	83.3 16.7	51 3	FE	P=.033
36.	F	Do you try to please your partner to avoid being hurt?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 --	13 5	72.2 27.8	49 5	FE	P=.003*
37.	C	Does your partner prevent things you want to do?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 --	13 5	72.2 27.8	49 5	FE	P=.003
38.	H	Do you think that nothing you do is enough for your partner?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 --	15 3	83.3 16.7	51 3	FE	P=.033
39.	F	Does your partner said that if you leave, he/she will kill him/herself?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 --	10 8	55.6 44.4	46 8	FE	P<0.0001**
40.	B	Does your partner have always an excuse for the abusive behaviour?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 -	18 0	100.0 -	54	N/A	N/A
41.	H	Do you believe that this behaviour will change?	Yes No	18 18	50.0 50.0	7 11	38.9 61.1	25 39	0.60	P=0.44
42.	H	Do you stay because you still care?	Yes No	28 8	77.8 22.2	7 11	38.9 61.1	35 19	7.97	P=0.001**
43.	E	Have you stop believe in yourself?	Yes No	36 0	100.0 --	10 8	55.6 44.4	46 8	FE	P<.0001**

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

44.	E	Do you feel useless?	Yes	36	100.0	10	55.6	46	FE	P<0.0001**
			No	0	--	8	44.4	8		
45.	E	Do you feel guilty?	Yes	36	100.0	10	55.6	46	FE	P<0.0001**
			No	0	----	8	44.4	8		
46.	F	Do you lie about your bruises?	Yes	36	100.0	18	100.0	54	N/A	N/A
			No	0	-	0	-			
47.	H	Do you believe that nothing could be done to change the AR?	Yes	32	88.9	9	50.0	41	FE	P=0.005*
			No	4	11.1	9	50.0	13		
48.	D	Have you ever suffered from depression?	Yes	36	100.0	18	100.0	54	N/A	N/A
			No	0	-	0	-			
49.	H	Have you become passive and do nothing to change?	Yes	36	100.0	18	100.0	54	N/A	N/A
			No	0	-	0	-			
50.	H	Have you verbally tried to stop the abuse?	Yes	36	100.0	18	100.0	54	N/A	N/A
			No	0	-	0	-			
51.	H	Have you physically tried to stop the abuse?	Yes	15	41.7%	4	22.2%	19	1.99	P=0.16
			No	21	58.3%	14	77.8%	35		
52.	H	Have you ever felt like staying in or returning to the AR?	Yes	21	58.3%	3	16.7%	24	8.44	P=0.004*
			No	15	41.7%	15	83.3%	30		

+**Key:** T=Time in relationship (2 items), R=Recourses (3 items), F=Fear (11 items), S=Support from family and friends (8 items), C= Controlling partner (8 items), H=Helplessness (12 items), B=Blame self (4 items), E=Low Esteem (3 items), D= Depression (1 item).

++ Two-Tail Chi Squared Test (df=1) or FE= Fisher's Exact (df=1): * Trend (P< 0.01), ** Significant (p< 0.001).

Support from family and friends (8 items)

For 3 (37%) of the 8 questions related to support from family and friends, significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 2 questions (Q. 14, 15) and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for one more question (Q.17). In all 3 of these questions, FVs responded 'No' more often than MVs. Therefore, FVs showed significantly less social support for their DVA situation than MVs.

Controlling Partner (8 items)

For 6 (75%) of the 8 questions related to controlling behaviour by the abusive partner, significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 4 questions (Q. 11,18,28,29) and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for 2 more questions (Q. 30,37) related to this external inhibitory factor. In every case, FVs responded 'Yes' more often than MVs. Although all victims felt their abusive partner was rude to their friends (Q.12) and critical of them daily (Q. 34), FVs suffered significantly more controlling behaviour by the abusive partner than MVs.

Impact of Children (see Table 7.3)

Of the total DVA victim sample ($N=54$), 83% ($n=45$) of participants had biologically related children in their family. However, children were not present in the family at the time of the first incident for over half (56%) of the FVs compared to less than a quarter (23%) of MVs. Hence, a trend was observed (Q.3) as 77% of MVs reported the DVA occurred after the birth of a child compared to only 44% of FVs (Q. 3).

The children were also reported to have been abused by the abusive partner in 54% of FV responses and 35% of MV responses, which was not a significant difference (Q.9). However, children witnessing the abuse (Q.10) did show a significant difference ($P < 0.001$), with children witnessing more abuse to their mothers (93% of FV respondents) than to their fathers (35% of MV respondents)

Table 7.3*Questionnaire Responses of female and male Victims with children seeking help and advice from support organisations (N=45) **

No.	Factor Question	Category	Females		Males		Total n	Statistic++ Chi-square or Fishers exact test	Probability
			n	%	n	%			
1	Are you scared about your children's future?	Yes	20	71.4	7	41.2	27	4.034	P=0.045
		No	8	28.6	10	58.8	18		
2	Is your partner rude to your children?	Yes	21	75.0	1	5.9	22	20.22	P<0.0001**
		No	7	25.0	16	94.1	23		
3	Did you have children when the first incident occurred?	Yes	10	46.8	13	76.5	23	7.03	P=0.008*
		No	18	56.3	4	23.5	22		
4	Do you believe that staying in the AR is better for your children?	Yes	25	89.3	14	82.4	39	FE	P=0.66
		No	3	10.7	3	17.6	6		
5	Do you believe that staying in a DA relationship will harm your children?	Yes	7	25.0	5	29.4	12	FE	P=0.74
		No	21	75.0	12	70.6	33		
6	Does your partner threat to harm your children?	Yes	28	100.0	3	17.6	31	33.47	P<0.0001**
		No	0	0.0	14	82.4	14		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

7	Does your partner say that if you leave you will never see your children?	Yes No	28 100.0	17 100.0	45	-----	-----		
8	Does your partner said that if you leave, he/she will hurt your children?	Yes No	25 3	89.3 10.7	4 13	23.5 76.5	29 16	19.96	P<0.0001**
9	Do any of your children have become victims of the abuse?	Yes No	15 13	53.6 46.4	6 11	35.3 65.7	21 24	1.42	P=0.23
10	Do any of your children has observe abuse against you?	Yes No	26 2	92.9 7.1	6 11	35.3 64.7	32 13	17.06	P<0.0001**
11	Has any of your children encourage your decision to leave?	Yes No	24 4	85.7 14.3	7 10	41.2 58.8	31 14	9.79	P=0.002*
12	Are your children afraid from the new situation?	Yes No	23 5	82.1 17.9	12 5	70.6 29.4	35 10	FE	P=0.48

+ Chi Square Test (2-tailed), $df = 1$, or FE= Fisher's Exact Test (2 Tailed), $df=1$.

Half of the 12 questions related to the impact and role of the children showed differences between FVs and MVs. Significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 4 questions (Q. 2, 6, 8, 10) and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for 2 more questions (Q. 3, 11). FVs responded 'Yes' more often than MVs to all but one question (Q. 3 - see above). Although all victims claimed that their abusive partner said 'if they left, they would never see the children' (Q.7), FVs showed significantly more impact of the presence of children compared to MVs, with men being more threatening about their children than women (Q. 2, 6, 8). Possibly as a consequence, a trend ($p < 0.002$) was observed for a higher number (86%) of FVs reporting that their children encouraged them to leave their abusive partner (Q.11) compared to MVs reports (41%).

Discussion

According to theories of gender and identity, men who are victims of DVA do not uphold the gender expectations of their communities and are subject to criticism (Bem 1993). One-way male victims deal with societal denigration is to employ masculine victim rationalizations to re-validate their identities (Eckstein 2010; George 2003). Hence, police and professionals have proposed gender differences for reasons why victims remain in an AR. However, to date, few comparative studies of men and women has been carried out. An exception was a study by Wuest & Merritt-Gray (1999) who compared men and women on 14 reasons, presented to them, for staying with an abusive partner. Gender differences were identified for only 3 of the 14 reasons. Men reported more frequent use of reasons appealing to personal strength, fatherhood and a desire to protect others.

This study investigated the differences between female and male victims of DVA in relation to factors that influence whether victims stay or leave the AR. Responses from 36 female and 18 male DVA victims were compared on 10 demographic characteristics; 52 factors relating to the AR and 12 factors related to the impact of children. No differences between female and male DVA victims were found for demographics characteristics related to age, education, ethnicity, and place of living.

However, there was a trend ($p < 0.01$) for a lower number of female victims to be employed (56%) and to have left the AR (25%) compared to male victims (89% and

61% respectively). The same demographic trends were found for victim responses in Chapter 6. A further trend was observed for female victims (83%) to report that the first DVA incident occurred within the first 6 months of the start of the relationship, whereas most male victims (61%) reported that the first DVA incident occurred after six months. Consistent with previous research, most victims (FVs 69%; MVs 56%) claimed they had suffered DVA for years before they asked for help.

Internal inhibitors

Overall, 18 (58%) of the 31 questions related to internal inhibitors, which were fear, learned helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem, showed gender differences. Significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 12 factors and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for 6 more factors. In every case, a higher number of FVs reported the internal factor than MVs. Therefore, consistent with previous research (e.g.; Hester 2013), FVs appeared more vulnerable than MVs with a higher proportion of them suffering from fear, helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem. All victims reported that they had suffered from anxiety and depression, lying about injuries, giving up on change and excusing the abuse.

External Inhibitors

Overall, 10 (53%) of the 19 questions related to external inhibitors, which were financial resources, social support networks and controlling partner, showed gender differences. Significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found between FVs and MVs for 6 factors and a trend ($p < 0.01$) for 4 more factors. For Financial resources, a trend ($p < 0.002$) was found indicating that MVs (72%) earn more than their abusive partner compared to FVs (28%), which is consistent with the observed demographic trend ($p < 0.01$) that MVs are more often in a job compared to FVs (see above). Social support from family and friends was reported significantly less often by FVs than MVs. In addition, FVs reported suffering significantly more controlling behaviours from their abusive partners compared to MVs.

All victims reported that they had suffered from their abusive partner being rude to their friends and critical of them on a daily basis. However, FVs suffered much more control from their abusive partners than male victims. Violent behavior operates as a route to achieving and maintaining male domination, power and control (Mauricio & Gormley,

2001). This gives some support for the feminist perspective that asserts that violence against women is endemic in most cultures and sub-cultures in which men dominate decision-making and assign fixed, subservient gender roles to women (WHO 2002). Indeed, Dobash, et al. (1999), in their book *Changing Violent Men*, describe how some male IPV perpetrators, after completing a domestic violence treatment programme, have been reported by their female partners as no longer physically victimising the family but continuing to control family members through coercive behaviour and psychological/emotional abuse.

According to Synder & Scheer (1981) the most consistent predictors of victims leaving an AR are financial resources such as employment or income. This Study supported this observation with more FVs (75%) remaining in their AR than MVs (39%) and a lower number of FVs in employment (56%) compared to MVs (89%).

Truman-Schram et.al. (2000) claimed that abused women who stay with their abusive partners are economically dependent on them, poorly educated and have less employment. However, this Study found no significant differences in the education level of FVs and MVs, although the men were more likely to be employed. The theory that abused women are poorly educated and have few job skills and therefore are economically dependent on their partners has been challenged by several studies. Walker (1983) collected data on 400 abused women and found that 40% had higher education and 23% had post-graduate education. Furthermore, Rounsaville (1978) found that women had either higher job skills or education than their violent partners.

According to Horton & Johnson (1993) women who maintain social networks such as friends and family have opportunities to discuss and become more empowered to leave the AR than those who lack such support. Although this may be the case, this Study found that FVs had less support of family and friends than MVs.

A possible explanation, within Greek society, for less victimised women with jobs and fewer social networks of friends is their commitment to raising their children (Agathonos-Georgopoulou & Browne, 1997). Raising children in the context of marriage and family is most important within Greece and the Christian Orthodox

religion, which may influence women to resist breaking up their AR for the sake of the children.

Impact of children

Jacobson et al. (1996) suggested that abused victim's decision to leave the AR was influenced by having children with the abusive partner. However, this Study found that women reported the abuse was most likely to start within the first 6 months, usually prior to the birth of their first child. By contrast, men were more likely to be abused after the first 6 months and after the birth of a child. Nevertheless, results from this Study suggested that the presence of children was a highly significant factor for the 45 participants (83%) who had reported the presence of at least one child in the family (all were biologically related for 28 FVs and 17 MVs), especially if they were female victims with children. Half of the 12 questions related to the impact and role of the children showed gender differences with significantly more FVs being influenced by their child(ren) in their decision to stay compared to men, which is consistent with previous research (Ferraro & Johnson, 1983).

Women were also significantly more likely to report their child(ren) had witnessed assaults (93%) on them by the partner compared to men (35%). In addition, women received significantly more threats to themselves and their child(ren) than men. This finding is consistent with data from police domestic violence and child protection units in England (Browne & Hamilton, 1999). Indeed, DVA has been shown to be highly predictive of child maltreatment and vice-versa (Hamilton & Browne, 2002; Browne et al. 2002).

The number of victims (44.5%) reporting that their child(ren) also suffered abuse by their partners was of serious concern. This again was more likely to be reported by FVs (54%) compared to MVs (35%). This link between DVA and child maltreatment is consistent with research over for the past 25 years, including Greece (i.e.; Browne, 1993b; Agathonos-Georgopoulou & Browne, 1997). Research studies have shown that approximately half of female DVA victims also report abuse to their children (53% - Walker, 1984) and approximately half of child maltreatment cases involve intimate partner violence (52% - Browne & Herbert, 1997; 46% - Browne & Hamilton, 1999).

The reasons for remaining in an AR found in this Study provide support for family violence theorists who explain the DVA leaving process as not only stages of change, but also include uncertainty and fear about the partner and children's future, managing feelings of self-blame and low self-esteem, setting boundaries and expectations and outside intrusion on the family (Hardesty & Ganong 2006; Khaw & Hardesty 2009). In addition, dealing with threats, harassment and stalking (Davies et al. 2009). All the above inhibitory factors were found by this Study to be more pertinent for women than men, which is consistent with previous research findings and the views expressed by police and professionals.

However, the complications of separation are experienced by all victims regardless of gender. These include positive emotions toward a partner, parenting concerns and recognising that children may still wish to have the abusive partner in their lives and the arrangement of co-parenting (Hardesty & Ganong 2006; Khaw & Hardesty 2009).

Limitations

One major limitation of the present study is the small sample size and further research needs to be carried out on larger samples from countries other than Greece. Reasons for staying might include positive emotions toward the abuser, parenting and religious concerns, substance misuse needs, views of abuse as normative, and feelings of guilt and shame, which were largely absent from this study. Furthermore, this investigation followed a quantitative approach, despite the small sample sizes. It may have been helpful to adopt a mixed methods design and include an interview based qualitative perspective to provide a better understanding and a more thorough insight into abused women's feelings (Field & Caetano, 2005). The rationale for mixing both kinds of data within one study is grounded in the fact that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are enough by themselves to capture the details of a complex multifactorial situation. When used in combination, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for a more robust analysis, taking advantage of the strengths of each (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Conclusion

The experience of living in a violent relationship clearly affects a victim's psychological state, regardless of gender. However, fear, learned helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem was significantly reported more often by women compared to men. This suggests that abused women learn to see themselves as more entrapped, helpless and powerless to escape their situation, which is related to abused women reporting less social support, financial resources and jobs compared to men. Therefore, they remain in abusive relationships not because they want to but because they believe there is no other option (Browne & Herbert, 1997).

According to Horton and Johnson (1993) fear is an important inhibitory factor to a woman's decision to leave an AR. This Study's findings confirmed that there was a significant higher proportion of female victims fearful of their abusive partner compared to men and this was related to the observation that a higher number of female victims reported physical and psychological threats to themselves and their children than men.

The next Chapter 8 statistically explores the significant differences between those who stay and those who leave an abusive relationship, inferred from responses to the questionnaire in this Chapter. The objective was to formulate an actuarial tool for use by police and professionals to identify victims who place themselves at further risk of harm by remaining in an abusive relationship.

Chapter 8

Predicting victims who remain in abusive relationship in Greece

Abstract

The aim of this study was to explore the relationship characteristics of 54 adult victims of domestic violence and abuse (DVA) to identify risk factors that influence a decision to remain in an abusive relationship. Using 74-item victim questionnaire, data was collected from 36 women and 18 men attending six DVA support organizations in Greece. This study compared two groups of adult victims: 34 (63%) who remain with their abusive partner ('high risk') and 20 (37%) who have left their abusive partner ('low risk'). Results indicated that a 9- factor model, with a cut-off score of 4 or more, could predict outcome in 88.9% of cases. Predictor (IVs) variables within the model included gender, employment status, close to parents, close to friends, stop seeing friends due to partner, please partner to avoid hurt, physically tried to stop the abuse, belief that partner will change, felt like staying in or returning to the AR. From this study a simple summation checklist has been developed that can be used as a risk assessment to predict victims of DVA who stay in the abusive relationship. placing themselves at high risk of further abuse. This could be used in Greece to guide intervention strategies, with those women identified as 'high risk' requiring more comprehensive intervention and support.

Predicting victims who remain in abusive relationship in Greece

Introduction

When domestic violence is intermittent the victim may perceive the abusive relationship (AR) as preferable to loneliness. The more put into the relationship the more the victim stands to lose. This 'entrapment' may be reinforced by financial difficulties, social isolation and feelings of anxiety, low self-esteem, self-blame and learned helplessness. On one hand, the abusive partner emphasises the benefits of staying and the difficulties of leaving. On the other hand, refuge and social workers emphasise the benefits of leaving and the costs of staying. It becomes a cost/benefit analyses for the victim with the balance weighing in different directions (stay, leave, return) at different times and with varied circumstances. Not surprisingly, half the women who seek refuge return to their abusive partners and 34% of those who return home suffer further DVA (Browne & Herbert, 1997). Some research has identified that married female victims, with little contact with police or social services and few previous separations were more likely to return, especially if they economically dependent and unemployed and the abuse had been intermittent (Johnson, 1992; Frude, 1994).

However, the costs of remaining in an AR may be underestimated by the victim who may not realise that without intervention the DVA becomes more frequent and more serious over time, especially when associated with child abuse and neglect in the same family (Browne & Hamilton, 1999; Hamilton & Browne, 2002; Browne et al. 2002; Browne, et al. 2017). They may be convinced by the excuses ('it was the drink') and the apologies ('it will never happen again') put forward by the abusive partner but research on cases of repeat victimisation has shown these statements to be meaningless (Dixon, 2017). Indeed, the psychological impact of living with broken promises, a lack of trust, fear and anxiety associated with ARs increases, over time, feelings of helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem leading to mental health problems such as depression and substance abuse (Cascardi & O'Leary, 1992; Mears, 2003). It appears that women are more vulnerable to the effects of DVA victimisation compared to men (See Chapter 7).

Victims who remain with their abusive partners are placing themselves (and their children) at high risk of physical and psychological harm and require more comprehensive intervention and support from police and professionals but often the opposite is true. Surprisingly, there have been few quantitative studies on the factors that influence victims to stay or leave an AR.

Aims of the Study

This study aimed at investigating the factors associated with the victim's decision to stay or leave. Research about factors associated with victims who remain in an AR has been limited. The aim of this Greek study was to explore the relationship characteristics of adult victims of DVA to identify risk factors that influence a decision to remain in an AR. Following Barnett (2000; 2001), factors are divided into two main categories: Internal Inhibitors and External Inhibitors that prevent victims from leaving an abusive partner.

The main objective of this study was to develop a regression model of risk factors identified as predictors of remaining in an AR at high risk of further abuse. This could be used in Greece to guide intervention strategies, with those women identified as 'high risk' requiring more comprehensive intervention and support.

Hypotheses

Based on findings in Chapter 7, this study hypothesized that:

- 1) Women would be more likely to remain in an AR than men.
- 2) Victims who remain in an AR would be less likely to have a job (financial resources) compared to those victims who leave.
- 3) Victims who remain in an AR would be more likely to report internal inhibitors of (a) fear, (b) learned helplessness, (c) self-blame and (d) low self-esteem, and (e) depression, compared to those victims who leave.
- 4) Victims who remain in an AR would be more likely to report external inhibitors of (a) lack of family and friends social support and (b) more controlling behavior from their partner, compared to those victims who leave.
- 5) Victims who remain in an AR would be more likely have children in the family compared to those victims who leave.
- 6) Victims who remain in an AR could be predicted by the presence of more internal and external inhibitors compared to those victims who leave.

Methods

A 74-item questionnaire was completed by 54 participants (36 females and 18 males) who had sought help from five DVA support organizations in Greece. All participants were in heterosexual relationships and victims of DVA. This study used a between groups

(independent) design to investigate factors associated with the victim's decision to stay or leave the AR. The dependent (criterion) variable was whether the victim remained in an AR or not. The independent (predictor) variables (risk factors) were (1) demographic characteristics, (2) fear, learned helplessness, self-blame, low self-esteem and depression (Internal factors), (3) employment, family and friend support networks, partner's controlling behavior (External factors) and (4) the impact of children. Procedures, informed consent, debriefing and ethical approval for this Study were the same as that described in Chapter 7.

Treatment of Data

All 54 adult victims of DVA who had responded to the Questionnaire, were included in the analysis regardless whether children were present in the family. In total, 45 respondents had at least one child (all were biologically related) and 9 did not. Two groups were established for comparison; 34 respondents who remained in an AR compared to 20 respondents who had ended and left the AR.

As the small sample sizes in each group were unlikely to show a normal distribution in participant responses to the Questionnaire, two-tail statistics were applied using non-parametric statistics for nominal data from two independent groups. Thus, a chi-squared analysis was conducted (using SPSS) on the data using cross-tabulations (see Chapter 3; page 91). Positive associations between variables (risk factors) and the high-risk group of victims who remained in an AR were identified. Because of multiple testing and the number of chi-squared tests carried out ($N = 73$), only those associations reaching 99% confidence limit ($p < 0.01$, two tailed) were noted and selected to be utilized in a binary logistic regression as predictor variables. There were no missing data in the factors selected and variables with more than one degree of freedom were transformed into 'yes/no' values so that all variables were dichotomous and ready to enter into a Binary logistic regression (using SPSS).

Binary logistic regression is a multivariate statistical method whereby the expected values of the outcome (criterion or dependent) variable; remained (1) or left (0) an AR, are predicted based on a combination of values taken from a group of independent variables or risk factors (predictors). The model parameters provide measures of strength of associations between the criterion variable and the predictor variables. The enter method was applied where all predictor variables were added to the model simultaneously. Predictor variables that were highly correlated with other explanatory variables in the model were eliminated to reduce the number

of factors used to predict the two groups (remained or left AR) of the criterion variable (See Table 8.2 and Page 256 for details). Following the elimination of highly correlated variables the logistic regression was re-run on 9 predictor variables. This set of reduced variables was adopted as the final model for prediction. This final model was used to develop a simple checklist of risk factors predicting who would remain in an AR. A simple summation score was calculated on the number of risk factors present for each participant and a cut-off score established for the checklist which gave the best separation of the two groups (ie: those participants who remained and those who left). High risk participants were identified as having a high associated with 'Remained' and low risk participants were identified as having a low number of risk factors.

Screening tool Development:

The effectiveness of applying a set (model) of predictive variables to a population sample of DVA victims to distinguish (or discriminate) between two groups within the sample (ie; victims who remain in an AR from victims who left) can be determined by comparing the actual observed outcome to the predicted categorisation of the same population based on the number (or score) of predictors present in each case that are associated with the criterion variable (remain or left). This is usually presented as a 'Classification Table' (see Table 8.1) from which the main measures for describing the performance of the screening tool are derived.

Table 8.1:

*Contingency classification table for predictive studies (adapted from Leventhal, 1988)**

Observed Incidences	Predicted Incidences		Actual Total Observed
	Remain (High Risk)	Left (Low Risk)	
Remain with Partner	(a)	(c)	(a + c)
Left Partner	(b)	(d)	(b + d)
Predicted total	(a + b)	(c + d)	Total N

**see text for explanation of table.*

Using Table 8.1 performance or 'operating' characteristics of the screening tool or checklist of predictors can be calculated. Leventhal (1988) suggests summarising the performance of a predictive screening tool in the following way:

- Incidence of remaining in an AR = $(a + c)/N$.
- High Risk for remaining in an AR = $(a + b)/N$.
- Positive Predictive accuracy of 9 factor model = $a / (a + b)$.
- Negative predictive accuracy of 9 Factor model = $d / (c + d)$.
- Risk Ratio (RR) = $a / (a + b) / c / (c + d)$.
- Sensitivity = $a / (a + c)$.
- Specificity = $d / (b + d)$.

Results: Bi-Variate findings

Demographics

There was a significant difference between 36 adult female victims (FVs) and the 18 adult male victims (MVs), in relation to their current heterosexual relationship status. For the women; 27 remained with their abusive male partner and 9 had ended and left their AR. For the men, 7 remained with their abusive female partner and 11 who had ended and left their AR. Therefore, it was significantly more likely for women to remain in an AR than men (Chi-Squared = 6.71, $df=1$, $p < 0.01$), which supports Hypotheses 1.

All 9 participants without children had remained in the AR, whereas 44% of those 45 participants with a child had left the AR while 56% remained. This did not quite reach significance ($p < 0.02$). Similarly, twice the number of city dwellers remained in an AR compared to those living in a village but again did not reach significance. No significant differences were observed for 'Age Category' with 68% of those 18 to 30 years and 59% of those 31 to 50 still in an AR. Likewise, a similar proportion of Greek ethnicity (68%) and other ethnic groups (60%) remained in an AR.

Education level was not associated with staying with an abusive partner with 71% of those with basic school education and 60% of those with further/higher education still living with an abusive partner. Similarly, there was no significant association between income and leaving an AR. However, significant more victims in a job left their abusive partner with those unemployed more likely to remain (Chi-Squared = 7.78, $df=1$, $p < 0.005$), which supports Hypotheses 2 that those victims who remain have fewer financial resources.

Internal Inhibitors

Regarding internal factors related to fear, learned helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem and depression, only 2 variables related to fear (of 12 items), and 3 variables related to helplessness (of 12 items) showed significant differences ($p < 0.01$) between those who remained and those who left an AR. These variables are listed in Table 8.2. No significant differences were found with variables reflecting self-blame (4 items) low self-esteem (3 items) and depression (1 item). This partially supports Hypothesis 3 for postulations 3(a) and 3(b) but the hypotheses must be rejected for postulations 3(c), 3(d) and 3(e).

External Inhibitors

In addition to a lack of financial resources from unemployment referred to above (Hypothesis 2 upheld), Table 8.2 shows significant differences ($p < 0.01$) emerged for half of the social support factors (of 8 items) and two of the controlling partner factors (of 7 items). With a lack of social support from parents and friends and a more controlling partner influencing the victim to remain in AR. Therefore, Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b) are upheld.

Table 8.2

Significant questionnaire responses of victims who remain or have left the abusive relationship(N=54).

