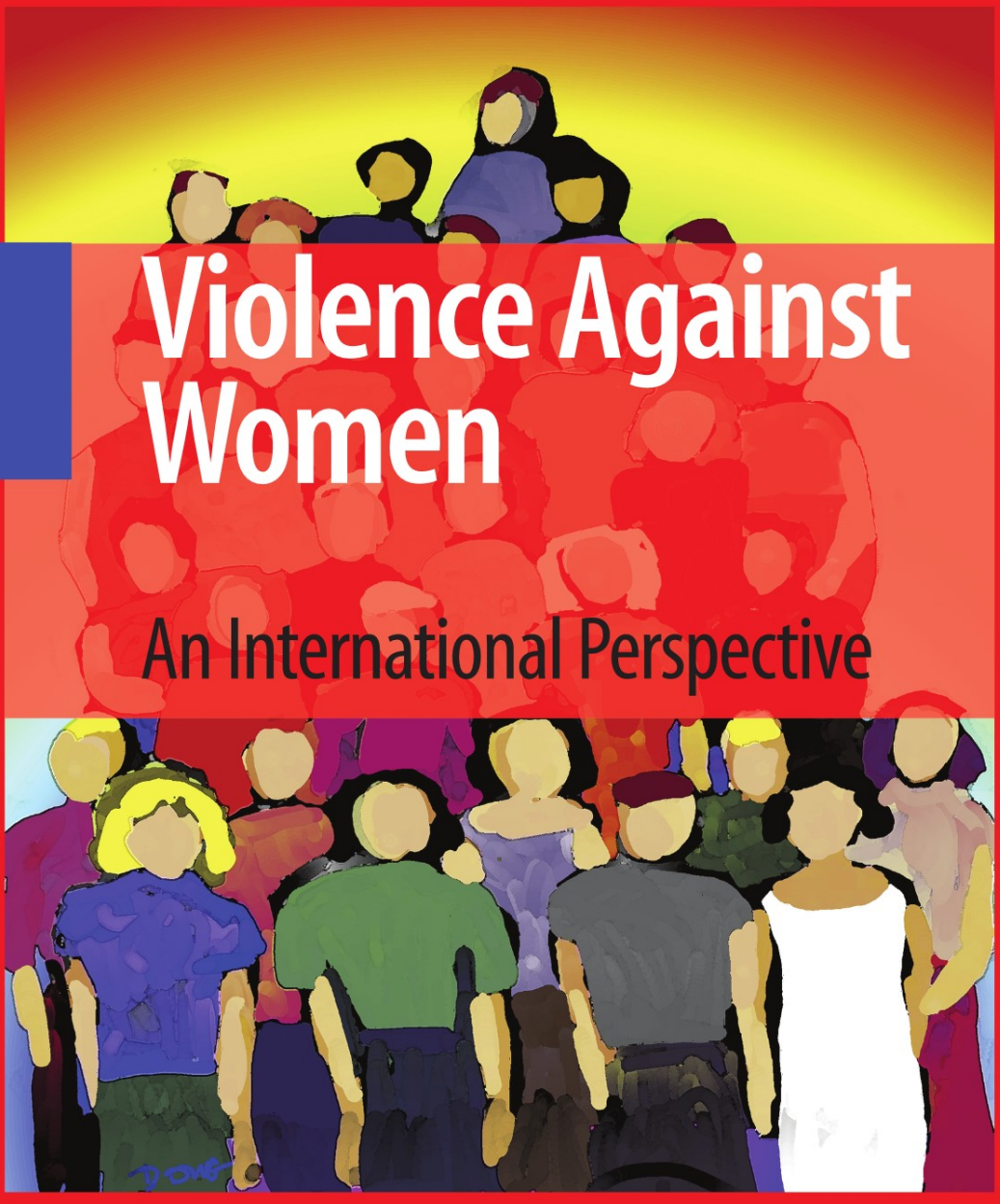
Holly Johnson • Natalia Ollus • Sami Nevala



Violence Against Women

An International Perspective

Springer

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ISBN: 978-0-387-73203-9 e-ISBN: 978-0-387-73204-6

Library of Congress Control Number: 2007934750

Printed on acid-free paper.

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

springer.com

Foreword

In December 2006, the United Nations General Assembly adopted a resolution on "intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women" (A/RES/61/143). This resolution followed the launch of the Secretary-General's in-depth study on violence against women in October 2006 (A/61/122/Add.1 and Corr.1), and is the first-ever comprehensive action by the General Assembly on this persistent scourge that potentially affects one woman in three in the course of her lifetime.