Factor No.+	Questionnaire Factor++	Category	Remain with partner (n=34)		Left partner (n=20)		Total N n	Chi Square Statistic Value	Probability
			n	%	n	%			
G 1	Gender	1 Females (36)	27	75	9	25	34	6.71	P<0.01
		0 Males (18)	7	39	11	61	20		
R 2	Employment status	0 Employed	18	50	18	50	36	7.78	P<0.005
		1 Unemployed	16	89	2	11	18		
S 3	Are you closed to your parents?	0 Very close	5	23	17	77	22	25.77	P<0.0001
		1 Not close	29	91	3	9	31		
S 4	Do you believe parents support you?	0 Yes	6	26	17	74	23	23.36	P<0.0001
		1 No	28	90	3	10	31		
S 5	Do you have close friends?	0 Yes	5	23	17	77	22	25.77	P<0.0001
		1 No	29	91	3	9	31		
S 6	Do you see your friends?	0 Yes	6	26	17	74	23	23.36	P<0.0001
		1 No	28	90	3	10	31		
C 7	Stopped seeing friends because of partner?	1 Yes	24	89	3	11	27	15.56	P<0.0001
		0 No	10	37	17	63	27		
C 8	Prevented of leaving or asking for help?	1 Yes	24	77	7	23	31	6.52	P<0.01
		0 No	10	43	13	57	23		
C 9	Partner prevents you doing things you want?	1 Yes	34	69	15	31	49	9.37	P<0.005
		0 No	0	0	5	100	5		
F 10	Please your partner to avoid being hurt?	1 Yes	34	69	15	31	49	9.37	P<0.005
		0 No	0	0	5	100	5		
H 11	Physically tried to stop the abuse?	1 Yes	17	89	2	11	19	8.83	P<0.003
		0 No	17	49	18	51	35		

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

H 12	Believe that partner's behaviour will change?	1 Yes	21	45	4	20	25	8.83	P<0.003
		0 No	13	45	16	55	29		
H 13	Have you felt to stay or return to the AR?	1 Yes	23	96	1	4	24	20.01	P<0.0001
		0 No	12	37	19	63	31		
*M 14	Partner threats to harm children if you leave?	1 Yes	21	84	8	16	29	9.39	P<0.002
		0 No	4	45	12	55	16		
*M 15	Children have become victims of abuse?	1 Yes	18	86	3	14	21	14.50	P<0.0001
		0 No	7	29	17	71	24		
*M 16	Children have observed abuse against you?	1 Yes	22	69	10	31	22	7.81	P<0.005
		0 No	3	23	10	77	13		

*N=45

+ **Key:** G = Gender (1 item), R = Resources (1 item), S = Social Support (4 items), F = Fear (1 item), H = Helplessness (3 items), Controlling Partner (3 items), M = Child Maltreatment (3 items).

++ **Nine Bold Factors** = the final regression model once significantly correlated variables were removed.

Results: Logistic Regression (Multivariate)

Table 8.2 shows all 16 predictor variables identified to have significant associations ($p < 0.01$) with remaining in the AR group. The 16 predictor variables were entered in a binary logistic regression analysis (using SPSS). In doing this, parent support factors 3 and 4 were significantly correlated, as were friends support factors 5 and 6. Similarly, partner controlling factors 7, 8 and 9 were identified as significantly correlated at the $p < .05$ level, as were the child maltreatment factors 14, 15 and 16. To make the predictive model simpler; one variable with the highest statistic (Chi Square) value was chosen from each set of highly correlated variables. Therefore, variables 4, 6, 8 and 9 were removed from the model for further analysis (See Table 8.2).

Although, the child maltreatment factors (14, 15 & 16) may have had some predictive value, these child related variables reduced the sample size to 45 participants across the whole analysis (as nine women in the sample had no children). Therefore, it was decided to exclude all three of correlated child maltreatment factors and re-run the logistic regression on the whole sample. Hence, a reduced model of nine variables was entered into a new logistic regression with 54 subjects, which slightly exceeds the recommended minimum number ($N=50$) of subjects for a regression.

The nine factors included (indicated in bold in Table 8.2) were; gender, employment status, close to parents, close to friends, stop seeing friends due to partner, please partner to avoid hurt, physically tried to stop the abuse, belief that partner will change, felt like staying in or returning to the AR. The results of the Logistic Regression on the nine relatively independent predictor variables are given in Table 8.3.

To distinguish between adult victims who leave (low risk for further abuse) and those who stay (high risk of further abuse); the strength of prediction (Table 8.3, column B), in relation to remaining in the AR, was found for each of the nine factors;

- Please partner to avoid hurt (Strong)
- Unemployment (Strong)
- Not Close to Parents (Medium)
- Felt like staying in or returning to AR (Medium)
- Gender female victim (Medium)
- Belief that Partner will Change (Weak)

- Stop seeing friends due to partner (Weak)
- Physically tried to stop abuse (weak)
- Not close to friends (weak - with above model)

Table 8.3

Binary logistic regression (N=54) : Variables in the Equation – Step 1.

Risk Category+	Risk Factor Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
G	Gender (female)	1.372	1.474	0.867	1	0.352	0.253
R	Unemployment	17.763	8.348	0.001	1	0.998	0.001
S	Not close to parents	3.344	1.428	5.488	1	0.019	0.035
C	Stop seeing friends due to partner	0.504	1.235	0.167	1	0.683	1.656
F	Please partner to avoid hurt	34.876	17.749	0.001	1	0.998	0.001
H	Physically tried to stop abuse	0.211	1.202	0.031	1	0.861	0.810
H	Belief that partner will change	0.537	1.459	0.135	1	0.713	0.585
H	Felt like staying in or returning to AR	2.573	1.420	3.286	1	0.070	0.076
S	Not close to friends	Not included in Step 1					

+Key: G= Gender (1 items), R=Recourses (1 item), F=Fear (1 item), S=Support from family and friends (2 items), C= Controlling partner (1 item), H=Helplessness (3items).

The nine-factor model was able to correctly classify the outcome in 88.9% of cases (see Table 8.4). More specifically, the checklist correctly specified 16 (80% specificity) of the 20 who ended and left their AR and was sensitive to 32 (94% sensitivity) of the 34 who remained in an AR. However, one in five (20%) of those who were left their abusive partner were incorrectly

classified, resulting in 4 false positives. Similarly, two victims who remained were incorrectly assigned, resulting in 6% of false negatives. If a child maltreatment factor (16) was added to the 9-factor model of prediction, the correct classification of cases is reduced from 89% to 86% due to the smaller sample size of 45 participants with a child.

Table 8.4

*Accuracy of logistic regression 9-factor model in classifying victims who remain in an abusive relationship (N = 54)**

Observed Incidences	Predicted Incidences		
	Remain (High Risk)	Left (Low Risk)	Actual Total
Remain with Partner	32 (94.1%)	2 (5.9%)	34 (100%)
Left Partner	4 (20.0%)	16 (80.0%)	20 (100%)
Predicted total	36	18	54

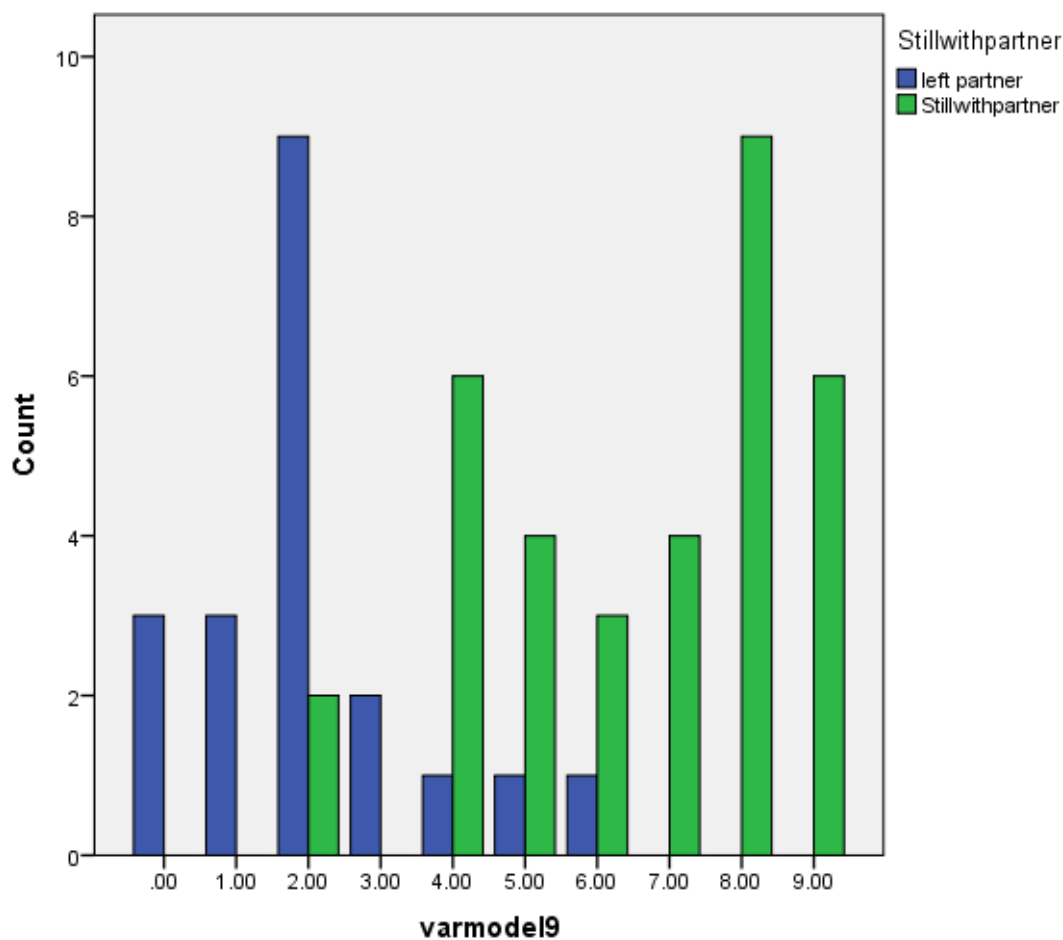
** 88.9% correct classification*

Checklist development

To administer the checklist in a practice or a professional setting, a simple summation technique was adopted where the number of risk factors are simply added up for each participant, with a minimum score of 0 and a maximum score of 9 (i.e. each risk factor is assigned a score of 1 if present and 0 if absent). The feasibility and practical efficacy of the risk factor checklist was then tested to see if scores could discriminate between those adult victims who have left their abusive partner (low risk) versus those who remained in an AR (high risk). The simple summation scores replaced the original data and a total score derived for each victim. Figure 8.1 displays the total checklist score calculated for each individual victim based on the risk factors present in their circumstance. The totals were then compared to in relation to outcome (left or remained) to establish the most effective cut-off point score to distinguish between the two groups. This was established as a score of 4 or more. Thus, 17 of the 20 'low risk' victims (who left) had between 0 and 3 or less risk factors. By contrast, 32 of the 34 'high risk' victims (who remained) had between 4 and 9 risk factors.

Figure 8.1

Checklist scores of the number of risk factors present in those DVA victims who left their AR compared to victims who remained (N = 54)



This 9-factor predictor checklist (with a cut-off score of 4 or more) was found to correctly classify 90.7 % of cases. For low risk victims (who leave the partner), 85% were correctly specified and 15% were false positives (incorrectly classified). For high risk victims (who remain with the partner), the checklist was sensitive to 94% of cases and 6% were false negatives (incorrectly classified). Overall, less than one in ten adult victims were incorrectly classified (see Table 8.5).

Table 8.5

*Classification table showing the accuracy of a nine-risk factor checklist with a cut-off score of 4 or more to classify victims who remain in an abusive relationship (N =54)**

Observed Incidences	Predicted Incidences		
	Remain	Left	Actual Total
	(High Risk)	(Low Risk)	
Remain with Partner	32 (94%)	2 (6%)	34 (100%)
Left Partner	3 (15%)	17 (85%)	20 (100%)
Predicted total	35	19	54

** 90.7% correct classification of (a) fear, (b) learned helplessness, (c) self-blame and (d) low self-esteem, and (e) depression, compared to those victims who leave.*

From Table 8.5 the performance of the nine -predictor screening tool was determined following the methods outline earlier in the treatment of data section for calculating the operating characteristics.

- Incidence of remaining in an AR = 63.0%
- High Risk for remaining in an AR = 64.8%
- Positive Predictive accuracy of 9 factor model = 91.4%
- Negative predictive accuracy of 9 Factor model = 89.5%
- Risk Ratio (RR) = 5.78
- Sensitivity = 94.1%
- Specificity = 85.0%

The above statistics related to performance might be improved by weighting the factors such that the presence of a strong predictor scores treble (score 3), and a medium predictor double (score 2) that of a weak predictor (score 1). A wider range of scores may increase the ability to discriminate between the two groups (leave or remain). Nevertheless, the current model fulfils the criteria of a reasonable predictive screening tool (positive predictive accuracy = 25%, sensitivity = 60%, and specificity = 90%), as defined by Leventhal (1988; p.156). The risk ratio suggests that the high -risk group are six time more likely to remain in a AR than the low risk group.

Discussion

This study analysed questionnaire data from 54 victims of DVA to identify characteristics and risk factors associated with remaining in an AR. The aim was to develop a model that could be used by police and professionals, to direct resources, by targeting those most at high risk of further abuse. Results identified a nine-factor model that could be used as a simple summation checklist for police and professional to identify vulnerable victims who remain with an abusive partner. This 9-factor checklist (with a cut-off score of 4 or more) could correctly predict 85% of low risk victims (who leave the partner) and 94% of high-risk victims (who remain with the partner). Overall, less than one in ten adult victims would be incorrectly classified.

It was found that the following 9 risk factors could distinguish those who leave abusive relationships from those who stay, with the first two factors accounting for a large proportion of the predictive power and can therefore be seen as the most important indicators for staying in an AR:

- Please partner to avoid hurt (Fear)
- Unemployment (Resources)
- Not Close to Parents (Social support)
- Felt like staying in or returning to AR (Helplessness)
- Female victim (Gender)
- Belief that Partner will Change (Helplessness)
- Stop seeing friends due to partner (Controlling Partner)
- Physically tried to stop abuse (Helplessness)
- Not close to friends (Social support)

Overall, 16 variables were associated the high-risk group of Remainers. However, 7 of these variables were highly correlated with the above 9 factors and contributed little to the predictive model. If an individual is assessed as having 4 or more of the above 9 risk factors in their current situation then there is a nine out of ten chance that the victim will remain in the AR.

From this study a simple summation checklist was developed, with a simple scoring system (see Table 8.6) that can be used as a risk assessment to predict victims of DVA who stay in the AR placing themselves at high risk of further abuse. This could be used in Greece to guide intervention strategies, with those women identified as 'high risk' requiring more

comprehensive intervention and support. How the checklist performs in other countries would require further research and its implementation should be limited to Greece until that time.

Table 8.6:

Proposed Risk factor checklist for victims who remain in an abusive relationship.

Risk Category+	Risk Factor Variable	If Present: Score 1
Minimum score of 0 and Maximum score of 9		
G	Gender (female)	1
R	Unemployment	1
S	Not close to parents	1
C	Stop seeing friends due to partner	1
F	Please partner to avoid hurt	1
H	Physically tried to stop abuse	1
H	Belief that partner will change	1
H	Felt like staying in or returning to AR	1
S	Not close to friends	1
Total Score (Number of factors present)		
HIGH RISK SCORE = 4 to 9		
LOW RISK SCORE = 0 to 3		

+Key: *G= Gender (1 items), R=Recourses (1 item), F=Fear (1 item), S=Support from family and friends (2 items), C= Controlling partner (1 item), H=Helplessness (3items).*

The main limitation in this Study were the sample sizes for regression (usually 50 or more). Hence, the impact of child maltreatment on the adult victim's decision to leave could not be estimated, as this reduced the sample for the regression to 45. There was some evidence (which did not quite reach significance - $p < 0.02$) that presence of children had an impact, as adult

DVA victims with children were more likely to leave an AR compared to those without children. However, 56% of victims with at least one child remained in the AR and unwittingly subjected their children to maltreatment by the abusive partner. Nevertheless, the checklist needs to be applied to a much larger sample to explore its operating characteristics when child maltreatment predictor variables are added into the model.

The impact of child maltreatment (in addition to DVA) was found to have a stronger impact with all three variables significantly related to leaving an AR (see Table 8.2) and demonstrating some predictive power to identify those who remain. The finding that DVA and child maltreatment were reported by 54% of the victimized women to overlap in their family is consistent with previous research studies of the women with children in Greece and in England (Agathonos and Browne, 1997; Browne and Hamilton, 1999,). Studies have found that, in the absence of interventions, DVA and child maltreatment become more frequent and more serious over time, especially when both DVA and child abuse and neglect occur together, at the same time, in the same family (Hamilton & Browne, 2002; Browne et al. 2002; Browne et al. 2017).

Other external factors significantly associated with victims remaining in an abusive relationship included unemployment, lack of support from family and friends and controlling partners. According to Synder and Scheer (1981) the most consistent predictors of leaving an abusive relationship (AR) are financial resources such as employment. This Study supported this concept. Furthermore, Truman-Schram et.al. (2000) claimed that abused women who are poorly educated and have few job skills and, therefore, are economically dependent on their partners are more likely to stay in abusive relationships than leave them. However, this study found no significant differences in the income or education levels of those who stayed and those who left their abusive partner.

Internal factors identified were fear and learned helplessness with victims who had left the AR reporting less feelings of fear and helplessness compared to victims still in the AR. Self-blame, low self-esteem and depression showed no significant differences between the two groups. This evidence contradicts some of the findings from previous studies (Cascardi & O'Leary, 1992; Cascardi & Vivian, 1995; Browne & Herbert, 1997) but is consistent with Horton and Johnson (1993) who found fear and helplessness were important factors in a victim's decision to stay. According to Horton and Johnson (1993) women who maintain social networks such as friends and family have opportunities to discuss and become more empowered to leave the AR than

those who lack such support. Indeed, this Study found evidence that those victims who stayed did lack the support of family and friends.

Conclusion

This study provides support for the use of risk factors in identifying adult victims who remain in an AR at high risk of repeat victimisation and exposing their child(ren) to greater risk of harm. The validity of using questionnaire data may be questioned in that, ideally, risk assessment tools should be developed based on prospective studies. Therefore, the risk factor checklist should be treated with caution, although the scale shows some predictive value, it incorrectly classified one in ten participants. The risk factor checklist should therefore not be the sole indicator of risk of re-victimization. It is advised that those using the tool continue to use their existing procedures (such as the DASH risk assessment used by the police). Adult victims in the 'high risk' group, who are six time more likely to remain with an abusive partner, warrant more intensive and comprehensive interventions to counter their decision to stay.

It is hoped that this approach would be useful in the assessment of victims of DVA to identify the police and professional interventions required and prioritise resources. However, the applicability of the 9-factor model outside Greece is in question in terms of both reliability and validity. It is the pragmatic risk assessment approach that can be adopted for general use.

Chapter 9

Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

There are a relatively small number of reports in the press of men who are victims of domestic violence and abuse (DVA). Media coverage of DVA against men was first brought to national attention in the UK by a television Channel 4 'Dispatches' programme in 1998. Following an initial programme on male DVA victims, they received over 100 phone calls from men saying that they had been abused. These men were sent a questionnaire to complete. Browne (2008) analysed the questionnaires and noted the following points: it affects all classes in society, 90% of the men were bigger and taller than their partner, the abuse was as serious as in wife abuse with two thirds being threatened with a weapon and in 95% of the cases police did not take them seriously. In 2009, BBC Radio1 featured a documentary 'Big boys don't cry' which featured a range of victims and support services.

DVA has traditionally been understood as a crime perpetrated by domineering men against defenseless women (Dixon et al, 2010). Research spanning over 40 years has, however, consistently found that men and women self-report perpetrating DVA at similar rates. Archer (2000, 2002) has conducted a two meta-analytic reviews of sex differences in aggression between heterosexual intimate partners. Graham-Kevan (2011) summarised the findings of these reviews and commented "women are as likely to use domestic violence as men, but women are twice as likely as men to be injured or killed during a domestic assault. Men still represent a substantial proportion of people who are assaulted, injured or killed by an intimate partner (50%, 30% and 25% respectively)." Indeed, men have reported being slapped, pushed, kick, and grabbed, punched, choked, stabbed, suffered physical attacks to the genitals and threats to kill themselves and/or their partner (Barkhuizen, 2015; Hall, 2012; Hines et al., 2007). Women DVA perpetrators also commit 'intimate terrorism'. Hines et al. (2007) claims that the most common forms of control shown by female perpetrators toward male victims were threats and coercion (77.6%). For example, threatening to call the police and have the partner falsely arrested for spouse abuse or abuse to the children, or threatening to leave the partner with the children (Hines et al., 2007).

Graham- Kevan (2011) acknowledges the increase in cases against female perpetrators but expresses surprise at how few are prosecuted and what changes are needed to recognise the scale of DVA against men. She states, "The dual stereotypes of the violent man and passive woman have undoubtedly obscured the existence of male victims of domestic violence in the past."

The extent and nature of DVA remains a concern to police and other professionals. A core part of the police and other professionals work is to prevent and reduce DVA . However, the effectiveness of their interventions has not been systematically explored, especially with regard to the influence of victim and offender gender on police and professional responses. Thus, the aim of the Thesis was to identify the influence of gender of victims and offenders on police and professionals dealing with DVA in Greece and the impact that their responses have on victims. This aim was achieved by first conducting a systematic literature review (Chapter 2) to explore police and professionals responses to male and female victims of DVA and types of intervention police and other professionals used.

Systematic review of police responses to DVA reports

A systematic search resulted in 638 titles. After removing studies that did not meet the inclusion criteria and duplicates, 26 papers on police responses were reviewed and assessed for quality. No studies quantitatively assessed professional interventions and 26 studies reported only police responses to DVA victims and their outcomes.

Despite the heterogeneity of the 26 studies similar factors were found to influence police interventions. Four or more of the studies identified victim factors as; gender of victim female, cohabiting with abusive partner, severity of injury and victim under the influence of alcohol or drugs to be associated with arrest of the perpetrator. Four or more of the studies identified offender factors as; gender of offender male, severity of incident, use of weapon and offender under the influence of alcohol or drugs to be also linked to arrest. Overall, it was observed that male offenders were arrested more often than female offenders. Women were more likely to be arrested if they were intoxicated and/or had used a weapon.

Evidence from the review showed on average female victims represent 86.2% and male victims represent 17.3% of DVA incident reports to the police. Of these, 63.2% of male offenders and 11.5% of female offenders were arrested.

Victim gender influences based on police and professional questionnaires

Secondly, the research investigated the role of gender in domestic abuse (DVA as recognized by police officers in Greece (Chapter 3). In total, 358 completed the questionnaire (95% response rate) and nearly twice as many police officers referred to female victims (n=170) compared to male victims (n=83) of DVA. The Police officers indicated that female victims usually suffered from severe physical violence/GBH (42.9%) and psychological abuse

(26.5%), whereas male victims were most likely to disclose minor physical injuries and verbal abuse (49.4%) and less psychological violence (9.6%). Arrest was the most common response for both female and male victims (50.6% and 59.8% respectively). Police participants indicted that offenders against males were more likely to be charged (28%) but less likely to be convicted (3.7%), whereas the opposite was reported for offenders of female victims (14.3% and 13.1% respectively). All these results were consistent with the findings of the systematic review (Chapter 2) and the observations of Graham-Kaven (2011) above.

If the offender was known to the police, the opinion was they were *less* likely to be prosecuted in Greece. Police respondents reported no significant differences for female and male victims as to causal factors and reasons for NOT reporting DVA. These were; discrimination (31%), few DVA services (23%), intimidation (15%), shame and stigma of media reports (14%), lack of community support (6%) and personal reasons (9%). All consistent with previous research.

With a paucity of quantitative research on professionals dealing with DVA, the research thirdly investigates the role of gender in DVA as recognized by professionals (Chapter 4). A questionnaire sample of 327 professionals was collected from five DVA support organizations in Greece.

In total, 211 (64.5%) professionals confirmed that they had dealt with a female victim and a male offender whereas only 91 (27.8%) claimed they had dealt with at least one case of female offender and male victim. Like the findings from the police questionnaires, professionals reported female victims suffered mostly from severe physical violence/GBH (32.5% of respondents), whereas male victims were most likely to disclose to the police minor/moderate physical injuries (15%). They also agreed that causal factors of DVA were similar for men and women. However, professionals reported significant differences for female and male victims as to reasons for NOT reporting DVA. They implied that absence of support services (30.6%) for males was the main reason, which is consistent with previous research.

Fourthly a comparison of police (Chapter 3) and professional (Chapter 4) responses towards female and male victims of DVA in Greece was carried out (Chapter 5). Overall, 358 Greek police officers from eight major police services in Greece and 327 Greek professionals who worked in five agencies dealing with DVA completed the same Questionnaire. Consistent with the published research literature, the findings of this study reflected a lack of experience with male victims for both professionals and police officers with no significant difference between

the two groups. Both groups reported that severe physical violence was the most common type of DVA suffered by female victims and that moderate/minor physical injury was the most common type of DVA suffered by male victims. A rank order of professional and police responses revealed 'absence of support services' was the most frequent response for not reporting abuse and 'drug and alcohol misuse' as the most frequent causal factor. For women, 'financial worries' was the second most frequent causal factor whereas for men it is 'issues with children in the relationship'.

Professionals, Practitioners and policy makers could use this information to improve how police and professionals respond to DVA. The finding that police and professional support staff hold very similar views on DVA victims in Greece, would suggest that police work together with social workers when combatting domestic violence. Both professions need to focus on helping victims regardless of gender. A collaboration between social work and the police force would allow victims to use the criminal justice system as well connecting to support resources.

Victims' perceptions of police responses to DVA and the influence of children

The fifth stage of the research (Chapter 6) investigated the differences in female and male victim experiences, from the victim perspective, after making a report to the Greek police about DVA and whether these experiences differ in the presence or absence of children.

A heterosexual victim sample consisting of 75 participants was recruited from five agencies offering counselling and support for DVA victims in Greece. All participants completed a 59item questionnaire. Comparing 58 female and 17 male victims, with similar demographic characteristics; there were 18 significant differences ($p < 0.001$) and 13 trends ($p < 0.002$ to $p < 0.05$) found for 31 out of 50 questions; each indicating that more concern was shown for women than men in the police interview, use and availability of weapons, injuries and evidence, arrest, protective orders, information and advice provided and the police crime report. Only questions related to safeguarding children and witnesses showed no differences.

A comparison of questionnaires from 38 female victims with children with 20 with no children determined that the influence of children in the home on police responses was small. It was found that a small number of factors (9 out of 50 questions) were influenced by the presence of children. Mostly, these were factors associated with information, advice and actions to safeguard the child(ren).

Of interest, is that female and male victims showed few differences on factors related to children (see Table 9.1). Of the 75 participants, 49 (65.3%) of victims had children. Of these, 38 were mothers all (100%) living with their children and 11 were fathers with 7 of them (63.6%) living with their children. There were only two significant differences between mothers and fathers; mothers were more likely than fathers to report the police officer asked about whether the child had been abused, and whether a weapon was used or available. There was a trend for fathers to report that their children were less pleased with the arrival of the police, and that the police officer was less sensitive with their children, compared to the mothers.

Regarding the children caught up in the AR of the parents, 42.9% of victims reported that the children were abused as well. Two-thirds of were mothers (66.7%) and a third of were fathers (36.4%), but this difference did not reach significant. The overlap between DVA and child abuse is well documented (Browne & Hamilton, 1999; Browne et al, 2017) and so these findings come of no surprise. Indeed, four out of five participants, regardless of gender, claimed that their children had witnessed the partner abuse. This confirms research findings reported 35 years ago (Sinclair, 1985).