The resolution urges Member States to exercise leadership and devise systematic, comprehensive, multi-sectoral and sustained approaches, adequately supported and facilitated by strong institutional mechanisms and financing, to eliminate all forms of violence against women. In particular, it calls upon Member States to establish national plans of action on the elimination of violence against women; undertake legislative, capacity-building and awareness-raising measures; provide services for women; and ensure the systematic collection and analysis of data.

The resolution calls upon the entities of the United Nations system to support national efforts, especially with respect to data collection and the development of national plans of action. It urges them to enhance coordination and intensify their efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls. It also notes the need to provide adequate resources to efforts throughout the United Nations system to eliminate violence against women and girls.

The Secretary-General's study and the General Assembly resolution represent significant new milestones in the dedicated endeavours to commit the necessary political will and resources to prevent all forms of violence against women, prosecute and punish perpetrators, and ensure access to justice and services for victims.

The urgent need for action is clearly demonstrated by the scope and prevalence of all forms of violence against women, in all parts of the world. Surveys and research make such violence visible, confirm its scope and prevalence, and serve to reinforce the message that all such violence is unacceptable and must be prevented and eliminated.

Data are key for assessing trends in forms and manifestations of violence against women. They can also give a profile of victims/survivors, as well as perpetrators; clarify the impact and consequences for women, families, communities and nations; and assess the effectiveness of measures taken to prevent and address all forms of

violence against women. This knowledge is critical for enhancing targeted legal, policy and programmatic responses to violence against women.

While researchers and data collectors have long been faced with the challenge of developing reliable and valid techniques to define and measure violence against women, enormous strides have been made in recent years to improve the collection of quantitative data. Since the early 1990s, two major approaches have emerged with regard to data collection on violence against women. One approach is the dedicated study that is designed to gather detailed information on the extent of different forms of violence against women. Several countries, particularly in Europe and North America, have carried out dedicated national surveys on violence against women, many of which are modelled on the 1993 Canadian Violence against Women Survey.

A second approach includes questions about violence against women within an ongoing large-scale study that is designed to generate information about a different subject. The Demographic and Health Surveys are examples of this approach.

Users of data – policy makers at national and international level, activists, researchers and service providers – have, however, also been concerned about a lack of comparability of prevalence and its correlates, in different countries, and over time, as the lack of such comparability has been an obstacle for drawing conclusions from different experiences, and for identifying good practice and lessons learned. These challenges have recently been addressed by two path-breaking efforts, the 2006 WHO Multi-Country Study on Domestic Violence and Women's Health; and the more recent International Violence against Women Surveys (IVAWS).

While the WHO Multi-Country study was undertaken from a public health perspective, the IVAWS collect nationally representative data on a broad array of violent acts perpetrated by men against women, including physical and sexual violence by intimate partners and other men, and highlights the role of the criminal justice system and its response to the needs of the individual victim. These surveys and the present study *Violence Against Women* provide insights about the adequacy of legal measures and of the role of the criminal justice sector in responding to violence against women in general.

The present study reflects the results of the IVAWS conducted in nine countries. It makes a unique and timely contribution to the growing body of knowledge on violence against women. The study confirms that solid methodologies and procedures for data collection on violence against women are now in place to generate a reliable body of evidence on the extent, nature and consequences of violence against women. Importantly, it also confirms that such work can – and must – be undertaken while adhering to key principles of ethical research.

The individual surveys analysed in this study have significantly expanded the knowledge base of reliable statistical data on violence against women in the countries concerned. They have strengthened national research capacity and heightened the urgency for political leaders and decision-makers to implement comprehensive and targeted measures to end this violence.

The value of this study goes well beyond the contribution of important country-specific information. The three authors have analyzed a wealth of assembled national data and drawn pertinent conclusions that will give further impetus and incentive for collecting data that is comparable across countries, and over time.

Such comparability is critical to demonstrate that violence against women is a global challenge that persists in every country. Comparable data and analysis also enhances the capacity to evaluate existing measures to tackle violence against women, assess trends over time, and better understand gaps in prevention and response.

The study confirms that tools for active data collection on violence against women are available and need to be applied consistently to strengthen the knowledge base for action. The detailed discussion of the methodology, as well as the inclusion of the survey questionnaire in this book, will further enhance the value of the study for researchers in all parts of the world undertaking similar work. The study draws important comparative links to the findings of a range of earlier population-based surveys on prevalence and severity of violence against women, the impact and consequence, as well as correlates of such violence. It also carefully notes where it differs in approach and conclusions from such earlier work, and identifies continuing challenges to the comparability of the findings in the nine countries that used the IVAWS methodology. The validation by the three authors of their findings in relation to the available extensive body of research and literature significantly enhances the value of the study.