It is difficult to generalize about the appropriate response by police officers to situations of DVA, as officers often face very difficult and confused situations when trying to identify the perpetrator (see Chapter 2), but it is difficult to see why standard police interviews and the provision of information and advice is good for female victims and poor for male victims with and without children. Evidence from this and other research shows that police officers are guided by their stereotypical beliefs about DVA and presumptions about the role of gender (Stalans & Finn 2006).

Campbell (2010) reports on the work of '*Parity*', a charity that offers advice to male DVA victims within a campaign to promote and protect the equality of men and women under UK law. Men are seen as disadvantaged in many aspects of family law "Their plight is largely overlooked by the media, in official reports and in government policy", for example in the provision of refuge places – 7,500 for females in England and Wales but only 60 for men (Hall, 2012).

For men with children the situation is even worse according to the Montgomery Family Crisis Centre in Wales, who claim that there are 7,000 refuge places in Britain for women, but only 20 for men with children. They argue that many male victims choose not to use them as this would mean they may have to move a long way from their jobs, friends and family. They also state that it is very difficult for men to take custody of their children, even when the female is drunk and violent. One male victim was reported as saying “I tried to leave with my baby daughter, but when I went to social services to ask for help, I hit a brick wall.....The social worker looked at me as though I was making it up.” He went on to say “If a woman had walked in there with a black eye, she would have been helped immediately. But they took one look at me – 6ft 4in and 16stone – and thought that I was lying. I walked out of those offices feeling like the world was against me.” It was only when his partner was finally arrested for assault that he was able to take his child (Cited in The Mirror Newspaper, 2011).

The type of external barriers men encounter from service providers of domestic violence entail being accused as the perpetrator, being referred to batterer programs, being told the agency only serves women or their services are not useful for men (Douglas et al., 2012; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Johnson, 2012; Tsui et al., 2010). When men are asked about the reason that they don't always report the abuse or seek help for domestic violence services, they stated denial, family breakdown and losing their children, fear of ridicule and the stigma that men can't be abused, and/or shame and embarrassment in admitting they were abused (Barkhuizen, 2015; Douglas et al., 2012; Drijber et al., 2013; Hines & Douglas, 2009; Shuler, 2010; Tsui, 2014; Tsui et al., 2010).

Why victims stay in abusive relationships

This sixth and last stage of the research (Chapter 7) investigated the differences between female and male victims of DVA in relation to factors that influence whether victims stay or leave the AR. Six DVA support organizations in Greece were approached for access to new victims and 54 completed a 74-item questionnaire. Responses from 36 female and 18 male DVA victims were compared on 10 demographic characteristics; 52 factors relating to the AR and 12 factors related to the impact of children. No differences between female and male DVA victims were found for demographics characteristics related to age, education, ethnicity, and place of living but there was a trend for a lower number of female victims to be employed and to have left the AR compared to male victims, similar to the previous victim survey (see Chapter 6). Female

victims appeared more vulnerable than male victims with a significantly higher proportion of them suffering from internal inhibitors of fear, helplessness, self-blame and low self-esteem compared to male victims. Regarding external factors female victims had significantly fewer financial resources and social support networks with more controlling partners than male victims. Regardless of victim gender, all victims reported that they had suffered from anxiety and depression, lying about injuries, giving up on change and excusing the abuse. These findings were consistent with the professional viewpoint on gender differences (see Chapter 4), and police opinions on factors affecting both men and women (see Chapter 3). In addition, it supports observations from previous research.

Furthermore, significantly more women were influenced by their child(ren) in their decision to stay compared to men. Female victims were significantly more likely to report threats to their child(ren) and for the child(ren) to witness assaults on them. A higher proportion of women reported that their child(ren) also suffered abuse by their partners than men. These results were consistent with the findings in the previous victim survey (Chapter 6) and support research findings from two decades ago (Browne & Herbert, 1997; Browne & Hamilton, 1999).

The final piece of research explored the relationship characteristics of 54 adult victims of DVA to identify risk factors that influence a decision to remain in an AR. Using 74-item victim questionnaire, data was collected from 36 women and 18 men attending six DVA support organizations in Greece (see Chapter 6). This study compared two groups of adult victims: 34 (63%) who remain with their abusive partner ('high risk') and 20 (37%) who have left their abusive partner ('low risk'). Results indicated that a 9- factor model, with a cut-off score of 4 or more, could predict outcome in 88.9% of cases. Dependent variables within the model included gender, employment status, close to parents, close to friends, stop seeing friends due to partner, please partner to avoid hurt, physically tried to stop the abuse, belief that partner will change, felt like staying in or returning to the AR. From this study a simple summation checklist was developed that can be used as a risk assessment to predict victims of DVA who stay in the AR placing themselves at high risk of further abuse. This could be used in Greece to guide intervention strategies, with those women identified as 'high risk' requiring more comprehensive intervention and support.

Victim opinions on arrest and prosecutions of their abusive partner

In-depth interviews focus groups and surveys with victims have highlighted the reasons victims do not support mandatory arrest and potential charges and prosecution for DVA. These reasons are like those victims have put forward for retracting or refusing to provide statements against perpetrators. They include fear of consequences or an ongoing commitment to the perpetrator, not wanting the perpetrator punished but receive help, financial dependence on the perpetrator, not wanting children to be without their father, wanting to shield children from the traumas of criminal justice system involvement, and fatigue or pessimism with criminal justice processes (Cussen & Lyneham 2012; Erez & Belknap 1998; Hare 2006; Hartley & Frohmann 2003; Lewis et al. 2000; Rhodes et al. 2011; WA Department of Justice & WA Police Service 2002). Many victims indicate that calling the police was simply to have the perpetrator temporarily removed and ensure their short-term safety, rather than for the longer-term goal of prosecution and conviction (Gillis et al. 2006; Weisz et al. 2005).

The most common reasons victims give for supporting charges include wanting to prevent further violence by punishing, deterring or incapacitating perpetrators, protecting children, and encouragement or pressure from family and social networks (Erez & Belknap 1998; Hare 2006; Hartley & Frohmann 2003; Lewis et al. 2000; Rhodes et al. 2011). Interestingly, Erez and Belknap (1998) found that victims rated family, friends as more important influences on their decisions to support charges than police. However, police were identified as the most important influence on decisions not to support charges. Horton and Johnson (1993) found that battered women tend to rate clergy as the least helpful in dealing with their abuse. Thus, in looking at social networks it might have been helpful investigating the sources from which participants received support.

As Pennington-Zoellner (2009) suggest a variety of resources in each community may be needed to fully address the fears of involving the police and professionals and challenge diverse community and cultural belief systems, especially among ethnic minority groups. It is vital to produce accurate information in several targeted languages to address all victims and crucial to distribute this information as widely possible.

Seeking help from Service Agencies

While many victims and survivors of domestic abuse will rely on their informal networks, they also need strong state provision of formal services, from specialist refuges to counsellors. A lack of early intervention or support can prohibit an individual's ability to break away from an

abuse relationship. Moving on can require a well-functioning justice system (both family and criminal) with skilled, supportive and informed professionals and ongoing witness support from the initial police interview to the prosecution in court. It can require the ability to find alternative housing, income, to split joint-assets and disentangle joint-accounts and make plans for the care and custody of any children. In the most extreme cases, victims need a completely new start, often in a refuge; miles away from their homes, belongings, families, friends and jobs. Professionals working in this field play a vital role in addressing these problems. Early identification of, and prompt intervention with, DVA can reduce the consequences for the victim and may help to prevent further violence and repeat victimisation.

Browne and Williams (1989) have devised five criteria for programmes to be considered effective in assisting victims of DVA:

1. The victim must be aware that the resource/service is available to them.
2. The resource/service must be accessible to victim (logistically and financially).
3. Individuals must be willing to take the time use the available resource/service (eg; distance from home)
4. The available resource/service staff must be receptive to the victim.
5. The available resource must effectively meet the needs of the victim.

Recently, the Australian Government allocated AU\$100 million to combat DVA but only AU\$ 2 million was allocated for men from that package. Most of these funds were used to resource programmes for men as perpetrators and mitigate the potential to re-offend. The funds were not used as resources for men as victims of domestic violence (Moore, 2015). Moore (2015) commented "With the International Day for the Elimination of Violence against Women just passing, many men continue to feel excluded as victims. Excluded from government funding, from help services and from awareness and recognition" (para. 5).

Therefore, the question remains, where male victims of DVA search for help and support with all the barriers they encounter from a lack of formal services and stereotypes in communities and societies in general (Tsui, 2014).

Limitations of the Research

As with any research study, there are several limitations that may limit the ability to generalize the research findings of this Thesis. The first being that all the primary research was carried out in Greece, where the prevention and criminal prosecution of DVA is relatively recent

compared to other high-income countries and the Balkan culture remains somewhat patriarchal than other areas of Europe and North America, with the associated belief that women are, more or less submissive, and men are dominant in Greek society. If anything, this would bias the research toward finding significant differences between male and female victims, which may not exist to the same extent elsewhere.

The Systematic Literature Review (SLR) in Chapter 2, initially informed the Greek research by demonstrating that police actions and responses to female victims compared to male victims was significantly different in all countries where this type of research had been carried out. It appears that these differences were mainly based on the police officers holding opinions and beliefs based on female and male stereotypes. The sex of the police officer (female or male) had little impact on these beliefs. A limitation of the SLR was that only quantitative studies were included. Similar to the systematic review carried out by Poteyeva and Sun (2009), quantitative studies of police officer's attitudes and opinions (using structured and semi-structured questionnaires) were reviewed. This was due to the large number of poor qualitative studies and single-case descriptions in the topic area of DVA. Hence, important details of how these stereotypes impact on police work may have been missed. Nevertheless, the findings of the SLR would indicate that the research presented in this Thesis is relevant to most North American, Australasian and European countries.

Findings presented in this Thesis are based on self-completed questionnaire data, where participating police officers (N=358), professionals (N=327) and victims (N=129) provided their opinions, and experiences and reported actions in relation to their understanding of the questions. As with all questionnaire studies, these responses may not reflect a true picture and may be subject to social desirability bias, which brings into question the 'validity' of the information provided. For example, police and professional respondents may answer items in the Questionnaire based on what they understand to be the service policy on gender equality, rather than report what they have actually experienced or done. In addition, social desirability bias may affect the participant's response in one part of the Questionnaire and not another part (as the later section might be seen as less challenging), which brings into question the 'reliability' of the information provided. Nevertheless, significant differences emerged between responses to female and male victims, suggesting that the gender of the victim influences police and professional responses and interventions. This is despite the gender equality service policies in Greece. Hence, in this research, it can be assumed that Greek police and professional participants were reporting what they believed to be true.

Furthermore, the reports from victims on their experiences of police interventions (in Chapter 6) were found to corroborate what the police officers had reported (in Chapter 3 and 5). These findings reflect the validity of the research. It seems that the problem of victims being influenced by those around them (e.g.; perpetrator, lawyer, social support worker) when self-completing the questionnaire was minimal.

An attempt was made to include all major cities in Greece, to gain representative samples at a National level. In doing so, the research required the help of several police departments, professional government agencies and NGOs in the recruitment of participant samples. This created other problems. For example, the questionnaires that were distributed to domestic violence victims, were indirectly administered via five or six DVA support organizations, using a snowballing method to produce samples of convenience, which may have shown regional differences in the participants and the distribution of the questionnaire. This would have increased the variance of the data. A similar critic can be made of the police and professional samples. As this increased variance in data would make it more difficult to establish significant differences there is greater probability of a Type 2 error (false negatives).

The victim samples of convenience were further compounded by relatively small sample sizes. The researcher was not in direct control of recruiting participants and the number of the participants was fewer than expected, especially for male victims. Therefore, statistical power was limited in some of the analyses as the samples fell short for the number of comparisons made, making a Type 2 error even more likely.

In addition, the large number of statistical comparisons from analyzing the questionnaire responses may have led to Type 1 errors (false positives). This possibility was reduced by the application of the Bonferroni Corrections and increasing the confidence limit to 99.9%.

Uncharacteristic of the convenience samples, were the high response rates shown in the recruitment of police and professional samples (95% and 97%). This may reflect a pressure placed on them to complete the questionnaire or a genuine interest in the topic are by those who work with DVA victims. All the participants in Chapter 3 were police officers but information about the number of years they were working in the field and the training they had received was not recorded. In Chapter 4, most of the professional participants were social workers and volunteers working with victims who were referred or contacted the support agencies or social services. In addition, the questionnaire was passed to a minority of psychologists and lawyers working with these organisations and their clients, as the main

criterion for the selection of the participants were that they have worked or are still working with DVA victims either women or men. A limitation the study was that the profession of each respondent was not recorded.

Further limitations related to the research on victim experiences (Chapter 6). Firstly, the time taken by the police to respond to the DVA incident(s), after the victim had reported it, was not questioned or recorded. This may have had an impact on duration of the incident and coloured the views and opinions of the victim about the police response. Secondly, the time lapsed from the DVA incident(s) until the victim completed the questionnaire was not measured. This relates to victim recall, as how long ago the DVA incident(s) occurred may have affected the recollection of events.

Regarding Chapter 7 and 8, the validity of using questionnaire data may be questioned in that, ideally, risk assessment tools should be developed based on prospective studies. Therefore, the risk factor checklist, devised for Greece, should be implemented in practice with caution. Although the scale shows some predictive value, it incorrectly classified one in ten participants. The risk factor checklist should therefore not be the sole indicator of risk of re-victimization. The application of this screening tool for victim who remain in their AR should not be extended outside Greece, without further research on its generalisability.

In relation to research on why victims remain in their AR, further research needs to be carried out on larger samples from countries other than Greece. Reasons for staying might include positive emotions toward the abuser, parenting and religious concerns, substance misuse needs, views of abuse as normative, and feelings of guilt and shame, which were largely absent from this study.

It could have been also helpful if a mixed methods design had been followed. Qualitative semi-structured interviews, with a sub-sample of police, professional and victims, would have provided a better understanding of the concepts and a more thorough insight police and professional opinions and into victims' perceptions regarding police response to their calls. Female and male victims could have explained how satisfied they feel with the amount of support, help and advice available to them from both police officers and professionals from support organizations.

The rationale for mixing both kinds of data within research is grounded in the fact that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are enough by themselves to capture the details of a

complex multifactorial situations and relationships. When used in combination, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for a more robust analysis, taking advantage of the strengths of each (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Conclusion

Overall, the findings throughout the studies outlined in this Thesis were consistent with each other and the findings from most of the previous research literature on the topic. Generally, results showed there were profound differences between the experiences reported by women compared to men for police responses to the victim. Evidence is provided to support the notion that male victims in Greece are discriminated against, as they do not fulfil the gender stereotype expected by police officers. This suggests that more police training is required to ensure gender ‘neutral’ police responses when attending a domestic dispute or responding to a report of DVA.

REFERENCES

References Chapter 1

Aldridge, M. L., & Browne, K. D. (2003). Perpetrators of Spousal Homicide: A Review. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 4(3), 265–276. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838003004003005>

Archer, J. (2002). Sex differences in physically aggressive acts between heterosexual partners a meta-analytic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 7(4), 313–351.

Archer, J. (2000). Sex differences in aggression between heterosexual partners: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(5), 651–680. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.5.651>.

Artinopoulou, V. (2006). *Domestic Abuse of Women*. Athens: Nomiki Bibliothiki

Baker, L. L., Cunningham, A. J., & Harris, K. E. (2011). *Violence within families and intimate relationships. Juvenile justice: advancing research, policy, and practice*. New Jersey: Hoboken, NG: Wiley, 223-44.

Baker, N. L., Buick, J. D., Kim, S. R., Moniz, S., & Nava, K. L. (2013). Lessons from examining same-sex intimate partner violence. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 69(3-4), 182–192. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-012-0218-3>

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. New York: General Learning Press.

Barnish, M. (2004). *Domestic Violence: A literature review*. London: HM Inspectorate of Probation.

Breiding, M. J., Basile, K. C., Smith, S. G., Black, M. C., & Mahendra, R. R. (2015). *Intimate partner violence surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements, Version 2.0*. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Browne, K. D., & Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. (2005). The influence of violent media on children and adolescents: A public health approach. *Lancet*, 365(9460), 702-710.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(05\)66372-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(05)66372-6)

Browne, A., & Kirk, R. W. (1989). "Exploring the Effect of Resource Availability and the Likelihood of Female-perpetrated Homicides". *Law and Society Review*, 23 (1), 75–94.

Browne, K.D., & Herbert, M. (1997). *Preventing Family Violence*, Chichester; Wiley.

Carrington, K., & Phillips, J. (2003). *Domestic Violence in Australia: An overview of the issues*. Australia: Commonwealth of Australia. Parliamentary Library, Parliament of Australia, Canberra,

Carney, M., Buttell, F., & Dutton D. (2007). "Women who perpetrate intimate partner violence: A review of the literature with recommendations for treatment". *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 12 (1), 108–15.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention NISVS. (2017). Overview. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Chan, K. L. (2011). Gender differences in self-reports of intimate partner violence: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 16(2), 167-175. Elsevier.

Cook, D., Burton, M. & Robinson, A. (2006). *Enhancing "Safety and Justice": The Role of Specialist Domestic Violence Courts in England and Wales*. British Society of Criminology:7 (008).

Cook, D., Burton, M., Robinson, A & Vallely, C. (2004). *Evaluation of Specialist Domestic Violence Courts/ Fast Track Systems*. London: Crown Prosecution Service and Department of Constitutional Affairs. Available online at:

<http://www.cps.gov.uk/publications/docs/specialistdvcourts.pdf>

Dalal, K., Rahman, F., & Jansson, B. (2009). Wife abuse in rural Bangladesh. *J. Biosocial Science*; 41(5), 561-73.

Dixon, L. & Browne, K.D. (2003). The heterogeneity of spouse abuse: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 8(1), 107-130.

Dobash, R. P., Dobash, R. E., Wilson, M., & Daly, M. (1992). The myth of sexual symmetry in marital violence. *Social Problems*, 39(1), 71–91.

Domestic Violence Prevention Unit (2000). *Best practice model for the provision of programs for perpetrators of domestic violence in Western Australia*. Western Australia: Domestic Violence Prevention Unit.

Douglas, E. M., Hines, D. A & McCarthy, S. C (2012). Men Who Sustain Female-to-Male Partner Violence: Factors Associated with Where They Seek Help and How They Rate Those Resources. *Violence and Victims*, 27(6), 871–894.

Drijber, B. C., Reijnders, U. J. L., & Ceelen, M. (2013). Male victims of domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28(2), 173–178.

Dutton, D. G. (2002). *The abusive personality: Violence and control in abusive relationships*. (2nd Edition) New York: Guilford.

Dutton, D. G. (1998). *The domestic assault of women: Psychological and criminal justice perspectives*. Vancouver, BC: UBC Press.

Dutton D.G. Nicholls T.L. (2005). “The gender paradigm in domestic violence research and theory: Part 1—the conflict of theory and data”. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 10 (6), 680–714.

Ehrensaft, M. K., Cohen, P., Brown, J., Smailes, E., Chen, H., & Johnson, J. G. (2003). Intergenerational transmission of partner violence: A 20-year prospective study. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 71, 741-753.

European Commission, International day against violence against women 2015, http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_STATEMENT-15-6149_en.htm

European Commission, Strategy for Equality between women and men, 2010-2015, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legalcontent/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52010DC0491&from=EN>

European Commission, Mutual Learning Programme in Gender Equality, http://ec.europa.eu/justice/genderequality/files/exchange_of_good_practice_uk/summary_report_uk_2012_en.pdf

Felson, R. B. (2002). *Law and public policy. Violence and gender reexamined*. American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10470-000>.

Fiebert, M. S. (2004). References examining assaults by women on their spouses or male partners: An annotated bibliography. *Sexuality and Culture*, 8(3–4), 140–176. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-004-1001-6>

Fiebert, M. S. (2013). References Examining Assaults by Women on Their Spouses or Male Partners: An Updated Annotated Bibliography. *Sexuality & Culture*, 18(2), 405–467. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-013-9194-1>

European Institute for Gender Equality. (2015). *Gender equality index 2015: measuring gender equality in the European Union 2005-2012: report*. Place Of Publication Unknown European Institute For Gender Equality.

George, M. J. (2003). Invisible touch. *Aggression & Violent Behavior*, 8, 23-60.

George, M. J. (1999). A victimization survey of female-perpetrated assaults in the United Kingdom. *Aggressive Behavior*, 25(1), 67–79

Gracia, E., Marisol, L., & European Commission. (2015). *Attitudes towards violence against women in the EU*. Publications Office of the European Union. http://ec.europa.eu/justice/genderequality/files/documents/151125_attitudes_enege_report_en.pdf

Green, K., & Browne, K. D. (2020). Personality disorder Traits, Trauma and risk in perpetrators of domestic violence. *International journal of offender therapy and comparative criminology*, 64 (2/3), 147-166.

Green, K., Browne, K.D. & Chou, S. (2019). The relationship between childhood maltreatment and violence to others in individuals with psychosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 20 (3), 358 – 373.

Hagemann-White, C. (2001) European Research on the Prevalence of Violence Against Women. *Violence Against Women*, 7(7), 732–759.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/10778010122182712>

Hamberger, L. K., & Hastings, J. E. (1991). Personality correlates of men who batter and non-violent men: Some continuities and discontinuities. *Journal of Family Violence*, 6, 131-147.

Hastie, R. (2001). Problems for judgment and decision making. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 653-683.

Haviland, M., Frye, V., Rajah, V., Thukral, J., & Trinity, M. (2001). The family protection and domestic violence intervention act of 1995: examining the effects of mandatory arrest in New York City. *New York Urban Justice Center*.

Hester, M. (2006) 'Making It through the Criminal Justice System: Attrition and Domestic Violence', *Social Policy and Society*, 5 (1), 79-90.

Hester, M., Westmarland N, N. V., Pearce, J., & Williamson, E. (2008). *Early evaluation of the Domestic Violence, Crime and Victims Act 2004*. Ministry of Justice. <http://www.justice.gov.uk/docs/domestic-violence-report-2004.pdf>

Hester, M., Westmarland, N., Gangoli, G., Wilkinson, M., O'Kelly, C., Kent, A. & Diamond, A. (2006). *Domestic Violence Perpetrators: Identifying Needs to Inform Early Intervention*, Bristol: University of Bristol in association with the Northern Rock Foundation and the Home Office.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (2014) Everyone's business: Improving the police response to domestic abuse. Retrieved from:
<https://www.justiceinspectors.gov.uk/hmic/publications/improving-the-police-response-to-domestic-abuse/>

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (2015) Increasingly everyone's business: A progress report on the police response to domestic abuse. Retrieved from:

<https://www.justiceinspectors.gov.uk/hmic/wp-content/uploads/increasingly-everyones-business-domestic-abuse-progress-report.pdf>

Hines, D. A., & Douglas, E. M. (2010). A closer look at men who sustain intimate terrorism by women. *Partner Abuse*, 1(3), 286–313. <https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.1.3.286>

Hirschel, D., & Buzawa, E. (2002). Understanding the context of dual arrest with directions for future research. *Violence Against Women*, 8(12), 1449–1473.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/107780102237965>

Holt, S., Buckley, H., & Whelan, S. (2008). The impact of exposure to domestic violence on children and young people: A review of the literature. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 32, 797-810.

Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Bates, L., Smutzler, N., & Sandin, E. (1997). A brief review of the research on husband violence: I. Maritally violent versus nonviolent men. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 2(1), 65–99. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789\(96\)00015-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(96)00015-8)

Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Meehan, J. C., Herron, K., Rehman, U., & Stuart, G. L. (2000). “Testing the Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994). Batterer typology”. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 68 (6), 1000–1019.

Holtzworth-Munroe, A. & Stuart, G.L. (1994). Typologies of male batterers: Three subtypes and the differences among them. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116, 476-497.

Home Office. (2013). Information for Local Areas on the change to the definition of domestic violence and abuse. <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/new-definition-of-domestic-violence>

Jaffe, P.G., Wolfe, D.A., & Wilson, S. K. (1990). *Children of Battered Women*. Beverley Hills, CA: Sage. 132pp.

Jewkes R, Levin J., & Penn-Kekana, L. (2002). Risk factors for domestic violence: findings from a South African cross-sectional study. *Social Science & medicine*, 55(9), 1603-1617.

Jones, D. A., & Belknap, J. (1999). Police Responses to Battering in a Pro-Arrest Jurisdiction. *Justice Quarterly*, 16, 249-273

Jones, R.T., Browne, K.D. & Chou, S. (2017). A Critique of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scales-2 (CTS-2), *Aggression & Violent Behavior*, 37, 83-90

Johnson, B. M. (2012). *Utah domestic violence bench book*. Utah State Courts, 1-19.

Johnson, M. P., & Ferraro, K. J. (2000). Research on domestic violence in the 1990s: Making distinctions. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 62(4), 948–963.

Kimmel, M. S. (2002). “Gender Symmetry” in Domestic Violence: A Substantive and Methodological Research Review. *Violence Against Women*, 8(11), 1332–1363.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/107780102237407>

Kimmel, M. S. (2001). Male Victims of Domestic Violence: A Substantive and Methodological Research Review A report to: The Equality Committee of the Department of Education and Science. London: DES.
http://www.ncdsv.org/images/MaleVictimsOfDVaSubstantiveAndMethodologicalResearchReview_2001.pdf

Klevens, J., Simon, T. R. & Chen, J. (2012). Are the perpetrators of violence one and the same: Exploring the co-occurrence of perpetration of physical aggression in the United States. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 27 (10), 1987-2002.

Koenig, M. A., Stephenson, R., Ahmed, S., Jejeebhoy, S. J., & Campbell, J. (2006). Individual and contextual determinants of domestic violence in North India. *American Journal of Pub Health*, 96, 132-8

Kronenberg, J. (2013). A brief early history of women’s shelters and the movement against domestic violence.
<http://www.thebusinessofme.com/a-brief-earlyhistory-of-womens-shelters-and-the-movement-against-domestic-violence/>.

Krug, E. G., Mercy, J. A., Dahlberg, L. L., & Zwi, A. B. (2002). The world report on violence and health. *Lancet*, (London, England), 360(9339), 1083–1088.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(02\)11133-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)11133-0)

Laing, L., & Bobic, N. (2002). *Economic costs of domestic violence*. Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (Australia) & University of New South Wales. Sydney: *Australian Domestic & Family Violence Clearing House*.

http://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/37233/200309110000/www.austdvclearinghouse.unsw.edu.au/PDF%20files/Economic_costs_of_DV.pdf

Lewis, S. F., Travea, L., & Fremouw, W. J. (2002). Characteristics of female perpetrators and victims of dating violence. *Violence & Victims*, 17(5), 593-606.

Liasidis, S. (2006). Summary of the Decisions of the Supreme Court with Comments and Feedback. *Family Law Vol. Iia*, Cyprus (in Greek).

Maidment, S. (1983). Domestic Violence and the Law: The 1976 Act and its Aftermath. *The Sociological Review*, 31(1_suppl), 4–25.

Martin, M. (1997). Double your trouble: Dual arrest in family violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 12(2), 139-157.

McNeely, R. L., Cook, P.W., & Torres, J.B. (2001). Is Domestic Violence a Gender Issue, or a Human Issue? *Journal of Human Behaviour in the Social Environment*, 4, 4, 227-251.

Melton, H. C, & Belknap J. (2003). He hits, she hits: Assessing gender differences and similarities in officially reported intimate partner violence. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 30, 328 -348.

Mercy, J., Dahlberg, L & Zwi, Anthony. (2002). The world report on violence and health. *Lancet*, 360. 1083-8.

Miller., S.L. (2001). The Paradox of Women Arrested for Domestic Violence: Criminal Justice Professionals and Service Providers Respond. *Violence Against Women*, 7(12), 1339–1376.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/10778010122183900>

National Coalition Against Domestic Violence - NCADV (2015). Domestic violence national statistics. https://assets.speakcdn.com/assets/2497/domestic_violence2.pdf

Nicholls, T. L., & Dutton, D. G. (2001). Abuse committed by women against male intimates. *Journal of Couples Therapy*, 10, 41 – 57

Nicklas, E & Mackenzie, M. (2013). Intimate Partner Violence and Risk for Child Neglect during Early Childhood in a Community Sample of Fragile Families. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28, 17–29.

Obessi, P. (2008). Legal Protection against Domestic Violence in Greece. *International Journal of Caring Sciences*, 1(1), 7–14.

Office for National Statistics. (2016). *Crime Survey for England and Wales, 2014-2015*. UK Data Service. SN: 7889, <http://doi.org/10.5255/UKDA-SN-7889-1>

Office for National Statistics. (2019). *Crime Survey for England and Wales, 1996-2018: Secure Access*. [data collection]. 8th Edition. UK Data Service. SN: 7280. <http://doi.org/10.5255/UKDA-SN-7280-8>

Olive, P. (2007). Care of emergency department patients who experienced domestic violence: a review of the evidence base. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 16, 1736-1748.

Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (2003). *Domestic violence: Working with men phase one meta-evaluation report*. Barton: Australia: Office of the Status of Women.

Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (2000). *Case study 2: prevention and perpetrator programmes*. Retrieved from: www.padv.dpmc.gov.au/oswpdf/CS24.pdf

Pleck, E. (1987). *Domestic tyranny: The making of family policy against family violence from Colonial times to present*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Pleck, E., Pleck, J. H., Grossman, M., & Bart, P. B. (1978). The battered data syndrome: A comment on Steinmetz's article. *Victimology: An International Journal*, 2, 680-683.

Schneider, E. M. (2000). *Battered women and feminist law making*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Shuler, C. A. (2010). Male Victims of Intimate Partner Violence in the United States: An Examination of the Review of Literature through the Critical Theoretical Perspective. *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences*, 5 (1), 163-173.

Smith, S. G., Basile, K. C., Gilbert, L. K., Merrick, Melissa T., Patel, N., Walling, M., & Jain, A. (2017). *National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS): 2010-2012 state report*. Atlanta, GA: National Centre for Injury Prevention and Control; Center for Disease Control and Prevention.

Smith, S.G., Zhang, X., Basile, K.C., Merrick, M.T., Wang, J., Kresnow, & M., Chen, J. (2018). *The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS): 2015 Data Brief – Updated Release*. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control; Center for Disease Control and Prevention.

Straus, M. A. (2006). Dominance and symmetry in partner violence by male and female university students in 32 nations. Paper presented at the Conference on ‘Trends in intimate violence intervention’ University of York, 2006. York, UK.

Straus, M. A. (1999). The controversy over domestic violence by women: A methodological, theoretical, and sociology of science analysis. Paper presented at the Claremont Symposium on Applied Social Psychology, Feb, 1998. Claremont Graduate University, Claremont, CA.

Straus, M. A. & Gelles, R. J. (1986). Societal change and change in family violence from 1975-1985 as revealed by two national surveys. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 48, 465-479.

Tjaden, P, & Thoennes N. (2000). *Prevalence, incidence, and consequences of violence against women: Findings from the national violence against women survey*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.

Tokus, B., Ekuklu G., & Avcioglu S., (2010). Domestic violence against married women in Edirne. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*; 25(5), 832-47.

Tsui, V., (2014). Male Victims of Intimate Partner Abuse: Use and Helpfulness of Services, *Social Work*, 59 (2), 121–130.

UK Government (1976). *Domestic Violence and Matrimonial Proceedings Act 1976*. London: HMSO

Vivian, D., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1994). "Are Bi-directionality Violent Couples Mutually Victimized? A Gender-sensitive Comparison". *Violence and Victims*, 9 (2), 107–123.

Wallace, R. (2014). Identifying potential challenges to providing emergency advocacy services to male victims of intimate partner violence. *Partner Abuse*, 5 (1), 58-68.

Whale, K., Green, K., & Browne, K. D. (2019) Attachment Style, Psychotic Phenomena and the Relationship with Aggression: An Investigation in a Non-Clinical Sample. *Journal of Aggression, conflict and peace research*, 11 (1), 47-58.

Widom, C. S. (1989). The cycle of violence. *Science*, 244(4901), 160–166.
<https://doi.org/10.1126/science.2704995>

Widom, C. S. (1989). Does violence beget violence? A critical examination of the literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, 106(1), 3–28. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.106.1.3>

World Health Organisation (2013). Responding to intimate partner violence and sexual violence against women: *WHO Clinical and policy guides*. Geneva: WHO Headquarters

World Health Organization. (2002). *WHO gender policy: Integrating gender perspectives in the work of WHO*. Geneva: WHO Headquarters. <https://www.who.int/gender-equity-rights/knowledge/a78322/en/>

Xu, J.Q., Kochanek, K.D., Murphy, S.L., & Tejada-Vera, B. (2006). Deaths: Final data for 2006. *National Vital Statistics Reports*, 58 (19), 1-117.

Young, C. (1998). Domestic violations. *Reason*, 29(9), 24-31. Online at: <http://reason.com/9802/fe.young.shtml>.

References Chapter 2

Andrews, R. & Johnston M. K. (2013): Representative Bureaucracy, Gender, And Policing: The Case of Domestic Violence Arrests in England. *Public Administration*, 91(4), 998–1014.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/padm.12002>

Apsler, R., Cummins, M. R., & Carl, S. (2003). Perceptions of the Police by Female Victims of Domestic Partner Violence. *Violence Against Women*, 9(11), 1318–1335.

Archer, J. (2000). "Sex differences in aggression between heterosexual partners: a meta-analytic review". *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(5), 651–680.

Baumer, E. P., Felson, R. B., & Messner, S. F. (2003). Changes in police notification for rape, 1973-2000. *Criminology*, 41(3), 841-870.
<http://www.ncjrs.gov/App/publications/abstract.aspx?ID=204619>

Bechtel, K. A., Alarid, L. F., Holsinger, A., & Holsinger, K. (2012). Predictors of domestic violence prosecution in a state court. *Victims & offenders*, 7(2), 143-160.

Berk, R. A., Berk, S. F., Loseke, D. R., and Rauma, D. (1983). Mutual combat and other family violence myths. In Finkelhor, D., Gelles, R. J., Hotaling, G. T., and Straus, M. A. (eds.), *The Dark Side of Families: Current Family Violence Research*, Sage, Beverly Hills, pp. 197–212.

Boivin, R., & Leclerc, C. (2016). Domestic violence reported to the police: Correlates of victims' reporting behaviour and support to legal proceedings. *Violence and Victims* 31(3), 402–415.

Boxall, H. Rosevear, L., & Payne, J. (2015). Domestic violence typologies: What value to practice?. *Trends & issues in crime and criminal justice no. 494*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. <https://aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/tandi494>

Browne, A. (1995). Fear and the perception of alternatives: asking “why battered women don't leave” is the wrong question. In B. Price and N. Sokoloff (Eds.), *The criminal justice system and women* (2nd ed., pp. 228-245). New York: McGraw Hill

Browne, A & Williams, K. R. (1989). Exploring the effect of resource availability and the likelihood of female-perpetrated homicides. *Law and Society Review*, 23 (1), 75–94.
[doi:10.2307/3053881](https://doi.org/10.2307/3053881). [JSTOR 3053881](https://www.jstor.org/stable/3053881).

Browne, K.D. (1998) Channel 4 TV Dispatches: Battered Men Survey.

www.dewar4research.org/docs/bms1.pdf

Browne, K.D. & Hamilton C.E. (1999). Police Recognition of Links between Spouse Abuse and Child Abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 4 (2), 136-147.

Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997). *Preventing Family Violence*. Chichester; Wiley.

Browne, K.D. & Hamilton, C. (1998). Physical Violence between Young Adults and their Parents: Associations with a History of Child Maltreatment. *Journal of Family Violence*, 13 (1), 57-79.

Browne, S. F. (1980). Analysis of a Battered Women Population. *Denver, CO: Denver Anti-Crime Council*.

Bui, HN. (2001). Domestic violence victims' behavior in favor of prosecution: Effects of gender relations. *Women & Criminal Justice*, 12(4), 51-76

Buzawa, E. S. & Austin, T. (1993). Determining Police Response to Domestic Violence Victims: The Role of Victim Preference. *The American Behavioral Scientist*, 36(5), 610.

Buzawa, E., & Hotaling, G. (2000). The police response to domestic violence calls for assistance in three Massachusetts towns: Final report. *Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice*.

Cavanaugh M.M., & Gelles, R.J. (2005). The utility of male domestic violence offender typologies: new directions for research, policy, and practice. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 20(2),155-66.

Capaldi, D. M., & Kim, H. K. (2007). Typological approaches to violence in couples: A critique and alternative conceptual approach. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 27(3), 253-265.

Centre for Children and Families in the Justice System (1991). Wife assault as a crime: The perspectives of victims and police officers on a charging policy in London, Ontario from 1980-1990. Ottawa: Department of Justice Canada.

Cerulli, C., Kothari, C. L., Dichter, M., Marcus, S., Wiley, J., & Rhodes, K. V. (2014). Victim Participation in Intimate Partner Violence Prosecution: Implications for Safety. *Violence Against Women*, 20(5), 539-560. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801214535105>

Cho, H., & Wilke, D., J. (2010): Gender differences in the nature of the intimate partner violence and effects of perpetrator arrest on re-victimization. *Journal of Family Violence*, Vol.25(4), pp. 393-400.

Coorey L. (1988). Domestic violence and the police: Who is being protected? A rural Australian view (Master's thesis). Sydney: University of Sydney.

Cormier, N. & Woodworth, M.T. (2008) Do You See What I See? The Influence of Gender Stereotypes on Student and Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) Perceptions of Violent Same-Sex and Opposite-Sex Relationships, *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 17(4), 478-505.

Crime Survey for England and Wales, Office for National Statistics (2018). Domestic abuse in England and Wales: year ending March 2018. London: Central Statistics Office.

Cussen, T., & Lyneham, M. (2012). ACT Family Violence Intervention Program review. *Technical and background paper series no. 52. Canberra: AIC.*
<https://aic.gov.au/publications/tbp/tbp052>

Dagnall, J. (2008) *Female-on-male domestic abuse: Treatment by public services and help available to male victims*. (Dissertation Liverpool John Moores University).

Durfee, A., & Messing, J. T. (2012). Characteristics Related to Protection Order Use Among Victims of Intimate Partner Violence. *Violence Against Women*, 18(6), 701–710.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801212454256>

Dawson, M., & Hotton, T. (2014). Police charging practices for incidents of intimate partner violence in Canada. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 51(5), 655–683.

Dawson, M., & Hotton, T. (2014): Police Charging Practices for Incidents of Intimate Partner Violence in Canada. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 51(5), 655-683.

Dempsey, B. (2013): Men's experience of domestic abuse in Scotland. What we know and how we can know more. *AMIS (Abused Men in Scotland)*. <https://www.abusedmeninscotland.org › final-what-we-know-litrev-june-2013>

Dixon, L. & Browne, K., D. (2003). The heterogeneity of spouse abuse: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 8(1), 107-130.

Dixon, L. & Browne, K.D. (2006). The heterogeneity of family violence and its implications for practice. *Issues in Forensic Psychology*, 6, 116-124.

Dixon, L., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C.E., Browne, K.D. & Ostapuk, E. (2007). The co-occurrence of child and intimate partner maltreatment in the family: Characteristics of the violent perpetrators. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22(8), 675-689.

Dixon, L., Browne, K.D., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. & Ostipuk, E. (2010). Differentiating patterns of aggression in the family. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research*, 2(1), 32-44.

Dobash, R. E., & Dobash, R. (1979). *Violence against wives: A case against the patriarchy* (pp. 179-206). New York: Free Press.

Department of Justice Violence Against Women Office (2002). Letter from the Delaware Domestic Violence Coordinating Council to David Burroughs, 9th October 2002. <http://www.menshealthnetwork.org/library/VAWArejectDel1002.pdf>

Donovan, C., Hester, M., Holmes, J. & Mc Carry, M. (2006). *Comparing Domestic Abuse in Same Sex Relationships*. P.23 Bristol: University of Bristol

Durfee, A. (2012): Situational Ambiguity and Gendered Patterns of Arrest for Intimate Partner Violence. *Violence Against Women*, 18(1), 64–84.

Drijber, B., Reijnders, U., & Ceelen, M. (2013). 'Male Victims of Domestic Violence'. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28(2), 173-178.

Edwards S. (1991) Policing 'Domestic Violence'. In: Abbott P., Wallace C. (eds) *Gender, Power and Sexuality. Explorations in Sociology*, pp 133-156. Palgrave Macmillan, London

Fiebert, M. S., & Gonzalez, D., M. (1997). Women who initiate assaults: The reasons offered for such behavior,' *Psychological Reports*, 80,583-90.

Finn, M. A. Blackwell, S., Stalans, L. J., Studdard, L. & Dugan S. (2004): Dual Arrest Decisions in Domestic Violence Cases: The Influence of Departmental Policies. *Crime & Delinquency*, 50 (4), 565-589.

Finn, M. A. & Bettis, P. (2006). Punitive Action or Gentle Persuasion. Exploring Police Officers' Justifications for Using Dual Arrest in Domestic Violence Cases: *Violence Against Women* 12 (3), 268-287.

Finn, M. A., & Stalan, L. J. S. (1997): The Influence of Gender and Mental State on Police Decisions in Domestic Assault Cases. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 24 (2), 157-176.

Frieze, I. (2000). "Violence in close relationships development of a research area: Comment on Archer". *Psychological Bulletin*. 126 (5), 681–684.

Frierson, D., T. (2014). *The Fear of Being Judged: African American Gay Men and Intimate Partner Violence: a qualitative study*. Washington DC: PhD thesis Howard University, 2014.

Gadd, D. (2002). Masculinities and violence against female partners. *Social & Legal Studies*, 11(1), 61-80. <https://doi.org/10.1177/096466390201100103>

Gadd, D., Farrall, S., Dallimore, D., & Lombard, N. (2002). *Domestic Abuse Against Men in Scotland*. Scottish Executive Central Research Unit.
<http://www.gov.scot/Resource/Doc/46737/0030602.pdf>

Gelles, R. J., & Loseke, D. R. Eds. (1993). *Current Controversies on Family Violence*. Newbury Park, Sage.

Gelles, R.J. (1980). Violence in the Family: A Review of Research in the Seventies. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 42, 873–885.

Gelles, R. (1972). The Violent Home: A Study of Physical Aggression between Husbands and Wives. *Aggressive Behavior*, 25, 67-79.

Gelles, R. J. & Straus, M. A. (1988). *Intimate Violence: The Causes and Consequences of Abuse in the American Family*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Gillis, J. R., Diamond, S. L., Jebely, P., Orekhovsky, V., Ostovich, E. M., MacIsaac, K., Sagrati, S., & Mandell, D. (2006). Systemic obstacles to battered women's participation in the judicial system: When will the status quo change? *Violence Against Women*, 12, 1150-1168.

Gracia, E. & García, F. (2014): Male police officers' law enforcement preferences in cases of intimate partner violence versus non-intimate interpersonal violence. Do Sexist Attitudes and Empathy Matter? *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 41(10), 1195–1213.

Gracia, E. (2004): Unreported cases of domestic violence against women: towards an epidemiology of social silence, tolerance, and inhibition. *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health*, 58, 536-537.

Hamilton, M. & Worthen, Meredith G., F. (2011). Sex Disparities in Arrest Outcomes for Domestic Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 26(8), 1559– 1578.

Hare SC. (2006). What do battered women want? Victim's opinions on prosecution. *Violence and Victims*, 21(5), 611–628.

Hartley, C. C., & Frohmann, L. (2003). *Cook county target Abuser Call (TAC): An evaluation of a specialized domestic violence court*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.

Heeks, M., Reed, S., Tafisiri, M. & Prince, S. (2018). *The Economic and Social Costs of Crime*. London: Home Office.

Hester, M. (2013): Who does what to whom? Gender and domestic violence perpetrators in English police records. *European Journal of Criminology*, 10(5), 623–637

Hines. D. A, & Douglas. E.M. (2009). Women's Use of Intimate Partner Violence against Men: Prevalence, Implications, and Consequences, *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 18:6, 572-586, DOI: [10.1080/10926770903103099](https://doi.org/10.1080/10926770903103099)

Hines, D. A., Brown, J. & Dunning, E. (2007). Characteristics of Callers to the Domestic Abuse Helpline for Men. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 63–72, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-006-9052-0>

Hines, D.A., Brown, J. & Dunning, E. Characteristics of Callers to the Domestic Abuse Helpline for Men. *J Fam Viol* 22, 63–72 (2007). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-006-9052-0>

Hogan, K. (2016) *Men's experiences of female-perpetrated intimate partner violence: A qualitative exploration*. (D.Couns.Psych. Thesis, University of the West of England.

Hogan, K. F., Hegarty, J. R., Ward, T., & Dodd, L. J. (2012). Counsellors' experiences of working with male victims of female-perpetrated domestic abuse. *Counselling & Psychotherapy Research*, 12(1), 44-52.

Homant, R., J. & Kennedy, D., B. (1985): Police Perceptions of Spouse Abuse: A Comparison of Male And Female Officers. *Journal of Criminal Justice*. 13, 29-47.

Home Office. (2013). Information for Local Areas on the change to the definition of domestic violence and abuse. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/definition-of-domestic-violence-and-abuse-guide-for-local-areas>

House of Commons (2018). Domestic violence in England and Wales. <https://commonslibrary.parliament.uk/research-briefings/sn06337/>

Huss, M., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2000). The identification of the psychopathic batterer: The clinical, legal and policy implications. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 5(4), 403–422.

Johnson, M. P., & Ferraro, K. J. (2000). Research on domestic violence in the 1990s: Making distinctions. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 62(4), 948–963. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.00948.x>

Johnson, M. P. (2006a). "Conflict and Control: Gender Symmetry and Asymmetry in Domestic Violence". *Violence Against Women*, 12(11), 1003–1018.

Johnson, M. P. (2006b). Violence and abuse in personal relationships: Conflict, terror, and resistance in intimate partnerships. In A. L. Vangelisti & D. Perlman (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of personal relationships* (pp. 557–576). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Johnson, M. (1995), 'Patriarchal terrorism and common couple violence: Two forms of violence against women', *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57, 283-294.
- Johnston, J. & Campbell, L. (1993). A clinical typology of interparental violence in disputed-custody divorces. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 63(2), 190–199.
- Kelly, J., & Johnson, M. (2008). Differentiation among types of intimate partner violence: Research update and implications for interventions. *Family Court Review*, 46(3), 476–499.
- Kernsmith, P.(2005). Exerting power or striking back: A gendered comparison of motivations for domestic violence perpetration. *Violence and Victims*, 20(2),173–185.
- Kingsnorth RF, MacIntosh RC, Berdahl T, Blades C & Rossi S. (2001). Domestic violence: The role of interracial/ethnic dyads in criminal court processing. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 17(2), 123–141.
- Kingsnorth RF & MacIntosh RC. (2004). Domestic violence: predictors of victim support for official action. *Justice Quarterly*, 21(2), 302–328.
- Knowles, J.N. (1996). *Police Culture and the Handling of Domestic Violence: an urban/rural Comparison*. Criminology Research Advisory Council, Canberra.
- LaFree, G. D. (1981). Official reactions to social problems: Police decisions in sexual assault cases. *Social problems*, 28(5), 582-594. <https://doi.org/10.2307/800232>
- Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., Neidig, P., & Thorn, G. (1995). Violent marriages: Gender differences in levels of current violence and past abuse. *Journal of Family Violence*, 10(2), 159–176. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02110598>
- Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2005). Top 10 Greatest "Hits": Important Findings and Future Directions for Intimate Partner Violence Research. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 20(1), 108–118. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260504268602>
- Lambert, K. (2010) '*Broken Men Break the Silence*': *Male Domestic Violence Victims and Their Struggle to be Heard*. BSc dissertation Sheffield Hallam University.
- Lawrence, S. (2003). Domestic violence and men. *Nursing standard*, 17(40), 41-44.

- Lee, J., Zhang, Y., & Hoover, T.L. (2013). Police response to domestic violence: multilevel factors of arrest decision. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 36(1), 157-174. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13639511311302524>
- Lewis R., Dobash R.P., Dobash R.E., & Cavanagh K. (2000) Protection, Prevention, Rehabilitation or Justice? Women's Use of the Law to Challenge Domestic Abuse. *International Review of Victimology* 7, 170–205
- Lila, M., Gracia, E., & Murgui, S. (2013). Psychological adjustment and victim-blaming among intimate partner violence offenders: The role of social support and stressful life events. *The European journal of psychology applied to legal context*, 5(2), 147-153.
- Logan, T. K., Shannon, L., & Walker, R. (2006). Police Attitudes Toward Domestic Violence Offenders. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 21(10), 1365–1374. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260506291653>
- Lohr, Jeffrey M., Bonge, D., Witte, Tricia, H., Hamberger, L. Kevin., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2005). Consistency and accuracy of batterer typology identification. *Journal of Domestic Violence*, 20(4), 253–258
- MacQueen, S., & Norris, P. A. (2016) Police awareness and involvement in cases of domestic and partner abuse. *Policing and Society*, 26(1), 55-76.
- McPhedran, S., Gover, R. & Mazerolle, P. (2017) A cross-national comparison of police attitudes about domestic violence: a focus on gender. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 40(2), 214-227.
- Millar, P., & Brown, G. (2010). Explaining gender differences in police arresting and charging behavior in cases of spousal violence. *Partner abuse*, 1(3), 314-331.
- Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tetzlaff, J., Altman, D. G., & PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *PLoS medicine*, 6(7), e1000097. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1000097>
- Muftić, R. & Cruze, J. R. (2014): The Laws Have Changed, But What About the Police? Policing Domestic Violence in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Violence against Women*, 20(6), 695–715.

Muir J & LeClaire D. (1984). *A police response to domestic assaults*. Ottawa: Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.

Muller, H. J., Desmarais, S. L., & Hamel, J. M. (2009). Do judicial responses to restraining order requests discriminate against male victims of domestic violence? *Journal of Family Violence*, 24(8), 625–637. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-009-9261-4>

NSW Ombudsman (2006). *Domestic violence: Improving police practice*. Sydney: NSW Ombudsman.

O'Leary, K. D. (2000). Are women really more aggressive than men in intimate relationships? Comment on Archer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(5), 685–689. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.5.685>

Phillips, S. W., & Gillham, J. (2010). Policing domestic violence: The significance of charging in the post-arrest decision making of police officers. *Partner Abuse*, 1(2), 200–219

Phillips S.W. & Varano S.P. (2008). Police criminal charging decisions: An examination of post-arrest decision-making. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 36, 307–315.

Pleck, E. (1987). *Domestic tyranny : the making of social policy against family violence from colonial times to the present*. New York: Oxford university press.

Poteyeva, M., & Sun, I.Y. (2009): Gender differences in police officers' attitudes: Assessing current empirical evidence. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 37(5), 512-522.

Roark, J. (2016). Predictors of dual arrest for offenders involved in heterosexual domestic violence arrests. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 39(1), 52-63.

Roberts, A. R., and Kurst-Swanger, K. (2002). Police responses to battered women: Past, present, and future. In Roberts, A. R. (ed.), *Handbook of Domestic Violence Intervention Strategies: Policies, Programs, and Legal Remedies* (pp. 101–126). New York: Oxford University Press.

- Romain, D. M., & Freiburger, T. L. (2016). Chivalry Revisited: Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Offense Type on Domestic Violence Charge Reduction. *Feminist Criminology*, 11(2), 191–222. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1557085115580389>
- Simmons, J., Brüggemann, A. J., & Swahnberg, K. (2016). Disclosing victimisation to healthcare professionals in Sweden: a constructivist grounded theory study of experiences among men exposed to interpersonal violence. *BMJ open*, 6(6), e010847. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2015-010847>
- Stalans, L. J., & Finn, M. A. (2006). Public's and Police Officers' Interpretation and Handling of Domestic Violence Cases: Divergent Realities. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 21(9), 1129–1155. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260506290420>
- Stanko, E. A. (1989). Improving policing for women: The way forward. In J. Hanmer, J. Radford & E. A. Stanko (Eds.), *Policing and male violence: International perspectives* (pp. 185-201). London: Macmillan.
- Straus, M.Z., and Gelles, R.J. (1990). *Physical Violence in American Families: Risk Factors and Adaptations to Family Violence in 8,145 Families*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
- Straus, M. A. (1997). Domestic violence: are women as likely as men to initiate physical assaults in partner relationships - YES: "Physical assaults by women partners: a major social problem. In Walsh, M.R (1996), *Women, men and gender: ongoing debates* (p.219). New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Stewart, A., & Maddren, K. (1997). Police officers' judgements of blame in family violence: The impact of gender and alcohol. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 37(11-12), 921–933. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02936347>,
- Stitt, S., & Macklin, A. (1995). *Battered Husbands: The Hidden Victims of Domestic Violence*. A Research Monograph JMU Consumer Research. Liverpool John Moores University.
- Storey, J, E., & Strand, S. (2017): The Influence of Victim Vulnerability and Gender on Police Officers' Assessment of Intimate Partner Violence Risk. *Journal of Family Violence*; 32,125–134.

Sun, I. Y. & Chu, D.C. (2010): Who is better for handling domestic violence? A comparison between Taiwanese female and male Officers. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38, 453–459.

Sun, I.Y. (2007): Policing domestic violence: Does officer gender matter? *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 35, 581–595.

Truc-Nhu, Ho. (2003): The Influence of Suspect Gender in Domestic Violence Arrests. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 27(2), 183–195

<https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02885693>

Tsui, V., Cheung, M., & Leung, P. (2010). Help-seeking among male victims of partner abuse: men's hard times. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 38, 769–80.

Vivian, D., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1994). Are bi-directionality violent couples mutually victimized? A gender-sensitive comparison. *Violence & Victims*, 9 (2), 107–124.

WA Department of Justice and WA Police Service. (2002). *Journal of Family Violence Court*, Final report. Perth: Government of WA.

Walby, S. (2009) The Cost of Domestic Violence - Up-date 2009. Lancaster University. www.lancs.ac.uk/fass/doc_library/sociology/Cost_of_domestic_violence_update.doc

Wareham M. (1993). Police response to family violence in Victoria. Paper presented at the Second National Conference on Violence. Australian Institute of Criminology. Canberra, 1993.

Weisz, A. N., Black, B. M., & Nahan, N. (2005). Precinct domestic violence teams: Whose goals should determine program activities? *Journal of Family Social, Work*, 9, 57-75.

Wright, S. (1998). Policing domestic violence: A Nottingham case-study. *Journal of Social Welfare and Family Law*, 20(4), 397–408.

Worrall, J. L. Ross, J. W. & McCord, E. S. (2006): Modelling Prosecutors' Charging Decisions in Domestic Violence Cases. *Crime & Delinquency*, 52(3), 472-503.

<http://doi:10.1177/0011128705282496>

Yan, L., Zhang, J., & Hoover, L. T. (2013): Police response to domestic violence: Multilevel factors of arrest decision. *Policing and International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 36(1). <http://doi:10.1108/13639511311302524>

Young, C. (2005). Domestic violence: An in-depth analysis. *Independent Women's Forum Position paper*, 504, 8.

Young, K. (1998). "Domestic Violations," *Reason*, February 1998.
<http://reason.com/9802/fe.young.shtml>.

References chapter 3

- Antonopoulou, C. (1999). Domestic violence in Greece. *American Psychologist*, 54(1), 63–64.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.54.1.63>
- Artinopoulou, V. (2006) *Women's abuse within the family*, Nomiki Bibliothiki Athens.
- Browne, K.D. (1998) Channel 4 TV Dispatches: Battered Men Survey.
www.dewar4research.org/docs/bms1.pdf
- Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997) *Preventing Family Violence*, Chichester; Wiley.
- Browne, K.D. & Hamilton C.E. (1999). Police Recognition of Links between Spouse Abuse and Child Abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 4 (2), 136-147.
- Buzawa, E. & Austin, T. (1993). Determining police response to domestic violence victims. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 36, 610–623.
- Buzawa, E. & Hotaling, G. (2000). ‘*The Police Response to Domestic violence calls assistance in three Massachusetts towns: Final Report*’. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.
- Canadian Centre for Law and Democracy (2018). A Synthesis Report on the Freedom of Information Advocates Network (FOIANet) Methodology. Halifax NS:
<https://www.law-democracy.org/live/>.
- Capaldi, D. M., & Kim, H. K. (2007). Typological approaches to violence in couples: A critique and alternative conceptual approach. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 27(3), 253-265.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2006.09.001>
- Cavanaugh, M. & Gelles, R. (2005). The utility of male domestic violence offender typologies: New directions for research, policy and practice. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 20(2): 155–166.
- Carlson, B. & Worden, A. (2005) ‘Attitudes and beliefs about domestic violence: Results of a public opinion survey 1: Definitions of domestic violence, Criminal domestic violence, and prevalence’ *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 20(10), 1197-1218.

Chatzifotiou, S., Fotou, E., & Moisides, I. (2014). Best Practices in Police Handling and Liaisons with Social Services Workers in Domestic Violence Incidents. *Social Cohesion and Development*, 9(2), 133–142.

Chatzifotiou, S. (2005). *Domestic violence against Women and Children*, 1st edn. Thessaloniki: Tziolas Publications

Chatzifotiou, S. & Dobash, R. (2001). 'Seeking informal support for marital violence against women in Greece.' *Violence against Women*, 7(9), 1024–1050.

Chesney-Lind M (1997): *Female Offender: Girls, Women, and Crime.*: From the series "Women and the Criminal Justice System." Sage Publications, United States of America.
<https://www.ncjrs.gov/App/Publications/abstract.aspx?ID=166254>

Dempsey, B. (2013). *Men's Experience of Domestic Abuse in Scotland*. Edinburgh: AMIS.

Dixon, L. & Browne, K.D. (2003). The heterogeneity of spouse abuse: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, 8(1), 107-130.

Dixon, L. & Browne, K.D. (2006). The heterogeneity of family violence and its implications for practice. *Issues in Forensic Psychology*, 6, 116-124.

Dixon, L., Hamilton-Giachritsis C.E., Browne, K.D., & Ostapuk, E. (2007). The co-occurrence of child and domestic maltreatment in the family: Characteristics of the violent perpetrators. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22(8), 675-689.

Dixon, L., Browne, K.D., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C., & Ostapuk, E. (2010). Differentiating patterns of violence in the family. *Journal of Aggression Conflict and Peace Research*, 2, 32-44.

Dobash, R. E&Dobash, R. P. (1979), *Violence against Wives*. New York: The Free Press

Donovan, C. Hester, M. Holmes, J. & McCarry, M. (2006). *Comparing Domestic Abuse in Same Sex Relationships*. University of Bristol <http://womensaidorkney.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/Comparing-Domestic-Abuse-in-Same-Sex-Heterosexual-Relationships.pdf>

- Dougherty, C. (1998). Sowing the seeds of violence: rape, women, and the land. In Maria Wyke (Ed.) *Parchments of gender: Deciphering the bodies of antiquity*. (p.267-284). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Drijber, B., Reijnders, U. & Ceelen, M. (2013). Male Victims of Domestic Violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28, 173-178.
- Durfee, A. (2012) Situational ambiguity and gendered patterns of arrest for intimate partner violence. *Violence Against Women*, 18(1): 64–84.
- Eigenberg, H. M., Kappeler, V. E., & McGuffee, K. (2012). Confronting the complexities of Domestic Violence: A social prescription for rethinking police training. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 12(2), 122-145.
- Felson, R. B. (1996). Big people hit little people: Sex differences in physical power and interpersonal violence. *Criminology*, 34, 433–452.
- Frantzen, D., & San Miguel, C. (2009). Mandatory arrest? Police response to domestic violence victims. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 32(2), 319-337.
- Foster, J & Parker, I. (1995). *Carrying out Investigations in Psychology: Methods and Statistics*. Leicester: British Psychological Society.
- Ferraro, K.J. (1989). Policing Woman Battering. *Social Problems*. 36 (1), 61-74.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/800550>
- Gadd, D. (2002). Masculinities and violence against female partners. *Social & Legal Studies*, 11(1), 61-80. <https://doi.org/10.1177/096466390201100103>
- Gadd, D., Farrall, S., Dallimore, D., & Lombard, N. (2002). *Domestic Abuse Against Men in Scotland*. Scottish Executive Central Research Unit.
<http://www.gov.scot/Resource/Doc/46737/0030602.pdf>
- George, M. J. (1999). A victimization survey of female perpetrated assaults in the UK. (CTS). *Aggressive Behavior*, 25, 67-79.

Hanmer, J., Stanko, E. & Radford, J. (1989). *Women, policing, and male violence : international perspectives*. London: Routledge.

Hines, D. & Douglas, E. (2009). 'Women's use of domestic violence against Men: Prevalence, Implications, and Consequences' *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment and Trauma*, 18, 572-586.

Hines, D. Brown, J. & Dunning, E (2007). 'Characteristics of Callers to the Domestic Abuse Helpline for Men' *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 63-72.

Huss, M. & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2000). The identification of the psychopathic batterer: The clinical, legal and policy implications. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 5(4), 403–422.

Johnston, J. & Campbell, L. (1993). A clinical typology of inter-parental violence in disputed-custody divorces. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 63(2), 190–199.

Johnson, M. P. (2006a). "Conflict and Control: Gender symmetry and asymmetry in domestic violence". *Violence Against Women*, 12 (11), 1003–1018.

Johnson, M. P. (2006b). Violence and abuse in personal relationships: Conflict, terror, and resistance in domestic relationships. In A. L. Vangelisti & D. Perlman (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of personal relationships* (pp. 557–576). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kelly, J. & Johnson, M.P. (2008). Differentiation among types of domestic violence: Research update and implications for interventions. *Family Court Review*, 46(3): 476–499.

Koss, M., Goodman, L., Browne, L., Keita, G., & Russo, N. (1994). *No safe haven: Violence against women at home, work, and the community*, American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.

Kwan, C. (2009) 'Tackling Domestic violence in the UK: Persistent problems' *International Area Review*, 12(1): 17-43.

Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2005). Top 10 greatest "hits": Important findings and future directions for domestic violence research. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 20(1), 108-118.

Langley, R. & Levy, R. (1977). *Wife beating: The silent crisis*. New York: Dutton.

La Violette, A., & Barnett, O. (2000). *It could happen to anyone: Why battered women stay*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Lee, J., Zhang, Y., & Hoover, L. (2012). Police response to domestic violence: Multilevel factors of arrest decision. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 36(1), 157-174.

Lohr, J.M., Bonge, D., Witte, T.H., Hamberger, L.K., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2005). Consistency and accuracy of batterer typology identification. *Journal of Domestic Violence*, 20(4): 253–258.

Mastrofski, S. D., Reisig, M. D., & McCluskey, J. D. (2002). Police disrespect toward the public: An encounter-based analysis. *Criminology*, 40(3), 519–552

McLeod, M. (1984). Women against men: An examination of domestic violence based on an analysis of official data and national victimization data. *Justice Quarterly*, 1, 171–192.

Miller, S.L. (2001) The paradox of women arrested for domestic violence. *Violence Against Women* 7(12), 1339–1376.

Office of National Statistics (2018). Domestic abuse: findings from the Crime Survey for England and Wales: year ending March 2018. London: ONS November 2018. <https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/bulletins/domesticabuseinenglandandwales/yearendingmarch2018>

Petropoulos, N., Fotou, E., Ranjan, S., Chatzifotiou, S. & Dimadi, E. (2016). Domestic violence offenders in Greece. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice*, 10(4), 416–431.

The Scottish Government (2012). Recorded Crime in Scotland 2011-2012. Statistical Bulletin Crime and Justice Series 26 June 2012. Edinburgh: Office of the Chief Statistician and Performance. www.gov.scot/Publications/2012/06/1698

Robinson, A. (2007). Improving the Civil- Criminal Interface for Victims of Domestic Violence. *The Howard Journal*, 46(4), 356-371.

Scottish Office (2000) *Scottish Crime Survey: Overview Report*. Edinburgh: Scottish Office.
www.gov.scot/Publications/2002/05/14407/1405

Siegel, S. & Castellan Jr, N.J. (1989) *Nonparametric statistics for the behavioural sciences*. McGraw-Hill, New York.

Stitt, S., & Macklin, A. (1995). *Battered Husbands: The Hidden Victims of Domestic Violence*. A Research Monograph JMU Consumer Research. Liverpool John Moores University.

Steinmetz, S. K. (1980). Violence prone families. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 347, 351–265.

Straus, M. A. (1993). Physical assaults by wives: A major social problem. In R. J. Gelles & D. R. Loseke (Eds.), *Current controversies on family violence* (pp. 67-87). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sun, I. (2006). Police response to victims of Domestic and non-domestic violence. *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration*, 29(2), 145-172.

Tedeschi, J. T. & Felson, R. B. (1994). *Violence, Aggression and Coercive Actions*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Tzamalouka, G. S., Parlalis, S. K., Soultatou, P., Papadakaki, M., & Chliaoutakis, J. E. (2007). Applying the concept of lifestyle in association with aggression and violence in Greek cohabitating couples. *Journal of Aggressive Behaviour*, 33, 73-85.

United Nations (2018). The United Nations Statistics Division: Overview 49th Session. <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/49th-session/>

United Nations Department of Public Information (2009). *Violence Against Women*-DPI/2546A. http://www.un.org/en/events/endviolenceday/pdf/UNiTE_TheSituation_EN.pdf

White, M. (2007). *Current issues and controversies in policing* (p. 53). Boston, MA: Pearson.

References chapter 4

Barkhuizen, M. (2015). Police reaction to male victim of domestic violence in South Africa: Case study analysis. *Police Practice and Research*, 16(4), 291-302.
<https://doi10.1080/15614263.2015.1038025>

Baker, N. L., Buick, J. D., Kim, S. R., Moniz, S., & Nava, K. L. (2013). Lessons from examining same-sex intimate partner violence. *Sex Roles*, 69, 182–192.

Brogden, M. & Nijhar, S. K. (2004). *Abuse of adult males in intimate partner relationships in Northern Ireland*. Report to the Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister of the Northern Ireland Assembly on behalf of the Northern Ireland Domestic Violence Forum. (NIDVF). Belfast; NIDVF.
<http://www.ofmdfmni.gov.uk/%E2%80%A6lityresearch/relationships.pdf>

Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997) *Preventing Family Violence*, Chichester; Wiley.

Campbell J. C., (2002) “Health consequences of intimate partner violence,” *The Lancet*, 359, (9314), 1331–1336.

Center for Disease Control and Prevention (2015). Intimate partner violence surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements.
<https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/intimatepartnerviolence.pdf>

DeFrancisco, V. & Palczewski, C. (2014) *Gender in communication. A critical introduction*. Second edition. London. Sage.

Dixon, L., Hamilton-Giachritsis C.E., Browne, K.D. & Ostapuk, E. (2007). The co-occurrence of child and domestic maltreatment in the family: Characteristics of the violent perpetrators. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22(8), 675-689.

Drijber, B. C., Reijnders, U. J. L., & Ceelen, M. (2013). Male victims of domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28(2), 173-178.

Douglas, E. M. & Hines, D. A. (2011). The help seeking experiences of men who sustain intimate partner violence: An overlooked population and implications for practice. *Journal of Family Violence*, 26, 473-485. <http://doi10.1007/s10896-011-9382-4>

Douglas, E. M., Hines, D. A., & McCarthy, S. C. (2012). Men who sustain female-to-male partner violence: Factors associated with where they seek help and how they rate those resources. *Violence and Victims*, 27(6), 871-894. <http://doi10.1891/0886-6708.27.6.871>

Dutton, D. G. & White, K. R. (2013) Male Victims of Domestic Violence. *Policing: An International Journal*, 2(1), 5-17.
<http://ukfamilylawreform.co.uk/docs/malevictimsOfDAbydutton2013.pdf>

Dutton, D. (2006). *Rethinking domestic violence*. Vancouver. UBC Press

Dutton, D. (2007). Female intimate partner violence and developmental trajectories of abusive females. *International Journal of Men's Health*, 6(1), 54-70.

Dutton, D. & Nicholls, T. (2005). The gender paradigm in domestic violence research and theory: Part 1 – The conflict of theory and data. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, 10, 680-714.

Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) (2012) The impact of changes in commissioning and funding on women-only services.
http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/sites/default/files/documents/research/rr86_final.pdf

Elliott, P. (1996) Shattering Illusions: Same-Sex Domestic Violence. In Renzetti, C. M. and Miley, C. H. (eds.) *Violence in Gay and Lesbian Domestic Partnerships*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Embassy of the United States in Athens (2013). Information for American Victims of Crime in Greece. <https://www.hrw.org/report/2013/06/12/unwelcome-guests/greek-police-abuses-migrants-athens>

EU Directorate-General for Justice (2016). Domestic Violence against Women Eurobarometer. <http://ec.europa.eu/COMMFrontOffice/PublicOpinion/index.cfm/Chart/getChart/themeKy/18/groupKy/88>

European Institute for Gender Equality (2013). Gender Equality Index — Report. Available at: <http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/Gender-Equality-Index-Report.pdf>

Evans, K. (2016). *The shame of being a male victim of domestic violence*. <http://www.smh.com.au/national/the-shame-of-being-a-male-victim-of-domesticviolence-20160830-gr4hmo.html>

Freedom House. 16 March 2013. "Greece." Freedom in the World 2013. https://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/2020-02/Freedom_in_the_World_2013_complete_book.pdf

George, M. J. & Yarwood, D. J. (2004) Male Domestic Violence Victims Survey 2001: Main findings. <http://www.dewar4research.org/DOCS/mDA.pdf>

Giovanoglou, S. (2015). Greece. In: Dünkel, F., Grzywa-Holten, J., Horsfield, P. (Eds.): Restorative Justice and Mediation in Penal Matters: A stocktaking of legal issues, implementation strategies and outcomes in 36 European countries (p. 331-366). Mönchengladbach: Forum Verlag Godesberg.

Graham-Kevan, N. (2007). Domestic Violence: Research and Implications for Batterer Programmes in Europe. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 13, 213–225.

Government of Greece (2010). Law 3500/2006: On Confronting Domestic Violence and other Provisions. <https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Women/WRGS/GirlsAndDisability/Governments/Greece.pdf>

Hall, R. E. (2012). The surreptitious feminization of domestic violence: An empirical exposé. *Social Work & Social Sciences Review* 16(1), 34-47. <http://doi.org/10.1921/503160104>

Hatty, S. (2000) *Masculinities, violence and culture*. London: Sage.

Hester, M., Williamson, E. & Gangoli, G. (2012). *Exploring the service and support needs of male, lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgendered and black and other minority ethnic victims of domestic and sexual violence. Evidence Assessment (REA)*. London: Home Office. <http://www.bristol.ac.uk/medialibrary/sites/sps/migrated/documents/domesticsexualviolencesupportneeds.pdf>

Hester, M. (2012). Portrayal of Women as Intimate Partner Domestic Violence Perpetrators. *Violence Against Women*, 18(9), 1067–1082. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801212461428>

Hines, D. A., Brown, J. & Dunning, E. (2007). Characteristics of callers to the domestic abuse helpline for men. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 63-72.

Hines, D. A. & Douglas, E. M. (2009). Women's use of intimate partner violence against men: Prevalence, implications, and consequences. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment, & Trauma*, 18, 572-586. <https://doi10.1080/10926770903103099>

Hines, D. A., & Douglas, E. M. (2013). Predicting potentially life-threatening partner violence by women toward men: A preliminary analysis. *Violence and Victims*, 28(5), 751-771. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708>

Home Office (2013). Information for Local Areas on the change to the Definition of Domestic Violence and Abuse. March 2013. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/definition-of-domestic-violence-and-abuse-guide-for-local-areas>

Holt, S., Buckley, H. & Whelan, S. (2008). The impact of exposure to domestic violence on children and young people: a review of the literature. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 32(8), 797–810. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2008.02.004>

Johnson, M. P. (2005). Domestic violence: It's not about gender--or is it? *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(5), 1126–1130. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2005.00204.x>.

Johnson, M. P., & Ferraro, K. J. (2000). Research on domestic violence in the 1990s: Making distinctions. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 62(4), 948–963.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.00948.x>

Josolyne, S. (2011). Men's experiences of violence and abuse from a female intimate partner: Power, masculinity and institutional systems. PhD Thesis.
<http://www.mankind.org.uk/pdfs/Thesis%20Web%20Version%20060412.pdf>

Karaoglu, L., Celbis, O., Ercan, C., Ilgar, M., Pehlivan, E., Gunes, G., Genc, M. F., & Egri, M. (2006). Physical, emotional and sexual violence during pregnancy in Malatya, Turkey. *European journal of public health*, 16(2), 149–156. <https://doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/cki161>

Krug, E.G., Dahlberg, L. L., Mercy, J. A., Zwi, A. & Lozano, R. (2002). The World Report on Violence and Health. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, 368pp.

Kronenberg, J. (2013). A brief early history of women's shelters and the movement against domestic violence.
<http://www.thebusinessofme.com/a-brief-earlyhistory-of-womens-shelters-and-the-movement-against-domestic-violence/>

Mankind (2016). The ManKind Initiative, 4 July 2016. www.mankind.org.uk.

McClennen, J. C., Summers, A. B. & Vaughan, C. (2008). Gay Men's Domestic Violence. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Social Services*, 14(1), 23-49.
http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J041v14n01_02

McHugh, M. C., Rakowski, S., & Swiderski, C. (2013). Men's experience of psychological abuse: Conceptualization and measurement issues. *Sex Roles*, 69, 168-181.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-013-0274-3>

McNeely, R. L., Cook, P. W., & Torres, J. B. (2001). Is domestic violence a gender issue, or a human issue? *Journal of Human Behaviour in the Social Environment*, 4(4), 227-251.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J137v04n04_02

Medina-Ariza, J., & Barberet, R. (2003). Intimate partner violence in Spain: Findings from a national survey. *Violence Against Women*, 9(3), 302-322.

Moore, C. (2015). Story of domestic violence against men is hidden, complicated and disputed.

<http://www.brisbanetimes.com.au/queensland/story-of-domesticviolence-against-men-is-hidden-complicated-and-disputed-20151122-gl55v7.html>

National Coalition Against Domestic Violence - NCAADV (2015). *Domestic violence in Utah*. Salt Lake City; NCAADV. <http://ncadv.org/files/Utah.pdf>

Nicklas, E. & Mackenzie, M. J. (2013). Intimate partner violence and risk for child neglect during early childhood in a community sample of fragile families. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28, 17–29.

Nicholls, T. L., & Dutton, D. G. (2001) Abuse committed by women against male intimate. *Journal of Couples Therapy* 10(1), 41-57. https://doi.org/10.1300/J036v10n01_04

Olive, P. (2007). Care for emergency department patients who have experienced domestic violence: a review of the evidence base. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 16(9), 1736–1748.

Palmetto, N. Davidson, L. Breitbart, V. Rickert, V. (2013) Predictors of physical intimate partner violence in the lives of young women: victimization, perpetration and bidirectional violence. *Violence and Victims*, 28(1): 103-12.

Papadakaki M, Tzamalouka GS, Chatzifotiou S, & Chliaoutakis J. (2009). Seeking for risk factors of Intimate Partner Violence (DV) in a Greek national sample: the role of self-esteem. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 24(5), 732-750.

Parker, I (2015): Victims of domestic abuse: struggling for support? The Citizens Advice service. The National Association of Citizens Advice Bureaux. www.citizensadvice.org.uk

Petroulaki., K. (2012). Awareness Raising Activities to Fight Violence Against Women and Girls. European Anti-Violence Network (EAVN). 7-8 February 2012.

Cited in: Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada, (2014). Greece: Domestic violence, including legislation; state protection and support services available to victims, including non-citizens (GRC104858.E 2009-April 2014). <https://www.refworld.org/docid/53b137394.html>

Robinson, A. L. & Rowlands, J. (2006) The Dyn Project: Supporting Men Experiencing Domestic Abuse.

http://www.cardiff.ac.uk/socsi/resources/Dyn_Final_Evaluation_Report.pdf

Samaritan House (2017). History of Domestic Violence.

<http://www.samaritanhouseva.org/get-informed/domestic-violence/>.

Shuler, C.A. (2010). Male victims of intimate partner violence in the United States: An examination of the review of literature through the critical theoretical perspective.

International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences, 5(1), 163-173.

Straus, M. A., & Gelles, R. J. (1986). Societal change and change in family violence from 1975 to 1985 as revealed by two national surveys. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 48(3), 465-479.

Tzamalouka, G. S., Parlalis, S. K., Soultatou, P., Papadakaki, M., & Chliaoutakis, J. E. (2007). Applying the concept of lifestyle in association with aggression and violence in Greek cohabitating couples. *Journal of Aggressive Behaviour*, 33, 73-85.

Tsui, V. (2014). Male victims of intimate partner abuse: Use and helpfulness of services. *Social Work*, 59(2), 121–130. <https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swu007>.

Tsui, V., Cheung, M., & Leung, P. (2010). Help-seeking among male victims of partner abuse: Men's hard times. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 38(6), 769–780.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20394>

UK Government (2018): *Transforming the Response to Domestic Abuse Government Consultation*. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/consultation-principles-guidance>

United Nations (2018). The United Nations Statistics Division Overview 49th Session. <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/49th-session/>

United Nations (2012). Greece: Reports Submitted by States Parties Under Article 19 of the Convention. Concluding Observations of the Committee against Torture. New York: UN Committee against Torture, 27 June 2012.

United States Department of State (2014). Greece. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 2013*: 27 February 2014.

United States Congress 113,(2013). Violence Against Women's Act. Retrieved from: Washington; USA Government. <https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/BILLS-113s47enr/pdf/BILLS-113s47enr.pdf>

Wallace, R. (2014). Identifying potential challenges to providing emergency advocacy services to male victims of intimate partner violence. *Partner Abuse*, 5 (1), 58-68.

World Health Organization - WHO (2013). Violence against women. Intimate partner and sexual violence against women. Factsheet No. 239. October 2013.

World Health Organization – WHO (2014). Intimate partner violence and alcohol factsheet. www.who.int/violence/world_reports/factsheet

Zikakou. I. (2013). *One in Three Women Victim of Domestic Violence*. Greek Reporter.

References chapter 5

Anderson, M.A., Gillig, P.M., Sitaker, M., McCloskey, K., Malloy, K., & Grigsby, N. (2003). Why doesn't she just leave? A descriptive study of victim reported impediments to her safety *Journal of Family Violence*, 18, 151-155.

Allen-Collinson, J. (2009). 'A marked man: female –perpetrated intimate partner abuse' *International Journal of Men's Health*.

http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m0PAU/is_1_8/ai_n31910293/?tag=content;col1

Applegate, R. (2006). Changing local policy and practice towards the policing of domestic violence in England and Wales. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 29(2): 368-383.

Bates, E. (2019). *Men's experience of domestic abuse in Scotland: an update*. (Unpublished report). Carlisle: University of Cumbria. Retrived from:

<http://insight.cumbria.ac.uk/id/eprint/4610/>

Bard, M., & Zacker, J. (1971). The prevention of family violence: Dilemmas of community intervention. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 33, 677-82.

Crown Prosecution Service and Home Office (2011). *Specialist Domestic Violence Court Programme: Resource Manual 2nd updated edition*. London: Home Office.

Dixon, L., Browne, K.D., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. & Ostipuik, E. (2010). Differentiating patterns of aggression in the family. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research*, 2(1), 32-44.

Douglas, E. M., & Hines, D. A. (2011). The Help seeking Experiences of Men Who Sustain Intimate Partner Violence: An Overlooked Population and Implications for Practice. *Journal of family violence*, 26(6), 473–485. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-011-9382-4>

Erez, E. (1986). Intimacy, violence, and the police. *Human Relations*, 39 (3), 265-281.

Geis, F. L. (1993) 'Self-fulfilling prophecies: a social psychological view of gender.' *The*

Psychology of Gender, New York, Guilford Press.

Henning, K., & Feder, L. (2004). A comparison between men and women arrested for domestic violence: Who presents the greater threat? *Journal of Family Violence*, 19(2), 69–80.

Henning, K., & Renauer, B. (2005). Prosecution of women arrested for intimate partner abuse. *Violence and Victims*, 20, 171-189.

Henning, K., Renauer, B., & Holdford, R. (2006, August). Victim or offender? Heterogeneity among women arrested for intimate partner violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 21(6), 351-368.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (2014) *Everyone's business: Improving the police response to domestic abuse*. London: HMIC.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (2015) *Increasingly everyone's business: A progress report on the police response to domestic abuse*. London: HMIC December Report.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire and Rescue services (2019) *The police response to domestic abuse. An update*. London: HMIC.

Hester, M. (2013) Who does what to whom? Gender and domestic violence perpetrators in English police records. *European Journal of Criminology*, 10(5), 623-637.

Hughes, S. M., Mogilski, J. K., & Harrison, M. A. (2014). The perception and parameters of intentional voice manipulation. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, 38(1), 107–127. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10919-013-0163-z>

Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada, (2014). Greece: Domestic violence, including legislation; state protection and support services available to victims, including non-citizens (GRC104858.E 2009-April 2014). <https://www.refworld.org/docid/53b137394.html>

Johnson, M. (2005). Domestic Violence: It's Not about Gender: Or Is It? *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(5), 1126-1130.

Klinger, David. A. (1995). Policing Spousal Assault. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 32(3), 308–324. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022427895032003003>

Kronenberg, J. (2013). A brief early history of women's shelters and the movement against domestic violence.

<http://www.thebusinessofme.com/a-brief-earlyhistory-of-womens-shelters-and-the-movement-against-domestic-violence/>

Lloyd, M., & Ramon, S. (2017). Smoke and Mirrors: U.K. Newspaper Representations of Intimate Partner Domestic Violence. *Violence Against Women*, 23(1), 114–139. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801216634468>.

McHugh, M. C., & Hambaugh, J. (2010). She said, he said: Gender, language, and power. In J. C. Chrisler & D. R. McCreary (Eds.), *Handbook of gender research in psychology, Vol 1: Gender research in general and experimental psychology*. (pp. 379-410). New York, NY US: Springer Science.

Office of National Statistics (2018) Focus on violent crime and sexual offences: Year ending March 2018. London: ONS.

Petroulaki., K. (2012). Awareness Raising Activities to Fight Violence Against Women and Girls. European Anti-Violence Network (EAVN). 7-8 February 2012.

Parker, I. (2015). Victims of domestic abuse: struggling for support? *The National Association of Citizens Advice Bureaux. London*.
www.citizensadvice.org.uk

Seelau S M & Seelau E P (2005) 'Gender-Role Stereotypes and Perceptions of Heterosexual, Gay and Lesbian Domestic Violence' *Journal of Family Violence*, 20(6), 363-371

Stanko, E.A. (1989) Missing the mark? policing battering. In J. Hanmer, J. Radford, and E.A. Stanko (eds) *Women, Policing, and Male Violence: International Perspectives*. London: Routledge.

Steinmetz, S. K. (1978). The battered husband syndrome. *Victimology*, 2(3-4), 499-509.

United States Department of State (2014). Greece. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 2013*: 27 February 2014.

United Nations (2012). Greece: Reports Submitted by States Parties Under Article 19 of the Convention. Concluding Observations of the Committee against Torture. New York: UN Committee against Torture, 27 June 2012.

References chapter 6

- Anderson, M.A., Gillig, P.M., Sitaker, M., McCloskey, K., Malloy, K., & Grigsby, N. (2003). Why doesn't she just leave? A descriptive study of victim reported impediments to her safety *Journal of Family Violence*, 18, 151-155.
- Andrews, R. & Johnston M. K. (2013): Representative Bureaucracy, Gender, And Policing: The Case of Domestic Violence Arrests in England. *Public Administration* 91(4), 998–1014.
- Apsler, R., Cummins, M. R., & Carl, S. (2003). Perceptions of the police by female victims of domestic partner violence. *Violence Against Women*, 9, 1318–1335.
- Barata, P. C., & Schneider, F. (2004). Battered women add their voices to the debate about the merits of mandatory arrest. *Women's Studies Quarterly*, 32, 148–163.
- Barkhuizen, M. (2015). Police reaction to male victim of domestic violence in South Africa: Case study analysis. *Police Practice and Research*, 16(4), 291-302.
- Bohmer, C., Brandt, J., Bronson, D., & Hartnett, H. (2002). Domestic violence law reforms: Reactions from the trenches. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 29, 71–87.
- Bosick, S. J., Rennison, C. M., Gover, A. R., & Dodge, M. (2012). Reporting violence to the police: Predictors through the life course. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 40(6), 441–451. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2012.05.001>
- Britton A., Kershaw C., Osborne S., & Smith K. (2012). Underlying Patterns within the England and Wales Crime Drop. In: van Dijk J., Tseloni A., Farrell G. (eds) *The International Crime Drop: Crime Prevention and Security Management*. Palgrave Macmillan, London
- Browne, K. D., Chou, S. & Jackson-Hollis, V. (2017). Community Approaches to the Assessment and Prevention of Intimate Partner Violence and Child Maltreatment (p. 235-264). In Browne, K.D., Craig, L. Beech, A. & Chou, S. (Eds.) *Assessments in Forensic Practice: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Browne, K.D. & Hamilton C.E. (1999). Police Recognition of Links between Spouse Abuse and Child Abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 4(2), 136-147.
- Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997) *Preventing Family Violence*, Chichester; Wiley.

Buzawa, E. S., & Austin, T. (1993). Determining police response to domestic violence victims. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 36, 610–623.

Chandek, M.S. & Porter, C. (1998). The efficacy of expectancy disconfirmation theory in explaining crime victim satisfaction with the police”, *Police Quarterly*, 1, 21-40.

Chatzifotiou, S., Fotou, E., & Moisides, I. (2014). ‘Best Practices in Police Handling and Liaisons with Social Services Workers in Domestic Violence Incidents.’ *Social Cohesion and Development*, 9(2): 133–142.

Cho, H., & Wilke, D. J. (2010). Gender differences in the nature of the intimate partner violence and effects of perpetrator arrest on revictimization. *Journal of Family Violence*, 25(4), 393–400. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-009-9300-1>

Davis, R. C., & Smith, B. (1995). Domestic Violence Reforms: Empty Promises or Fulfilled Expectations? *Crime & Delinquency*, 41(4), 541–552.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128795041004010>

Dorahy, M. J., Middleton, W., Seager, L., Williams, M., & Chambers, R. (2016). Child abuse and neglect in complex dissociative disorder, abuse-related chronic PTSD, and mixed psychiatric samples. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation*, 17(2), 223-236.

Douglas, E. M., Hines, D. A & McCarthy, S. C (2012). Men Who Sustain Female-to-Male Partner Violence: Factors Associated with Where They Seek Help and How They Rate Those Resources. *Violence and Victims*. 27(6), 871–894,

Drijber, B. C., Reijnders, U. J. L., & Ceelen, M. (2013). Male victims of domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28(2), 173–178. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-012-9482-9>

Durfee, A., & Messing, J. T. (2012). Characteristics Related to Protection Order Use Among Victims of Intimate Partner Violence. *Violence Against Women*, 18(6), 701–710.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801212454256>

Erez, E., & Belknap, J. (1998). In their own words: Battered women’s assessment of the criminal processing system’s responses. *Violence and victims*, 13(3), 251-268.

- Felson, R. B., Messner, S. F., Hoskin, A. W & Deane, G. (2002). Reasons for reporting and not reporting domestic violence to the police. *Criminology*, 40(3), 617-648.
- Fleury-Steiner, R. E., Bybee, D., Sullivan, C. M., Belknap, J., & Melton, H. C. (2006). Contextual factors impacting battered women's intentions to re-use the criminal legal system. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 34, 327–342.
- Finn, M. A., Blackwell, B. S., Stalans, L. J., Studdard, S., & Dugan, L. (2004). Dual Arrest Decisions in Domestic Violence Cases: The Influence of Departmental Policies. *Crime & Delinquency*, 50(4), 565–589. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128703261381>
- Finn, M. A. & Stalan, L. J. S. (1997): The Influence of Gender and Mental State on Police Decisions in Domestic Assault Cases. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 24(2), 157-176.
- Frieze, I. H. (2000). Violence in close relationships—development of a research area: Comment on Archer (2000). *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(5), 681–684. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.5.681>
- Ford, D. A. (1991). Prosecution as a victim power resource: A note on empowering women in violent conjugal relationships. *Law & Society Review*, 25(2), 313–334. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3053801>
- Grech, K., & Burgess, M. (2011). *Trends and patterns in domestic violence assaults: 2001 to 2010*. NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research: Sydney https://www.bocsar.nsw.gov.au/Pages/bocsar_topics/bocsar_pub_dtoh.aspx
- Goldstein, H. (1979). Improving Policing: A Problem-Oriented Approach. *Crime & Delinquency*, 25(2), 236–258. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001112877902500207>
- Hamilton, M. & Worthen, Meredith G., F. (2011). Sex Disparities in Arrest Outcomes for Domestic Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 26(8) 1559– 1578.
- Hester, M. (2013): Who does what to whom? Gender and domestic violence perpetrators in English police records. *European Journal of Criminology*, 10(5), 623–637.
- Hines, D. A., & Douglas, E. M. (2010). A Closer Look at Men Who Sustain Intimate Terrorism by Women. *Partner abuse*, 1(3), 286–313. <http://doi:10.1891/1946-6560.1.3.286>

HMIC (2015). Increasingly everyone's business: A progress report on the police response to domestic abuse. Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire & Rescue Services. London. www.justiceinspectors.gov.uk/hmic

Home Office (2003) Safety and Justice: The Government's Proposals on Domestic Violence. Cm 5847. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/docs2/domesticviolence.pdf>

Hoyle, C., & Sanders, A. (2000). Police response to domestic violence: From victim choice to victim empowerment? *British Journal of Criminology*, 40(1), 14–36.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/40.1.14>

Johnson, B. M. (2012). *Utah domestic violence bench book*. Utah State Courts, 1-19.

Johnson, Ida M., (2007). "Victims' perceptions of police response to domestic violence incidents," *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 35 (5), 498-510.

Kelly, V., Warner, K., Trahan, C., & Miscavage, K. (2009). The Relationship Among Self-Report and Measured Report of Psychological Abuse, and Depression for a Sample of Women Involved in Intimate Relationships with Male Partners. *The Family Journal*, 17(1), 51–57.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1066480708328476>

Lee, J., Zhang, Y. and Hoover, L. (2013). Police response to domestic violence: multilevel factors of arrest decision. *Policing: An International Journal*, 36 (1), 157-174.

Leisenring, A. (2012). Victims' Perceptions of Police Response to Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 12 (2), 146-164.

Lo, W, A., and Sparakowski, M, J. (1989). Continuation of Violent Dating Relationships Among College Students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 30(5), 432-439.

MacQueen, S., & Norris, Paul., A. (2016) Police awareness and involvement in cases of domestic and partner abuse, *Policing and Society*, 26(1), 55-76.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/10439463.2014.922084>

Millar, P. & Brown, G., (2010). Explaining Gender Differences in Police Arresting and Charging Behavior in Cases of Spousal Violence. *Partner Abuse*, 1(3) 314-331.

Muraoka, S. (1996). Use of police services by victims of domestic violence. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska. *Journal of College Student Development*, 30, 432–439.

Petroulaki., K. (2012). Awareness Raising Activities to Fight Violence Against Women and Girls. European Anti-Violence Network (EAVN). 7-8 February 2012.

Cited in: Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada, Greece: Domestic violence, including legislation; state protection and support services available to victims, including non-citizens (GRC104858.E 2009-April 2014). <https://www.refworld.org/docid/53b137394.html>

Prinz, R. J. (2016). Parenting and family support within a broad child abuse prevention strategy: Child maltreatment prevention can benefit from public health strategies. *Child abuse & neglect*, 51, 400-406.

Rajah, V., Frye, V., & Haviland, M. (2006). Aren't I a victim? Notes on identity challenges relating to police action in a mandatory arrest jurisdiction. *Violence Against Women*, 12, 897–916.

Roark, J. (2016). Predictors of dual arrest for offenders involved in heterosexual domestic violence arrests. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 39(1), 52-63.

Robinson, A., & Stroshine, M. (2005). The importance of expectation fulfilment on domestic violence victims' satisfaction with the police in the UK. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 28, 301–320.

Shuler, C.A. (2010). Male victims of intimate partner violence in the United States: An examination of the review of literature through the critical theoretical perspective. *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences*, 5(1), 163-173.

Siegel, S. & Castellan Jr, N.J. (1989) *Nonparametric statistics for the behavioural sciences*. McGraw-Hill, New York.

Sinclair, D. (1985) *Understanding wife assault: A training manual for Counsellors and advocates*. Toronto: Ontario Government Publications.

Smith, A. (2001). Domestic violence laws: The voices of battered women. *Violence and Victims*, 16, 91–111.

Smith, A. (2000). It's my decision, isn't it? A research note; on battered women's perceptions of mandatory intervention laws. *Violence Against Women*, 6, 1384-1402.

Stanko, E.A. (1989) Missing the mark? policing battering. In J. Hanmer, J. Radford, and E.A. Stanko (eds) *Women, Policing, and Male Violence: International Perspectives*. pp. 46-69. London: Routledge.

Stephens, B. J., & Sinden, P. G. (2000). Victims' voices: Domestic assault victims' perceptions of police demeanour. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 15(5), 534–547. <https://doi.org/10.1177/088626000015005006>

Tsui, V., (2014). Male Victims of Intimate Partner Abuse: Use and Helpfulness of Services, *Social Work*, 59(2), 121–130. <https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swu007>

Tsui, V., Cheung, M., & Leung, P. (2010). Help-seeking among male victims of partner abuse: Men's hard times. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 38(6), 769-780. <http://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20394>

Wilson, M. and Daly, M. (1993). Spousal Homicide Risk and Estrangement. *Violence and Victims*. 8 (1), 3-16.

Yegidis, B., & Renzy, R. (1994). Battered women's experiences with a preferred arrest policy. *Affilia*, 9, 60–70.

References chapter 7

Agathonos-Georgopoulou, H. & Browne, K.D. (1997). The Prediction of Child Maltreatment in Greek Families. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 21(8): 721-735.

Afifi, T. O., MacMillan, H., Cox, B. J., Asmundson, G. J. G., Stein, M. B., & Sareen, J. (2009). Mental Health Correlates of Intimate Partner Violence in Marital Relationships in a Nationally Representative Sample of Males and Females. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 24(8), 1398–1417. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260508322192>

Anderson, D. K., & Saunders, D. G. (2003). Leaving an abusive partner: An empirical review of predictors, the process of leaving, and psychological well-being. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 4, 163–191. <http://doi:10.1177/1524838002250769>

Babcock, J. C., Miller, S. A., & Siard, C. (2003). Toward a typology of abusive women: Differences between partner-only and generally violent women in the use of violence. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 27, 153-161.

Barnett, O. W. (2000). Why battered women do not leave, Part 1: External inhibiting factors within society. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 1(4), 343–372. <Http://doi:10.1177/1524838000001004003>

Barnett, O. W. (2001). Why battered women do not leave, Part 2: External inhibiting factors—Social support and internal inhibiting factors. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 2(1), 3–35. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1524838001002001001>

Barnett, O., Miller-Perrin, C. L., & Perrin, R. D. (2005). *Family violence across the lifespan: An introduction (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Barrett, B. J., & Pierre, M. S. (2011). Variations in women's help seeking in response to intimate partner violence: Findings from a Canadian population-based study. *Violence Against Women*, 17, 47-70.

Bem, S. L. (1993). *The lenses of gender*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Bowker, L. H. & Maurer, L. (1987). The medical treatment of abused wives. *Women & Health*, 12, 25-45.

Bowker, L.H. & Maurer, L., (1986). The effectiveness of counselling services utilized by abused women. *Women and Therapy*, 5, 65–82.

Brown, S. J., McDonald, E. A., & Krastev, A. H. (2008). Fear of an intimate partner and women's health in early pregnancy: Findings from the Maternal Health Study. *Birth*, 35, 293-302.

Browne, A. (1993). Violence against women by male partners: Prevalence, outcomes, and policy implications. *American Psychologist*, 48(10), 1077–1087. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.48.10.1077>.

Browne, K.D. (1993). 'Violence in the family and its links to child abuse'. *Balliere's Clinical Paediatrics*; 1(1), 208-225.

Browne, K.D. & Hamilton C.E. (1999). Police Recognition of Links between Spouse Abuse and Child Abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 4 (2), 136-147.

Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997) *Preventing Family Violence*. Chichester: Wiley.

Browne, K.D. & Falshaw, L. and Dixon, L. (2002). Treating domestic violent offenders (pp. 317-336). In K.D. Browne, H. Hanks, P. Stratton and C. Hamilton (eds) *Early Prediction and Prevention of Child Abuse: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley.

Bybee, D., & Sullivan, C. M. (2005). Predicting re-victimization of battered women 3 years after exiting a shelter program. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 36(1/2), 85-96. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-005-6234-5>

Campbell, J. C. (2002). Health consequences of intimate partner violence. *Lancet*, 359, 1331-1336.

Campbell, J. C., & Soeken, K. L. (1999). Women's responses to battering over time. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 14, 21-40.

Campbell, J., Jones, A. S., Dieneman, J., Kub, J., Schollenberger, J., O'Campo, P. (2002). Intimate partner violence and physical health consequences. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 162, 1157-1163.

Campbell, J.C., Miller, P., Cardwell, M.M. & Belknap, R.A. (1994). Relationship status of abused women over time. *Journal of Family Violence*, 9, 99-111.

Campbell, R., Sullivan, C. M. & Davidson, W. S. (1995). Women who use domestic violence shelters. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 19, 237-255.

Cascardi, M. and O'Leary, K.D., (1992). Depressive symptomatology, self-esteem, and self-blame in abused women. *Journal of Family Violence*, 7, 249-259.

Cascardi, M., & Vivian, D. (1995). Context for specific episodes of marital violence: Gender and severity of violence differences. *Journal of Family Violence*, 10, 265-293.

Chatzifotiou, S. (2003). Violence against women and institutional responses: The case of Greece. *European Journal of Social Work*, 6, 242-256.

Chatzifotiou, S., & Dobash, R. (2001). Seeking informal support: Marital violence against women in Greece. *Violence Against Women*, 7, 1024-1050.

Chang, D. B. K. (1989). An abused spouse's self-saving process: a theory of identity transformation. *Sociological Perspectives*, 32, 535-550.

Cercone, J. J., Beach, S. R., & Arias, I. (2005). Gender symmetry in dating intimate partner violence: Does similar behavior imply similar constructs? *Violence and Victims*, 20, 207-218.

Clements, K., & Holtzworth-Munroe, A. (2009). Participation in laboratory research result in emotional distress with one's partner: Comparing violent and nonviolent couples. *Journal of Family Violence*, 24, 283-295.

Coker, A.L., Davis, K.E., Arias, I., Desai, S., Sanderson, M., Brandt, H.M. & Smith P.H. (2002). Physical and mental health effects of intimate partner violence for men and women. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*; 23, 260–268. [https://doi:10.1016/S0749-3797\(02\)00514-7](https://doi:10.1016/S0749-3797(02)00514-7)

Connell, R.W., & Messerschmidt, J.W. (2005). Hegemonic masculinity: rethinking the concept. *Gender and Society*, 19, 829–859.

Davies, L., Ford-Gilboe, M., & Hammerton, J. (2009). Gender inequality and patterns of abuse post-leaving. *Journal of Family Violence*, 24, 27–39.

Dearwater, S. R., Coben, J. H., Campbell, J. C., Nah, G., Glass, N., McLoughlin, E., & Bekemeier, B. (1998). Prevalence of intimate partner abuse in women treated at community hospital emergency departments. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 280, 433-438.

Department of Health (2015) Health Visiting and School Nursing Programmes: Supporting implementation of the new service model No.5: Domestic Violence and Abuse – Professional Guidance. London: Department of Health

Eckstein, J. J. (2009). Exploring the communication of men revealing abuse from female romantic partners. In D. D. Cahn (Ed.), *Family violence: Communication processes* (pp. 89–111). Albany: State University of New York Press.

Eckstein, J. J. (2010). Masculinity of men communicating abuse victimization. *Culture, Society, and Masculinities*, 2(1), 62–74.

Eckstein, J. J. (2011). Reasons for staying in intimately violent relationships: Comparisons of men and women and messages communicated to self and others. *Journal of Family Violence* 26 (1), 21-30.

Fanslow, J. L., & Robinson, E. M. (2010). Help-seeking behaviors and reasons for help seeking reported by a representative sample of women victims of intimate partner violence in New Zealand. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25, 929-951.

Feder, G.1., Ramsay, J., Dunne, D., Rose, M., Arsene, C., Norman, R., Kuntze, S., Spencer, A., Bacchus, L., Hague, G., & Warburton A. T. (2009). A How far does screening women for domestic (partner) violence in different health-care settings meet criteria for a screening programme? Systematic reviews of nine UK National Screening Committee criteria. *Health Technology Assessment*:17, 1–27.

Ferraro, K. J., & Johnson, J. M. (1983). How women experience battering: The process of victimization. *Social Problems*, 30(3), 325–339.

Field, C., & Caetano, R. (2005). Intimate partner violence in the U.S. general population: Progress and future directions. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 20, 463–469.

Follingstad, D. R., Hause, E. S., Rutledge, L. L., & Polek, D. S. (1992). Effects of abused women's early responses on later abuse patterns. *Violence and Victims*, 7, 109–128.

Frieze, I. H. (1980). Causal attributions as mediators of abused women's responses to battering. Report to the National Institute of Mental Health. Washington, DC: National Institute of Mental Health

Frisch, M.B. and MacKenzie, C.J., 1991. A comparison of formerly and chronically abused women on cognitive and situational dimensions. *Psychotherapy* 28, 339–344.

Frude, N. (1994) Marital Violence: An interactional perspective (pp.153-169). In J. Archer (Ed) *Male Violence*. London: Routledge.

Halpern, C.T., Oslak, S.G., Young, M.L., Martin, S.L. & Kupper, L.L. (2001). Partner violence among adolescents in opposite-sex romantic relationships: Findings from the national longitudinal study of adolescent health. *American Journal of Public Health*. 91, 1679–1685.

Hamberger, L. K., & Guse, C. E. (2002). Men's and women's use of intimate partner violence in clinical samples: Toward a gender-sensitive analysis. *Violence Against Women*, 8, 1301–1331.

Hamilton, C.E. & Browne, K.D. (2002). Predicting physical maltreatment (pp.41-56). In K.D. Browne, H. Hanks, P. Stratton and C. Hamilton (eds). *Early Prediction and Prevention of Child Abuse: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley.

Handsel, V. A. (2007). Psychological variables in battered women's stay leave decisions: Risk-taking, perceived control, and optimistic bias (Master's thesis). Retrieved from <http://libres.uncg.edu/ir/listing.aspx?id=1674>

Hathaway, J. E., Mucci, L. A., Silverman, J. G., Brooks, D. R., Mathews, R., & Pavlos, C. A. (2000). Health status and health care use of Massachusetts women reporting partner abuse. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 19, 302-307.

Hartman, J. L., & Belknap, J. (2003). Beyond the gatekeepers: court professionals' self-reported attitudes about and experiences with misdemeanor domestic violence cases. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 30, 349-373.

Hardesty, J. L., & Ganong, L. H. (2006). How women make custody decisions and manage co-parenting with abusive former husbands. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 23, 543-563.

Heggie, D., (1985). The influence of social networks on abused women. *Dissertation Abstracts International* 47.

Horton, A.L. and Johnson, B.L., 1993. Profile and strategies of women who have ended abuse. *Families in Society*, 74, 481-492.

Houry, D., Rhodes, K. V., Kemball, R. S., Click, L., Cerulli, C., McNutt, L. A., & Kaslow, N. J. (2008). Differences in female and male victims and perpetrators of partner violence with respect to WEB scores. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 23, 1041-1055.

Itzhaky, H. & Porat, A.B. (2005). Battered Women in Shelters: Internal Resources, Well-Being and Integration. *Affilia*, 20 (1), 39-51

Jacobson, N. S., Gottman, J. M., Waltz, J., Rushe, R., Babcock, J., & Holtzworth-Munroe, A. (1994). Affect, verbal content, and psychophysiology in the arguments of couples with a violent husband. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 62, 982-988.

Jacobson, N. S., Gottman, J. M., Gortner, E., Berns, S., & Shortt, J.W. (1996). Psychological factors in the longitudinal course of battering: When do the couples split up? When does the abuse decrease? *Violence and Victims*, 11(4), 371-392.

Jacobson, N.S., Gottman, J.M., Waltz, J., Rushe, R., Babcock, J. & Holtzworth-Munroe, A., (1996). Affect, verbal content, and psychophysiology in the arguments of couples with a violent husband. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 62, 982–988.

Johnson, I.M., (1992). Economic, situational, and psychological correlates of the decision-making process of abused women. *Families in Society*, 73,168–176.

Kalmus, D.S. & Straus, M.A., (1982). Wife's marital dependency and wife abuse. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 44, 277–286.

Kelly, U. A. (2009). “I’m a mother first”: The influence of mothering in the decision-making processes of battered immigrant Latino women. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 32(3), 286–297. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.20327>

Khaw, L. B. L., & Hardesty, J. L. (2009). Leaving an abusive partner: exploring boundary ambiguity using the Stages of Change Model. *Journal of Family Theory and Review*, 1, 38–53

Khalifeh, H., Oram, S., Osborn, D., Howard, L. M., & Johnson, S. (2016). Recent physical and sexual violence against adults with severe mental illness: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *International review of psychiatry*, 28(5), 433-451. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540261.2016.1223608>

Kilpatrick, D. G., Saunders, B. E., Amick-McMullan, A., Best, C. L., Veronen, L. J., & Resnick, H. S. (1989). Victim and crime factors associated with the development of crime-related post-traumatic stress disorder. *Behaviour Therapy*, 20, 199-214.

Kimmel, M. S. (2002). "Gender symmetry" in domestic violence: A substantive and methodological research review. *Violence Against Women*, 8, 1332-1363.

Kirkwood, C. (1993). *Leaving abusive partners*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Klein R (2014). *Responding to Intimate Violence against Women: The Role of Informal Networks*. Cambridge University Press.

Krug, E. G., Dahlberg, L. L., Mercy, J. A., Zwi, A. B., & Lorenzo, R. (Eds.). (2002). *World report on violence and health*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.

Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., Neidig, P., & Thorn, G. (1995). Violent marriages: Gender differences in levels of current violence and past abuse. *Journal of Family Violence*, 10, 159-176.

Launius, M.H. & Jenson, B.L., 1987. Interpersonal problem-solving skills in abused, counselling, and control women. *Journal of Family Violence*, 2; 151–162.

Lesser, B. (1990). Attachment and situational factors influencing battered women's return to their mates following a shelter program. In K. Pottharst (Ed.) *Research explorations in adult attachment* (pp. 81–128). New York: Peter Lang

Lo, W. & Sporkowski, M.J. (1989). The continuation of violent dating relationships among college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 30:432–439.

Lowe, P., Humphreys, C., & Williams, S. J. (2007). Night terrors: Women's experiences of (not) sleeping where there is domestic violence. *Violence Against Women*, 13, 549-561.

Lynch, S.M & Graham-Bermann, S.A. (2004). Exploring the relationship between positive work experiences and women's sense of self in the context of partner abuse. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 28.159-167

Martín-Baena, D., Mayoral, O., Talavera, M., & Montero, I. (2018). The link between violence and suicidal behaviour among female university students in Spain. *Journal of School Violence*, 18:2, 216-225. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15388220.2018.1453823>

Merritt-Gray, M., & Wuest, J. (1995). Counteracting abuse and breaking free: the process of leaving revealed through women's voices. *Health Care for Women International*, 16, 399–412.

McClennan, H., Joseph, S. & Lewis, C., (1994). Causal attributions for marital violence and emotional response by women seeking refuge. *Psychological Reports*, 75, 272–274.

McMahon, M., & Pence, E. (2003). Making social change: reflections on individual and institutional advocacy with women arrested for domestic violence. *Violence Against Women*, 9, 47–74.

Mertin, P., & Mohr, P. (2001). A follow-up study of posttraumatic stress disorder, anxiety, and depression in Australian victims of domestic violence. *Violence and Victims*, 16, 645-654.

Miller, J. (2006). A specification of the types of intimate partner violence experienced by women in the general population. *Violence Against Women*, 12, 1105-1131.

Morse, B. J. (1995). Beyond the Conflict Tactics Scales: Assessing gender differences in partner violence. *Violence and Victims*, 10, 251-272.

Muller, H., Desmarais, S., & Hamel, J. (2009). Do judicial responses to restraining order requests discriminate against male victims of domestic violence? *Journal of Family Violence*, 24, 619–624.

O'Keefe M. (1997). Predictors of dating violence among high school students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 12(4), 546–568.

Oram, S. Trevillion, K., Feder, G. & Howard L.M. (2013). Prevalence of experiences of domestic violence among psychiatric patients: systematic review. *British Journal of Psychiatry*; 202, 94–9.

Papadakaki, M., Tzamalouka, G.S., Chatzifotiou, S., & Chilaoutakis, J. (2009). Seeking for risk factors of intimate partner violence in a Greek national sample. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 24(5), 732-750.

Parker, I. (2015). *A Link in the chain: The role of friends and family in tackling domestic abuse*. London: National Association of Citizens Advice Bureaux (Citizens Advice). www.citizensadvice.org.uk

Phelan, M. B., Hamberger, L. K., Guse, C. E., Edwards, S., Walczak, S., & Zosel, A. (2005). Domestic violence among male and female patients seeking emergency medical services. *Violence and Victims*, 20, 187-206.

Prochaska, J. O., & DiClemente, C. C. (1984). *The transtheoretical approach: Crossing traditional boundaries of change*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.

Randle, A. A., & Graham, C. A. (2011). A review of the evidence on the effects of intimate partner violence on men. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 12(2), 97–111. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021944>

Rhodes, K. V., Houry, D., Cerulli, C., Straus, H., Kaslow, N. J., & McNutt, L. A. (2009). Intimate partner violence and comorbid mental health conditions among urban male patients. *Annals of family medicine*, 7(1), 47–55. <https://doi.org/10.1370/afm.936>

Riggs, D. S., Kilpatrick, D. G., & Resnick, H. S. (1992). Long-term psychological distress associated with marital rape and aggravated assault: A comparison to other crime victims. *Journal of Family Violence*, 7, 283-296.

Romito, P., & Grassi, M. (2007). Does violence affect one gender more than the other? The mental health impact of violence among male and female university students. *Social Science & Medicine*, 65, 1222–1234.

Rounsaville, B.J., (1978). Theories in marital violence: Evidence from a study of abused women. *Victimology*, 3; 11–31.

Safe Lives. (2016). *A Cry for Health: Why we must invest in domestic abuse services in hospitals*. Safe lives organisation. London UK.

https://safelives.org.uk/sites/default/files/resources/SAFJ4993_Themis_report_WEBcorrect.pdf

Seligman, M. E. P., & Groves, D. P. (1970). Nontransient learned helplessness. *Psychonomic Science*, 19 (3), 191-192. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03335546>

Scheffer Lindgren, M., & Renck, B. (2008). “It is still so deep-seated, the fear”: Psychological stress reactions as consequences of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing*, 15, 219-228.

Smith, P. H., Tessaro, I., & Earp, J. A. L. (1995). Women’s experiences with battering: A conceptualization from qualitative research. *Women’s Health Issues*, 5, 173-182.

Straus MA. (2008). Dominance and symmetry in partner violence by male and female university students in 32 nations. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 30(3), 252–275.

Straus MA. (2011). Gender symmetry and mutuality in perpetration of clinical-level partner violence: Empirical evidence and implications for prevention and treatment. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 16(4), 279–288.

Schnurr, M. & Lohman B. (2008). How much does school matter? An examination of adolescent dating violence perpetration. *Journal of Youth Adolescence*, 37, 266–283.

Snyder, D. K., & Scheer, N. S. (1981). Predicting disposition following brief residence at shelter for abused women. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 9, 559-566.

Star, B., (1978). Wife beating: How common and why? *Victimology*, 2; 443–458.

Strube, M.J. & Barbour, L.S., (1984). Factors related to the decision to leave an abusive relationship. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 46; 837–844.

Summers, G. & Feldman, N.S., (1984). Blaming the victim versus blaming the perpetrator: An attributional analysis of spouse abuse. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology* 2; 339–347.

Sutherland, C., Bybee, D., & Sullivan, C. (1998). The long-term effects of battering on women's health. *Women's Health: Research on Gender, Behavior, and Policy*, 4(1), 41-70.

Swanberg, J. E., & Logan, T. K. (2005). Domestic violence and employment: A qualitative study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(1), 3-17. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.1.3>

Tan, C., Basta, J., Sullivan, C.M. and Davidson II, W.S., (1995). The role of social support in the lives of women exiting domestic violence shelters. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 10; 437-451.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003) *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Theodore, R.M., (1992). The relationship between locus of control and level of violence in married couples (pp. 37-48). In: Viano, E., (Ed) *Intimate violence*. Hemisphere Publishing Corporation, Washington, DC,

Thompson, R. S., Bonomi, A. E., Anderson, M., Reid, R. J., Dimer, J. A., Carrell, D., & Rivara, F. P. (2006). Intimate partner violence: Prevalence, types, and chronicity in adult women. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 30, 447-457.

Trevillion, K., Oram, S., Feder, G. & Howard L.M. (2012) Experiences of domestic violence and mental disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE* 7(12): e51740. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0051740>

Truman-Schram, D. M., Cann, A., Calhoun, L. & Van Wallendael, L. (2000). Leaving an abusive dating relationship: An investment model comparison of women who stay versus women who leave. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 19, 161-183.

Tzamalouka, G. S., Parlalis, S. K., Soultatou, P., Papadakaki, M., & Chliaoutakis, J. E. (2007). Applying the concept of lifestyle in association with aggression and violence in Greek cohabitating couples. *Journal of Aggressive Behavior*, 33, 73-85.

Vogel, L., & Marshall, L. (2001). PTSD symptoms and partner abuse: Low income women at risk. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 14, 569-584.

Walker, L. E. A. (2000). *The battered woman syndrome (2nd ed.)*. New York: Springer.

Walker, L.E., (1978). Abused women and learned helplessness. *Victimology*, 2, 525–534.

Walker, L.E. (1983). Victimology and the psychological perspectives of abused women. *Victimology* 8, 82–104.

Walker, L.E., (1984). *The battered woman syndrome*, Springer, New York.

Watt, M. H., Bobrow, E. A., & Moracco, K. E. (2008). Providing support to IPV victims in the emergency department. *Violence Against Women*, 14, 715-726.

Weaver, T. L., & Clum, G. A. (1995). Psychological distress associated with interpersonal violence: A meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 15, 115-140.

Wilson, M. & Daly, M. (1993). Spousal Homicide Risk and Estrangement. *Violence and Victims*. 8 (1): 3-16.

Wilson, K., Vercella, R., Brems, C., Benning, D. & Renfro, N., (1992). Levels of learned helplessness in abused women. *Women and Therapy* 13; 53–67.

Williams, J. (2000). Factors related to women's stages of terminating violent intimate relationships. (Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 2000). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 61(3-B), 1333.

Wuest, J., & Merritt-Gray, M. (1999). Not going back: sustaining the separation in the process of leaving abusive relationships. *Violence Against Women*, 5, 110–133.

References chapter 8

Barnett, O. W. (2000). Why Battered Women Do Not Leave, Part 1: External Inhibiting Factors Within Society. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 1(4), 343–372.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838000001004003>

Barnett, O. W. (2001). Why battered women do not leave, Part 2: External inhibiting factors, social support and internal inhibiting factors. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 2(1), 3–35.

Browne, K.D. & Hamilton C.E. (1999). Police Recognition of Links between Spouse Abuse and Child Abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 4 (2): 136-147.

Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997) *Preventing Family Violence*. Chichester: Wiley.

Browne, K.D. & Falshaw, L. and Dixon, L. (2002). Treating domestic violent offenders (pp. 317-336). In K.D. Browne, H. Hanks, P. Stratton and C. Hamilton (eds) *Early Prediction and Prevention of Child Abuse: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley.

Browne, K. D., Chou, S. & Jackson-Hollis, V. (2017). Community Approaches to the Assessment and Prevention of Intimate Partner Violence and Child Maltreatment (pp. 235-264). In Browne, K.D., Craig, L. Beech, A. & Chou, S. (Eds.) *Assessments in Forensic Practice: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Cascardi, M. & O’Leary, K.D., (1992). Depressive symptomatology, self-esteem, and self-blame in abused women. *Journal of Family Violence* 7, 249–259.

Cascardi, M., & Vivian, D. (1995). Context for specific episodes of marital violence: Gender and severity of violence differences. *Journal of Family Violence*, 10, 265-293.

Dixon, L. (2017). Perpetrators of Intimate Partner Violence (pp. 295-316). In Browne, K.D., Craig, L. Beech, A. & Chou, S. (Eds.) *Assessments in Forensic Practice: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Frude, N. (1994) Marital Violence: An interactional perspective (pp.153-169). In J. Archer (Ed) *Male Violence*. London: Routledge.

Hamilton, C.E. & Browne, K.D. (2002). Predicting physical maltreatment (pp.41-56). In K.D. Browne, H. Hanks, P. Stratton and C. Hamilton (eds). *Early Prediction and Prevention of Child Abuse: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley.

Horton, A.L. & Johnson, B.L., 1993. Profile and strategies of women who have ended abuse. *Families in Society* 74, 481–492.

Johnson, I.M., (1992). Economic, situational, and psychological correlates of the decision-making process of abused women. *Families in Society* 73;168–176.

Leventhal, J.M. (1988) Can child maltreatment be predicted during the peri-natal period: Evidence from longitudinal cohort studies. *Journal of Reproductive and Infant Psychology* 6(3), 139-162.

Mears, J. (2003). ‘Survival is not enough: Violence against older women in Australia’. *Violence against women* 9 (12), 1478-1489.

Snyder, D. K., & Scheer, N. S. (1981). Predicting disposition following brief residence at shelter for abused women. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 9, 559-566.

Truman-Schram, D. M., Cann, A., Calhoun, L., & Van Wallendael, L. (2000). Leaving an abusive dating relationship: An investment model comparison of women who stay versus women who leave. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 19, 161-183.

References chapter 9

Archer J (2002). "Sex differences in physically aggressive acts between heterosexual partners a meta-analytic review". *Aggression and Violent Behaviour* 7 (4): 313–51

Archer, J. (2000). Sex differences in aggression between heterosexual partners: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(5), 651–680. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.5.651>

Barkhuizen, M. (2015). Police reaction to male victim of domestic violence in South Africa: Case study analysis. *Police Practice and Research*, 16(4), 291-302. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15614263.2015.1038025>

Browne, K. (2008). 'The Condition of Men in the UK – 2007/08 Domestic Abuse Research and Statistics.' Mankind Initiative.

Browne, K. D., Chou, S. & Jackson-Hollis, V. (2017). Community Approaches to the Assessment and Prevention of Intimate Partner Violence and Child Maltreatment (pp. 235-264). In Browne, K.D., Craig, L. Beech, A. & Chou, S. (Eds.) *Assessments in Forensic Practice: A Handbook*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Browne, K.D. & Hamilton C.E. (1999). Police Recognition of Links between Spouse Abuse and Child Abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 4 (2): 136-147.

Browne, A., Williams, K. R. & Dutton, D. G. (1999). Homicide between intimate partners: A 20-year review. In M. D. Smith & M. A. Zahn (Eds.), *Homicide: A sourcebook of social research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Browne, K.D. (1998) Channel 4 TV Dispatches: Battered Men Survey. www.dewar4research.org/docs/bms1.pdf

Browne, K.D. & Herbert, M. (1997) Preventing Family Violence, Chichester; Wiley.

Campbell, D. (2010). 'More than 40% of domestic violence victims are male, reports reveal' The Observer 5 September 2010 [available at: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/2010/sep/05/men-victims-domestic-violence>

Cerulli, C., Kothari, C. L., Dichter, M., Marcus, S., Wiley, J., & Rhodes, K. V. (2014). Victim Participation in Intimate Partner Violence Prosecution: Implications for Safety. *Violence Against Women*, 20(5), 539–560. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801214535105>

Cussen T & Lyneham M. (2012). *ACT Family Violence Intervention Program review*. Technical and background paper series no. 52. Canberra: AIC. <https://aic.gov.au/publications/tbp/tbp052>

Dixon, L., Browne, K.D., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. & Ostipuk, E. (2010). Differentiating patterns of aggression in the family. *Journal of Aggression, Conflict and Peace Research*, 2(1), 32-44.

Douglas, E. M., Hines, D. A & McCarthy, S. C. (2012). Men Who Sustain Female-to-Male Partner Violence: Factors Associated with Where They Seek Help and How They Rate Those Resources. *Violence and Victims*, 27(6), 871–894.

Drijber, B. C., Reijnders, U. J. L., & Ceelen, M. (2013). Male victims of domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence* 28 (2), 173-178. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.27.6.871>

Erez, E., & Belknap, J. (1998). In their own words: Battered women's assessment of the criminal processing system's responses. *Violence and victims*, 13(3), 251–268..

Gillis, J. R., Diamond, S. L., Jebely, P., Orekhovsky, V., Ostovich, E. M., MacIsaac, K., et al. (2006). Systemic obstacles to battered women's participation in the judicial system: When will the status quo change? *Violence Against Women*, 12, 1150-1168.

Graham-Kevan, N. (2011) 'The Invisible domestic violence – against men' *The Guardian*, 7th June 2011. London: The Guardian Newspaper. <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2011/jun/07/feminism-domestic-violence-men>

Hall, R. E. (2012). The surreptitious feminization of domestic violence: An empirical exposé. *Social Work & Social Sciences Review* 16(1), 34-47. <https://doi.org/10.1921/503160104>

Hare SC. (2006). What do battered women want? Victim's opinions on prosecution. *Violence and Victims* 21(5): 611–628.

Hartley, C. C., & Frohmann, L. (2003). Cook county target Abuser Call (TAC): An evaluation of a specialized domestic violence court. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.

Hines, D. A., & Douglas, E. M. (2010). A Closer Look at Men Who Sustain Intimate Terrorism by Women. *Partner abuse*, 1(3), 286–313. <https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.1.3.286>

- Hines, D. A., Brown, J., & Dunning, E. (2007). "Characteristics of callers to the domestic abuse helpline for men": Erratum. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22(8), 773. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-007-9091-1>
- Horton, A. L., & Johnson, B. L. (1993). Profile and Strategies of Women who Have Ended Abuse. *Families in Society*, 74(8), 481–492. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104438949307400804>
- Johnson, B. M. (2012). Utah domestic violence bench book. Utah State Courts, 1-19.
- Lewis R., Dobash R.P., Dobash R.E., & Cavanagh K. (2000) Protection, Prevention, Rehabilitation or Justice? Women's Use of the Law to Challenge Domestic Abuse. *International Review of Victimology*, 7: 170–205
- Moore, C. (2015). Story of domestic violence against men is hidden, complicated and disputed. Retrieved from: <http://www.brisbanetimes.com.au/queensland/story-of-domesticviolence-against-men-is-hidden-complicated-and-disputed-20151122-gl55v7.html>
- Sinclair, D. (1985). *Understanding wife assault: A training manual for Counsellors and advocates*. Toronto: Ontario Government Publications.
- The Mirror newspaper (2011). 'Saving the men who live in fear of domestic violence.' The Mirror 17/3/2011. Retrieved from; <http://www.mirror.co.uk/news/uk-news/saving-the-men-who-live-in-fear-116623>
- Pennington-Zoellner, K. (2009). Expanding “community” in the community response to intimate partner violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 24, 539–545.
- Shuler, C.A. (2010). Male victims of intimate partner violence in the United States: An examination of the review of literature through the critical theoretical perspective. *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences*, 5(1), 163-173.
- Stalans, L. J., & Finn, M. A. (2006). Public's and Police Officers' Interpretation and Handling of Domestic Violence Cases: Divergent Realities. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 21(9), 1129–1155. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260506290420>
- Tsui, V., (2014). Male Victims of Intimate Partner Abuse: Use and Helpfulness of Services. *Social Work*, 59(2), 121–13. <https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swu007>

Tsui, V., Cheung, M., & Leung, P. (2010). Help-seeking among male victims of partner abuse: Men's hard times. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 38(6), 769–780.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.20394>

Weisz, A. N., Black, B. M., & Nahan, N. (2005). Precinct domestic violence teams: Whose goals should determine program activities? *Journal of Family Social Work*, 9, 57-75.

APPENTICES

Appendix 1: Example of search strategy (Ch. 2)

PsychInfo – 25.01.19 – key words

"police*" OR "law enforcement" OR "constable" OR "constabulary" OR "police personnel" OR "social worker" OR "psychologist" OR "counsellor" OR "therapist" OR "clinician" OR "lawyer" OR "solicitor" OR "barrister" OR "attorney" OR "psychiatrist" OR "psychotherapist"

AND

"domestic violence" OR "intimate partner violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "spousal abuse" OR "spousal assault" OR "battered woman" OR "partner abuse"

AND

"gender" or "gender differences" or "male victims" or "male offenders" or "female offenders" or "male perpetrator" or "female perpetrator" or "sex differences"

☐	2	("police*" or "law enforcement" or "constable" or "constabulary" or "police personnel" or "social worker" or "psychologist" or "counsellor" or "therapist" or "clinician" or "lawyer" or "solicitor" or "barrister" or "attorney" or "psychiatrist" or "psychotherapist").mp. [mp=title, abstract, heading word, table of contents, key concepts, original title, tests & measures]	149188	Advanced	Display Results More ▾	
☐	3	("domestic violence" or "intimate partner violence" or "domestic abuse" or "spousal abuse" or "spousal assault" or "battered woman" or "partner abuse").mp. [mp=title, abstract, heading word, table of contents, key concepts, original title, tests & measures]	22371	Advanced	Display Results More ▾	
☐	4	("gender" or "gender differences" or "male victims" or "male offenders" or "female offenders" or "male perpetrator" or "female perpetrator" or "sex differences").mp. [mp=title, abstract, heading word, table of contents, key concepts, original title, tests & measures]	251444	Advanced	Display Results More ▾	
☐	5	2 and 3 and 4	298	Advanced	Display Results More ▾	

ASSIA - 25.01.19 – key words

ab("police*" OR "law enforcement" OR "constable" OR "constabulary" OR "police personnel" OR "social worker" OR "psychologist" OR "counsellor" OR "therapist" OR "clinician" OR "lawyer" OR "solicitor" OR "barrister" OR "attorney" OR "psychiatrist" OR "psychotherapist") AND ab("domestic violence" OR "intimate partner violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "spousal abuse" OR "spousal assault" OR "battered woman" OR "partner abuse") AND ab("gender" or "gender differences" or "male victims" or "male offenders" or "female offenders" or "male perpetrator" or "female perpetrator" or "sex differences")

51 results (searched abstract!)

Web of science - 25.01.19 – key words

"police*" OR "law enforcement" OR "constable" OR "constabulary" OR "police personnel" OR "social worker" OR "psychologist" OR "counsellor" OR "therapist" OR "clinician" OR "lawyer" OR "solicitor" OR "barrister" OR "attorney" OR "psychiatrist" OR "psychotherapist"

AND

"domestic violence" OR "intimate partner violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "spousal abuse" OR "spousal assault" OR "battered woman" OR "partner abuse"

AND

"gender" or "gender differences" or "male victims" or "male offenders" or "female offenders" or "male perpetrator" or "female perpetrator" or "sex differences".

Results: 289

(from Web of Science Core Collection)

You searched for: TOPIC:

("police*" OR "law enforcement" OR "constable" OR "constabulary" OR "police personnel" OR "social worker" OR "psychologist" OR "counsellor" OR "therapist" OR "clinician" OR "lawyer" OR "solicitor" OR "barrister" OR "attorney" OR "psychiatrist" OR "psychotherapist")

Refined by: TOPIC: ("domestic violence" OR "intimate partner violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "spousal abuse" OR "spousal assault" OR "battered woman" OR "partner abuse") AND TOPIC: ("gender" or "gender differences" or "male victims" or "male offenders" or "female offenders" or "male perpetrator" or "female perpetrator" or "sex differences")

Timespan: All years. **Indexes:** SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, BKCI-S, BKCI-SSH, ESCI, CCR-EXPANDED, IC.

[...Less](#)

Appendix 2: Including and Excluding Criteria (Ch. 2).

Reviewer Name: VK			Date:		
Author Name:			Year:		
Title:			Journal:		
Population	Include ☐ adult (male and female victims of IPV)	Exclude ☐ Population under 18 years old			
Exposure	Must Include ☐ police responses to IPV victims	Exclude ☐ police responses to child victims only			
Comparison	Must Include ☐ severity from major to minor Children presence or absence Victim male or female age	Exclude ☐ N/A			
Outcomes	Include interventions No further action	Exclude ☐ N/A			

	Interviewing victim Interviewing offender Attend the domestic environment Insuring children are safe Arresting the offender Charging the offender Prosecute the offender Caution the offender Interviewing witnesses Collecting forensic data	
Study Design	Include Primary observational research (case-control, cohort & cross-sectional studies) and quantitative studies.	Exclude Qualitative studies, Books or book chapters. Systematic literature reviews

Appendix 3: Data Extraction Form (Ch 2)

Reviewer: VK	Date:
Author:	Year:
Source:	Record number:

Study Design:

Cohort: ☐	Case-Control: ☐	Cross sectional: ☐	Other: ☐

Study Characteristics:

Year conducted:

Country/Location:

Independent variable:

Dependent variables:

Definition of IPV/DVA

Participants

Population and total sample size:

Sources of data:

Inclusion criteria:

Exclusion criteria:

Sample size of sub-groups

Exposure

Identification of abuse status (self-report, trauma symptoms checklist etc.):

Assessment tools:

Validity/reliability of tools:

Mediating variables measured:

Outcome

Police response to IPV victims

Analyses

Statistics used:

Effect Sizes

Confidence Intervals:

Confounding variables controlled for:

Handling of missing data:

Author conclusion:

Reviewer Notes

Appendix 4: Quality Assessment form (Ch. 2)

Quality Assessment Tool for Observational Cohort and Cross-Sectional Studies

<https://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/health-topics/study-quality-assessment-tools>

Criteria	Yes	No	Other (CD, NR, NA)*
1. Was the research question or objective in this paper clearly stated?			
2. Was the study population clearly specified and defined?			
3. Was the participation rate of eligible persons at least 50%?			
4. Were all the subjects selected or recruited from the same or similar populations (including the same time period)? Were inclusion and exclusion criteria for being in the study prespecified and applied uniformly to all participants?			
5. Was a sample size justification, power description, or variance and effect estimates provided?			
6. For the analyses in this paper, were the exposure(s) of interest measured prior to the outcome(s) being measured?			
7. Was the timeframe sufficient so that one could reasonably expect to see an association between exposure and outcome if it existed?			
8. For exposures that can vary in amount or level, did the study examine different levels of the exposure as related to the outcome (e.g., categories of exposure, or exposure measured as continuous variable)?			
9. Were the exposure measures (independent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?			
10. Was the exposure(s) assessed more than once over time?			
11. Were the outcome measures (dependent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?			

Influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse

12. Were the outcome assessors blinded to the exposure status of participants?			
13. Was loss to follow-up after baseline 20% or less?			
14. Were key potential confounding variables measured and adjusted statistically for their impact on the relationship between exposure(s) and outcome(s)?	✓		

*CD, cannot determine; NA, not applicable; NR, not reported

Quality Rating (Good, Fair, or Poor): Fair

Rater #1 initials:

Rater #2 initials:

Study title

Reference:

Appendix 5: Questionnaire for Police and Professionals on domestic violence and abuse (Ch. 3 & 4).

1. Please indicate what type of organization you represent:

- a. Police
- b. Social services
- c. Support agency
- d. Other

Organization name (Optional).....

2. Does your organization define domestic violence and abuse?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

If so, please state: (if not put N/A)

.....

3. Do you record the incidence of adult domestic violence by gender of the victim? (ie;. Women, men?)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

4. Do you record the incidence of adult domestic violence by gender of the offender? (i.e. Women, men?)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

5. Do you use categories based on the gender of the victim in comparison to the offender? Please tick those used

- ☐ Women by men?
- ☐ Women by women?
- ☐ Men by women?
- ☐ Men by men?

6. What other demographic variables are noted?

- ☐ Age of victim
- ☐ Age of offender?
- ☐ Ethnic group of victims?
- ☐ Ethnic group of offenders?

7. Action taken by the police YES/NO (Police Only - Not Applicable for Professionals)

(Tick one or more where applicable)

- ☐ Reported only - no action
- ☐ Arrested
- ☐ Charged
- ☐ Conviction
- ☐ Offender previously known to the police
- ☐ Victim Previously known to the police

8. Type of Violence Yes/No

(Tick one or more where applicable)

- ☐ Physical – minor
- ☐ Physical Moderate
- ☐ Physical – severe
- ☐ Sexual (as above)
- ☐ Psychological/Emotional (as above)
- ☐ Verbal (inc. email/text etc) Harassment
- Other (please state)

9. In the last 5 years, according to your records, has the frequency of all domestic violence against men changed? (approximately):

- ☐ Increased?
- ☐ Decreased?
- ☐ Stayed the same?
- ☐ Not recorded/Don't know.

10. In the last 5 years, according to your records, has the frequency of all domestic violence against women changed? (approximately):

- ☐ Increased?
- ☐ Decreased?
- ☐ Stayed the same?
- ☐ Not recorded/Don't know

This section (A) aims to find out what support is available to male victims of domestic violence

11 A. Are male victims encouraged to report incidents to the police?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

12 A. Are male victims encouraged to contact social services?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

13 A. Does your organization have staff trained in supporting male victims?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

14 A. Are you aware of 'safe refuges' in your area for the male victims of violence?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

15 A. Can they take their children?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

16 A. Are there Treatment/intervention programmes for male victims?

- ☐ Community
- ☐ Prison
- ☐ Don't know

17 A. Are there Treatment/intervention programmes for male offenders?

- ☐ Community
- ☐ Prison
- ☐ Don't know

18 A. Is there reluctance by men to report domestic violence against them?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

19 A. What are the reasons for men not to report? (tick one or more where applicable):

- ☐ Less likely to be listened to than women?
- ☐ Fear of discrimination by police or support staff?
- ☐ Fear of discrimination in criminal justice system?
- ☐ Fear of media reporting?
- ☐ Male peer group pressure?
- ☐ Other intimidation (family, work etc)
- ☐ Absence of support services?
- ☐ Fear of discrimination against same sex relationship by police or support staff
- ☐ Other?

20 A. What are the likely causes of domestic violence against men?

(tick one or more where applicable)

- ☐ Partner's general history of violence?
- ☐ Drug/alcohol abuse?
- ☐ Financial worries?
- ☐ Employment problems?
- ☐ Relationships (affairs, previous partners etc)?
- ☐ Retaliation against man's violent behavior?
- ☐ Issues with children in relationship?
- ☐ Lack of support in criminal justice system?
- ☐ Absence of alternative, safe accommodation?
- ☐ Cultural Practices
- ☐ Other?

This section (B) aims to find out what support is available to female victims of domestic violence

11 B. Are female victims encouraged to report incidents to the police?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

12 B. Are female victims encouraged to contact social services?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

13 B. Does your organization have staff trained in supporting female victims?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

14 B. Are you aware of 'safe refuges' in your area for the female victims of violence?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

15 B. Can they take their children?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

16 B. Are there Treatment/intervention programmes for female victims?

- ☐ Community
- ☐ Prison
- ☐ Don't know

17 B. Are there Treatment/intervention programmes for female offenders?

- ☐ Community
- ☐ Prison
- ☐ Don't know

18 B. Is there reluctance by women to report domestic violence against them?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Don't know

19 B. What are the reasons for women not to report? (tick one or more where applicable):

- ☐ Less likely to be listened to than men?
- ☐ Fear of discrimination by police or support staff?
- ☐ Fear of discrimination in criminal justice system?
- ☐ Fear of media reporting?
- ☐ Male peer group pressure?
- ☐ Other intimidation (family, work etc)
- ☐ Absence of support services?
- ☐ Fear of discrimination against same sex relationship by police or support staff?
- ☐ Other?

20 B. What are the likely causes of domestic violence against women?

(tick one or more where applicable)

- ☐ Partner's general history of violence?
- ☐ Drug/alcohol abuse?
- ☐ Financial worries?
- ☐ Employment problems?
- ☐ Relationships (affairs, previous partners etc)?
- ☐ Retaliation against woman's violent behavior?
- ☐ Issues with children in relationship?
- ☐ Lack of support in criminal justice system?
- ☐ Absence of alternative, safe accommodation?
- ☐ Cultural Practices
- ☐ Other?

Appendix 6: Questionnaire for Victims views on Police Response to Domestic Violence and Abuse (Ch.6)

Please provide a code name 4-8 characters in length (for use if wish to withdraw your questionnaire at any time):-----

Is your abusive partner a man or a woman: male/female (please specify)?

Please read the following notes before completing the form:

You don't have to answer questions that don't pertain to your situation.

You don't have to answer any question(s) you don't want to answer.

If more than one officer responded to your call, you can choose to answer regarding just one officer, or you can answer regarding both, referring to them as officer #1 and officer #2.

Feel free to put your comments, explanations, and things you remember, in the spaces between the questions or in the space provided at the end of the form.

PLEASE ANSWER THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN RELATION TO THE LAST INCIDENT OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND ABUSE YOU REPORTED TO THE POLICE.

Part 1: Demographic characteristics.

1. Your sex (please tick): Male Female

2. Your age in Years?

- ☐ 18-20
- ☐ 21-25
- ☐ 26-30
- ☐ 31-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ More than 50

3. What is your nationality?

- ☐ Greek
- ☐ Other

4. Are you?

- ☐ Married
- ☐ Cohabiting
- ☐ Single
- ☐ Widowed
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Separated

5. What kind of education do you have?

- ☐ Not educated
- ☐ Basic education
- ☐ High school
- ☐ Bachelor degree
- ☐ Master degree
- ☐ PhD

6. How many children do you have?

- ☐ No children
- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ More than 3

7. How many children live with you?

- ☐ No children
- ☐ More than 1

8. Are your children?

- ☐ Biological
- ☐ Adopted

9. Are you?

- ☐ Employed
- ☐ Unemployed

Part 2: Evaluation of the Police Response to Your Domestic Violence Call

a) The Interview:

1. Did you feel the officer showed concern for you and your safety?

Yes____ No___ Don't Know_____

2. Did the officer ask you about the history of abuse in the relationship?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

3. Did the officer ask you whether the abuser had ever been abusive to the children?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

4. Did the officer ask you specific information about any threats made against you?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

5. Did the officer ask you if your partner has ever forced you to have sex when you didn't want to have sex?

Yes____ No ____ Don't Know_____

b) Weapons:

6. Did the officer ask you if the abuser ever used weapons against you?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

7. Did the officer ask you if the abuser ever used weapons against your children?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

8. Did the officer ask if the abuser has weapons or has access to weapons?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

9. If you told the officer the abuser has weapon(s), did the officer remove the weapon(s)?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

C) Injuries and Evidence:

10. Did the officer ask about all your injuries?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

11. Did the officer take pictures of all your injuries or arrange to have pictures taken?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

12. Did the officer collect, or take pictures of, all physical evidence (such as knives, broken furniture, broken phone lines, message tapes, etc.)?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

d) Children and Witnesses:

13. Do any of your children have become victim of abuse?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

14. Do any of your children was observer of the abuse against you?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

15. Have your children or some of them encouraged you to call the police?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

16. Were your children pleased when the police arrived?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

17. Were any of your children afraid from the police?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

18. Were any of your children identified as safe by the police?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

19. Did the officer get a statement from each of the children who are old enough to talk?

Yes ____ No ____ Don't Know _____

20. If you were present, do you feel the officer interviewed your children with sensitivity (away from the perpetrator, with age-appropriate questions, at eye level with the children, and with a caring tone, etc.)

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

21. Did the officer remove the children from the place that you were interviewed?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

22. If the children were at home when the police arrived did the officer took them to a safe place?

Yes____ No ____ Don't Know_____

23. Did the officer ask you about the possibility of other witnesses?

Yes____ No ____ Don't Know _____

24. Did the police interview other possible witnesses or try to interview those witnesses?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know_____

e) Arrest:

25. Did the officer arrest the abuser?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know _____

26. If the abuser left the scene, did the officer ask where the abuser is?

Yes____ No____ Don't Know _____

f) Protective Orders:

27. Did the officer ask you if you have a protective order against the abuser? (A protective order can also be called a restraining order, stay away order, or no contact order.)

Yes____ No____

28. If you have a protective order, did the officer ask to see the order?

Yes____ No____

29. If you didn't have a restraining order, did the officer offer you an Emergency Protective Order?

Yes____ No____ Doesn't Apply _____

30. Did the officer issue you an Emergency Protective Order?

Yes____ No____

g) Information to the victim:

31. Did the officer give you verbal information on the services available to you?

Yes____ No____

32. Did the officer give you written information on the services available to you?

Yes____ No____

33. Did the officer give you the crime report number?

Yes____ No____

34. Did the officer ask you if you had any questions?

Yes____ No____

35. If you had questions, did the officer answer your questions to your satisfaction?

Yes____ No____

36. Did the officer adequately explain to you what will happen next and when it will happen?

Yes____ No____

h) Police Report:

37. Did the officer write up a domestic violence crime report?

Yes____ No____

38. Do the police report accurately reflect the story you told to the officer?

Yes____ No____

39. Do the police report accurately describe the history of abuse?

Yes____ No____

40. If the abuser has a criminal history did the police attach a copy of the abuser's criminal history to the domestic violence report?

Yes____ No____

41. If you told the officer about abuse to the children does the police report accurately describe that abuse?

Yes____ No____

42. Do the police report accurately describe incidents of forced sex?

Yes____ No____

43. Do the police report accurately describe all your injuries?

Yes____ No____

44. Are all threats against you correctly quoted in the police report?

Yes____ No____

45. Do the police report accurately record the statements of the children?

Yes____ No____

46. Do the police report contain the statements of the other witnesses?

Yes____ No____

47. Do the police report accurately list all the physical evidence available (pictures, weapons, broken furniture, broken telephone lines, message machine recordings, etc.)?

Yes____ No____

48. Overall, does the police report seem fair to you in the way it was written?

Yes____ No____

49. Overall, does the police report seem complete in covering the incident?

Yes____ No____

50. Do you feel that the recommended charges on the report are adequate to cover what happened to you? (See the list of domestic violence-related crimes listed below.)

Yes ____ No _____

END

Thank you for completing the form.

Appendix 7: Questionnaire to Assess Why Victims Stay In The Abusive

Relationship (Ch. 7)

Please provide a code name 4-8 characters in length (for use if wish to withdraw your questionnaire at any time): -----

Is your abusive partner a man or a woman: male/female (please specify)?

Please read the following notes before completing the form:

You don't have to answer questions that don't pertain to your situation.

You don't have to answer any question(s) you don't want to answer.

Feel free to put your comments, explanations, and things you remember, in the spaces between the questions or in the space provided at the end of the form.

PLEASE ANSWER THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN RELATION TO THE LAST RELATIONSHIP OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND ABUSE YOU REPORTED TO THE POLICE.

Part 1: Demographic characteristics.

1. Your Gender: male/female (please specify)

2. How old are you?

- ☐ 18-30
- ☐ 31-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ More than 50

3. Are you?

- ☐ Married
- ☐ Cohabiting
- ☐ Single
- ☐ Widowed
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Separated

4. What is your ethnicity?

- ☐ Greek
- ☐ English
- ☐ European
- ☐ Other White
- ☐ African
- ☐ Asian

5. Where do you live?

- ☐ Big city
- ☐ Small city
- ☐ Village

6. What kind of education do you have?

- ☐ Not educated
- ☐ Basic education
- ☐ High school
- ☐ Bachelor degree
- ☐ Master degree
- ☐ PhD

7. How many children do you have?

- ☐ No children
- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ More than 3

8. Are your children

- ☐ Biological
- ☐ Stepped
- ☐ Adopted

9. Are you?

- ☐ **Full-time Employed**
- ☐ **Part-time Employed**
- ☐ **Unemployed**

10. How much do you earn per year?

- ☐ **Less than 10,000 Euro**
- ☐ **10,000-20,000 Euro**
- ☐ **More than 20,000 Euro**

11. Do you earn more than your partner/ex partner?

- ☐ **Yes**
- ☐ **No**

12. Do you feel secure about money issues?

- ☐ **Yes**
- ☐ **No**

13. Do you earn enough to support yourself and your children?

- ☐ **Yes**
- ☐ **No**

14. Do you feel scared about your future?

- ☐ **Yes**
- ☐ **No**

15. Do you feel scared about your children's future?

- ☐ **Yes**
- ☐ **No**

16. How close are you with your parents?

- ☐ Very close
- ☐ Quite close
- ☐ Not at all

17. Do you believe they will support you if you ask for their help?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

18. Do you have close friends that you can trust?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

19. How often do you meet your friends?

- ☐ Two or more times per week
- ☐ Once a week
- ☐ Every two weeks
- ☐ Once a month
- ☐ Every two months
- ☐ Not at all

20. Did you stop/reduce seeing your friends because of your partner's/ex-partner's behavior?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

21. Is your partner ever rude to your friends?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ No

22. Is your partner ever rude to your children?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ No

23. Did you tell your family or friends what was happening?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

24. Did you tell anyone else what happened?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

25. If yes, did they offer any advice or support?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

26. For how long have you been in the abusive relationship at the time the first incident occurred?

- ☐ Up to a month
- ☐ 1month to 6 months
- ☐ 6 months to a year
- ☐ 1year to 5 years
- ☐ More than 5 years

27. Did you have any children at the time of the first incident?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

28. Research shows that many victims don't easily admit that this kind of behaviour is a serious problem. How easy was for you to accept the problem?

- ☐ Very easy (immediately after the first incident)
- ☐ Not very easy
- ☐ Very difficult (after many incidents with serious injuries).

29. For how long have you been in the abusive relationship before you decide to leave?

- ☐ I left immediately after the first incident.
- ☐ A couple of weeks
- ☐ Months
- ☐ Years

30. Some people feel that they have nowhere else to go. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

31. Some people are prevented from leaving the home or reaching out help. Has this ever happened to you?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

32. Some people feel anxious or nervous when they are around their partner. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

33. Do you watch what you are doing in order to avoid making your partner angry or upset?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

34. Have you ever try to change your behavior trying to make violence stop?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

35. Some people are so fearful from experiencing cycles of violence that they no longer believe escape is possible. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

36. Research shows that some people learn to see themselves as functionally helpless and powerless to escape their situation. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

37. Some people think they have invested so much in the relationship, they willing to tolerate the violence to save it. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

38. Some people believe that leaving would be to admit failure and defeat. Have you ever felt like that?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

39. Research shows that the expectation that more violence will occur in the future make many people not to leave their abusive relationship. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

40. Some people believe that staying would be better for their children, since they do not want to disrupt them by removing from them from their home, school or friends. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

41. Some people believe that if they live their partner might harm their children. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

42. Some people are afraid of voicing a different opinion than their partner. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ often

43. Does your partner criticize you or embarrass you in front of others?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

44. Does your partner check up on what you have been doing, and not believe your answers?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

45. Is your partner jealous, such as accusing you of having affairs?

☐ No

☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

46. Does your partner tell you that he or she will stop beating you when you start behaving yourself?

☐ No

☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

47. Some people are blamed by their partners that what is happening is their own fault. Have you ever been blamed?

☐ No

☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

48. Does your partner's behavior make you feel as if you are wrong?

☐ No

☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

49. Is your partner overly critical of daily things, such as your cooking, clearing, clothing etc?

☐ No

☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

50. Does your partner threaten to harm you?

☐ No

☐ Sometimes

☐ Often

51. Does your partner threaten to harm your children?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

52. Do you try to please your partner rather than yourself in order to avoid being hurt?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

53. Does your partner keep you from going out or doing things that you want to do?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

54. Do you feel that nothing you do is ever good enough for your partner?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

55. Does your partner say that if you try to leave him or her, you will never see your children again?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

56. Does your partner say that if you try to leave, he or she will kill himself or herself or you?

- ☐ No

- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

57. Does your partner say that if you try to leave, he or she will hurt your children?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

58. Is there always an excuse for your partner's behavior? ("The alcohol or drugs made me do it! My job is too stressful! If dinner were on time I wouldn't have hit you! I was just joking!")

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

59. Some people believe that this behaviour is going to change. Have you ever had this belief?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

60. Some people do not decide to leave because they still care for their partner. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

61. Some people became so affected from the violent situation that they stop believe to their selves. Have you ever felt like that?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

62. Some people became so affected from the violent situation that they feel completely useless. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

63. Some people became so affected from the violent situation that they feel guilty. Have you ever felt like that?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

64. Do you lie to your family, friends and doctor about your bruises, cuts and scratches?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

65. Some people believe that nothing could be done to change the violent situation. Have you ever felt the same?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

66. Some people become depressed and feel unable to cope with the violent situation. Have you ever suffered any depression symptomatology?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Yes

67. Some people become passive and do nothing to stop the violence. Have you ever felt like that?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

68. Have you ever verbally tried to stop it happening?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

69. Have you ever physically tried to stop it happening?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

70. Have you ever felt like staying in or returning to the abusive relationship?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

71. Do any of your children have become victim of abuse?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

72. Do any of your children was observer of the abuse against you?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

73. Have your children or some of them encouraged your decision to leave?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

74. Were any of your children afraid from the new situation?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Often

END – Thank you for participating.

Appendix 8: Letter sent to the Greek Police

Το ΓΕΝΙΚΗ ΑΣΤΥΝΟΜΙΚΗ ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ ΑΤΤΙΚΗΣ

ΥΠΟΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ ΑΣΦΑΛΕΙΑΣ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ

My name is Vasiliki Kravvariti and I am a PhD student undertaking a research on “The influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse” at the University of Nottingham. A part of my research is related with police recognition of the role of gender in domestic violence and the impact of this recognition on criminal justice proceedings.

Prior to undertaking the study, I need your agreement/consent to approach the ΓΕΝΙΚΗ ΑΣΤΥΝΟΜΙΚΗ ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ ΑΤΤΙΚΗΣ as well as the ΥΠΟΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ ΑΣΦΑΛΕΙΑΣ ΠΑΤΡΩΝ that are under the Υπουργείο Προστασίας του Πολίτη guidance, in order to ask for police data on Intimate Partner violence. I would also like to ask some members of the staff (police officers) to complete a questionnaire regarding their experiences with both IPV victims and offenders. I can assure you that I will make every effort to ensure the study does not disrupt the working environment in any way and any data collected will remain confidential. My research is supervised by Professor Kevin Browne.

Yours Sincerely

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti M.Sc., MBPsS,
PhD research student in Forensic Psychology.

If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me to the following e-mail:

msxvk5@nottingham.ac.uk

Appendix 9: Police and Professional study Information Sheet (Ch. 3 & 4)

I am a PhD Research Student in Forensic Psychology, Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine at the University of Nottingham, undertaking a study that will investigate “The influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse”.

If you agree to take part you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that will contain questions on how your organization records and monitors domestic violence and abuse, what support is available to both female and male victims of domestic violence, your perceptions on the role of gender within domestic violence and the impact of this recognition on criminal justice proceeding. There are no possible disadvantages and risks of taking part, apart from your time. There are no personal benefits either, apart from the help you are going to offer to the research.

It is expected that the study will last approximately 20-30 minutes.

Any data you do provide today will remain both confidential and anonymous and will be used only for the purposes outlined here. Your name is not going to appear anywhere, and only codes will be used in order to identify the data. Some of the results of the study may be published in scientific journals and presented at scientific conferences. All these data will be kept both anonymous and confidential, and there is no way for any personal information to be identified.

If you have any questions about this project, you may contact the Researcher **Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti M.Sc. (PhD research student in Forensic Psychology)**:

Email: msxvk5@nottingham.ac.uk,

OR if you have any concerns about any aspect of this study please contact the Research Supervisor: **Professor Kevin Browne, Director of the Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology.**

Email: kevin.browne@nottingham.ac.uk

You may also contact: FMHS Research Ethics Committee Administrator, c/o The University of Nottingham, School of Medicine Education Centre, B Floor, Medical School, Queen’s Medical Centre Campus, Nottingham University Hospitals, Nottingham, NG7 2UH.

E-mail: louise.sabir@nottingham.ac.uk.

As a participant you will be asked not to discuss the study with others until the study is completed. Please note that any information you may supply today will only be used for the purposes outlined here, and you may withdraw your assistant during the two following weeks and without explanation.

Thank you for your participation.

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti M.Sc.
PhD research student in Forensic Psychology.
University of Nottingham.

Appendix 10: Cover letter sent to Managers of the counseling and support services (Ch. 4, 6 & 7)

My name is Vasiliki Kravvariti and I am a PhD student undertaking a research on “The influence of gender on police and professionals dealing with domestic violence and abuse” at the University of Nottingham. The first part of my research is related with professional recognition of the role of gender within domestic violence and the impact of this recognition on criminal justice proceedings. The second part has to do with how satisfied DV victims feel from the amount of help and support available to them (both male and female) from the police and support organizations.

Prior to undertaking the study, I need your agreement/consent to approach your organization, in order to ask some members of the staff (psychologists, social workers) and clients to complete a small questionnaire regarding their experiences with both IPV victims and offenders. In addition, I am kindly asking you to help me circulating a small questionnaire to victims of domestic abuse who have attended your counseling centre, in order to collect the data for the second part of my study.

I can assure you that I will make every effort to ensure the study does not disrupt the working environment in any way and any data collected will remain confidential. There are no possible disadvantages and risks of taking part, apart from your time. There are no personal benefits either, apart from the help you are going to offer to the research.

I have already got ethical approval for the study from the University of Nottingham and Medical school Ethics Committee.

If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me:

Email: msxvk5@nottingham.ac.uk

My research is supervised by Professor Kevin Browne, PhD, MEd, MSc, C.Psychol (foren), FSB, Professor of Forensic Psychology & Child Health, University of Nottingham, B25, YANG Fujia Building, Jubilee Campus, Wollaton Road, Nottingham NG8 1BB.

Email: kevin.browne@nottingham.ac.uk.

Yours Sincerely

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti MBPsS,

PhD researcher in Forensic Psychology.

University of Nottingham.

Appendix 11: Victims study Information Sheet (Ch. 6 & 7)

INFORMATION SHEET

I am a PhD Research Student in Forensic Psychology, Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine at the University of Nottingham undertaking a study that will investigate intimate partner violence.

If you agree to take part you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that will contain questions about yourself, your socio-demographic profile (e.g. ethnicity, education, occupation) and lifestyle, as well as questions about the incident that has been reported to the police. Finally, there are questions that have to do about how helpful or not so helpful did you find the police response after your call for help and your feelings during the procedure.

There are no possible disadvantages and risks of taking part, apart from your time. There are no personal benefits either, apart from the help you are going to offer to the research.

It is expected that the study will last approximately 20-30 minutes.

Any data you do provide today will remain both confidential and anonymous and will be used only for the purposes outlined here. Your name is not going to appear anywhere, and only codes will be used in order to identify the data. Some of the results of the study may be published in scientific journals and presented at scientific conferences. All these data will be kept both anonymous and confidential, and there is no way for any personal information to be identified.

If you have any questions about this project, you may contact the Researcher **Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti M.Sc. (PhD research student in Forensic Psychology)**:

Email: msxvk5@nottingham.ac.uk,

OR if you have any concerns about any aspect of this study please contact the Research Supervisor: **Professor Kevin Browne, Director of the Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology.**

Email: kevin.browne@nottingham.ac.uk

You may also contact: FMHS Research Ethics Committee Administrator, c/o The University of Nottingham, School of Medicine Education Centre, B Floor, Medical School, Queen's Medical Centre Campus, Nottingham University Hospitals, Nottingham, NG7 2UH.

E-mail: louise.sabir@nottingham.ac.uk.

As a participant you will be asked not to discuss the study with others until the study is completed. Please note that any information you may supply today will only be used for the purposes outlined here, and you may withdraw your assistant during the two following weeks and without explanation.

Thank you for your participation.

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti M.Sc.
PhD research student in Forensic Psychology.
University of Nottingham.

Appendix 12: Consent form for victims (Ch. 6 & 7).

THE CONSENT FORM

I (please use a code name)

Give my full consent to take part in the following research investigation with the full understanding that any data I am going to provide are going to be anonymous and confidential and that I may withdraw during two weeks after completing the questionnaire without giving any reason.

If I withdraw from the study, the data that I have submitted will also be withdrawn at my request. I have received an information sheet explaining what the research entails and what will be expected from me.

I understand that the information that I will submit will be confidential and anonymous and used only for this study. I have read and understood the above information.

I agree/do not agree to participate in the study.

Signed:

Date:

To

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti M.Sc.

PhD research student in Forensic Psychology.

University of Nottingham,

E-mail: msxvk5@nottingham.ac.uk

Appendix 13: Ethical Approval Letter



Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences

Research Ethics Committee
School of Medicine Education Centre
B Floor, Medical School
Queen's Medical Centre Campus
Nottingham University Hospitals
Nottingham
NG7 2UH

Direct line/e-mail
+44 (0) 115 8232561
Louise.Sabir@nottingham.ac.uk

14th June 2016

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti
PhD Research Student in Forensic Psychology
Room B14
Centre for Family and Forensic Psychology
Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology
School of Medicine
YANG Fujia Building
Jubilee Campus, Wollaton Road
Nottingham
NG8 1BB



Dear Miss Kravvariti

Ethics Reference No: J11052016 – please always quote

Study Title: Domestic Violence Victims' perceptions on police response and on the amount of help and advice available to them.

Short Title: An Effort to understand how helpful or not so helpful victims found the police to be when they responded to their calls and how their cases were handled by the legal system.

Chief Investigator/Supervisors: Professor Kevin Browne, Professor of Forensic Psychology & Child Health, Director. Dr Simon Duff, Director of Top-up Doctorate in Forensic Psychology, Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology, Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine,

Lead Investigators/student: Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti, PhD Research Student in Forensic Psychology, Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine.

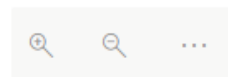
Type of Study: Pilot, questionnaire, mixed qualitative/quantitative, vulnerable adults. Overseas study.

Proposed Start Date: 15/06/2016 **Proposed End Date:** 15/06/2018

No of Subjects: 100 **Age:** 18+yrs

Thank you for submitting the above application which was considered by the Committee and the following documents were received:

- FMHS Research Ethics Application Form dated 11th May 2016
- Study Proposal dated 7 June 2016
- Invitation letter to Counselling Service centres in Greece
- Invitation letter to participants - victims
- Participant Information Sheet – victims
- Invitation letter to police and support organisations
- Participant Information sheet – police and support organisations
- Consent Form
- Form/questionnaire for Evaluating Police Response to Domestic Violence.



These have been reviewed and are satisfactory and the study is approved.

Approval is given on the understanding that the conditions set out over the page are followed:



1. A Favourable opinion is given on the understanding that all appropriate ethical and regulatory permissions are respected and followed in accordance with all local laws of the country in which the study is being conducted and those required by the host organisation/s involved.
2. You must follow the protocol agreed and inform the Committee of any changes using a notification of amendment form (please request a form).
3. You must notify the Chair of any serious or unexpected event.
4. This study is approved for the period of active recruitment requested. The Committee also provides a further 5 year approval for any necessary work to be performed on the study which may arise in the process of publication and peer review.
5. An End of Project Progress Report is completed and returned when the study has finished (Please request a form).

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "pp Lomigadu".

Professor Ravi Mahajan
Chair, Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee



**Faculty of Medicine and
Health Sciences**

Research Ethics Committee
School of Medicine Education Centre
B Floor, Medical School
Queen's Medical Centre Campus
Nottingham University Hospitals
Nottingham
NG7 2UH

Direct line/e-mail
+44 (0) 115 8232561
Louise.Sabir@nottingham.ac.uk

14th June 2016

Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti
PhD Research Student in Forensic Psychology
Room B14
Centre for Family and Forensic Psychology
Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology
School of Medicine
YANG Fujia Building
Jubilee Campus, Wollaton Road
Nottingham
NG8 1BB



Dear Miss Kravvariti

Ethics Reference No: K11052016 – please always quote	
Study Title: Professional recognition of the role of gender within different patterns of domestic violence and the impact of this recognition on criminal justice proceedings.	
Short Title: An Effort to understand how professionals evaluate different patterns of IPV.	
Chief Investigator/Supervisors: Professor Kevin Browne, Professor of Forensic Psychology & Child Health, Director. Dr Simon Duff, Director of Top-up Doctorate in Forensic Psychology, Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology, Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine,	
Lead Investigators/student: Miss Vasiliki Kravvariti, PhD Research Student in Forensic Psychology, Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine.	
Type of Study: Pilot, questionnaire, mixed qualitative/quantitative, Professionals.	
Proposed Start Date: 15/06/2016	Proposed End Date: 15/06/2018
No of Subjects: 200	Age: 18+yrs

Thank you for your letter dated 2nd June 2016 responding the comments made by the Committee and the following documents were received:

- FMHS Research Ethics Application Form dated 11th May 2016
- Study Proposal dated 11th May 2016
- Letter of invitation to police organisations dated 02/06/2016
- Information Sheet dated 02/06/2016
- Consent Form dated 02/06/2016
- Police and Domestic Violence support organization Questionnaire

These have been reviewed and are satisfactory and the study is approved.

Approval is given on the understanding that the conditions set out below are followed:



1. A Favourable opinion is given on the understanding that all appropriate ethical and regulatory permissions are respected and followed in accordance with all local laws of the country in which the study is being conducted and those required by the host organisation/s involved.
2. You must follow the protocol agreed and inform the Committee of any changes using a notification of amendment form (please request a form).



3. You must notify the Chair of any serious or unexpected event.
4. This study is approved for the period of active recruitment requested. The Committee also provides a further 5 year approval for any necessary work to be performed on the study which may arise in the process of publication and peer review.
5. An End of Project Progress Report is completed and returned when the study has finished (Please request a form).

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "pp Lomigabni".

Professor Ravi Mahajan
Chair, Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 14: Glossary of Terms

AR	Abusive Relationship
AOD	Alcohol and/or Drug use
BSAFER	Brief Spousal Assault Form for the Evaluation of Risk
CAN	Child Abuse and Neglect
CPU	Child Protection Units
CSEW	Crime Survey for England and Wales
CTS	Conflict Tactics Scale
DASH	Domestic Abuse, Stalking and Honour Based Violence
DVA	Domestic Violence and Abuse
DV	Domestic Violence
DVU	Domestic Violence Unit
DoH	Department of Health
DPDSS	Dimos Patreon Department of Social Support: Patra, Greece
EAVN	European Anti-Violence Network
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EKKA	The National Centre for Social Solidarity: Athens, Greece
FE	Fisher's Exact Test
FV	Female Victims
GBH	Grievous Bodily Harm
GOG	Greece Office for Gender Equality
GONIS	The Parental Equality Association: Athens Greece
HMIC	Her Majesty's Inspectorate of (police) Constabulary
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
ITM	Intergenerational Transmission Model
KETHI	The Research Centre for Gender Equality: Athens, Greece
MAPPA	Multi Agency Public Protection Arrangements
MARAC	Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conferences
MV	Male Victims
NCADV	National Coalition Against Domestic Violence USA
NFA	No Further Action
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NIBRS	National Incident-Based Reporting System
NISVS	The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey USA
ONS	Office for National Statistics
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
RCMP	Royal Canadian Mounted Police
RDD	Random-Digit-Dial

SLR	Systematic Literature Review
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SYGAPA	The ASSOCIATION FOR MEN & FATHERS DIGNITY and EQUAL PARENTITY: Athens, Greece
UWAH	United Women Associations of Heraklion: Crete, Greece
WHO	World Health Organisation