Data collection, together with qualitative research and analysis on violence against women, are a basis for prevention and intervention. Such research and data collection must be geared towards action: insights gained must galvanize political will and the commitment of resources, inform policy development and implementation, as well as the provision of support and services to victims of violence.

Many actors continue to ask the question: what can be done to end violence against women? There are no easy answers to this question – effective methodologies for evaluation continue to elude us. At the same time, there is a growing understanding among policy makers and advocates that responding to violence against women requires a comprehensive approach that addresses root causes of violence against women – the unequal power relations between women and men, and the persistence of inequality and of structural discrimination against women in law and in practice. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, mandated to monitor implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, consistently engages States parties in dialogue about their efforts in tackling violence against women, and which the Committee has clarified is discrimination within the meaning of article 1 of the Convention.

Many approaches of good – or promising – practice in addressing violence against women have in common key elements that include a focus on promotion of gender equality and women's enjoyment of their human rights; leadership and resources; the need for strengthening the knowledge base about violence against women; and closing the gap between international norms and standards and their implementation at the national level through adequate laws, policies and practices that include accountability of offenders, enhanced services for victims, and monitoring and evaluation of measures taken.

The present study contributes to the consensus about the need for comprehensive approaches by highlighting many of these areas for action. It directly responds to

one of the key areas for action highlighted in the Secretary-General's study, namely to strengthen the knowledge base. It also builds and reinforces other key areas for action, such as the promotion of gender equality.

The authors are to be congratulated on this most timely and pertinent study that does much to advance our knowledge about prevalence, incidence, impact and consequences of violence against women, and draws important lessons not only for the countries studied but for policy makers, activists and researchers around the world who are committed to ending violence against women.

Christine Brautigam
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June 2007

Note: The views expressed are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of the United Nations Secretariat.

Acknowledgement

The International Violence against Women Survey project started ten years ago out of the need to come up with reliable measures of women's experiences of male violence on an international comparative basis. The development of the survey has been a collective effort from the beginning and several people and organizations have been involved along the way. This book has greatly benefited from their input and cooperation. We would especially like to thank Kauko Aromaa, Director of the European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations (HEUNI) for hosting and supporting the IVAWS project. We also want to acknowledge the support of the Canadian Department of Justice and the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) who hosted important planning meetings with participating countries.

Without the IVAWS national coordinators and their teams in the eleven participating countries this book would not have been possible. We would like to thank them all for their hard work and commitment. They are:

Australia: Jenny Mouzos and Toni Makkai, Australian Institute of Criminology
Costa Rica: Montserrat Sagot, University of San José
Czech Republic: Simona Pikálková and Jiři Buriánek, Charles University
Denmark: Britta Kyvsgaard, Ministry of Justice
Greece: Sevaste Chatzifotiou, Democritus University of Thrace
Hong Kong: Roderic Broadhurst and John Bacon-Shone, University of Hong Kong
Italy: Maria Giuseppina Muratore, Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT)
Mozambique: Sansao Buque, Ministry of Women and Social Affairs, Gregorio Firmino and Alda Saute, University of Eduardo Mondlane
Philippines: Celia Sanidad-Leones, National Police Commission
Poland: Beata Gruszczynska, University of Warsaw
Switzerland: Martin Killias, University of Lausanne

A special thanks goes to Anna Alvazzi del Frate, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, for her long-term support for the IVAWS project and this book. We are

grateful not only for her professional involvement but also for her friendship. A big thank you also to Laura Pavezka for her help with data verification.

Finally, we want to thank all the women who were interviewed for the IVAWS in the various countries. We are very grateful for the courage and trust you have shown by sharing your experiences. This book is dedicated to all of you.

Contents

Chapter 1
Violence Against Women Worldwide: Setting the Context

> *Gender-based violence is perhaps the most wide-spread and socially tolerated of human rights violations. . . .It both reflects and reinforces inequities between men and women and compromises the health, dignity, security and autonomy of its victims.*
>
> *(United Nations Population Fund 2005:65)*

Agencies of the United Nations have declared in many documents and forums that violence against women is an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace. As such, women's vulnerability to violence violates and impairs enjoyment of their human rights and fundamental freedoms (www.un.org/womenwatch). It has been described by the Secretary-General of the UN as the most shameful human rights violation and perhaps the most pervasive (UNIFEM 2003:8).

Decades of research and action have lead to a deeper understanding of the multi-faceted nature of male violence directed at women. Such acts of violence encompass human rights, health, criminal justice, economic and social justice dimensions. However, the prevalence and breadth of women's experiences of male violence are only gradually becoming known. The World Bank estimates that, globally, violence causes more ill-health for women than malaria and traffic accidents combined and that it is equally serious in causing death and incapacity among women of reproductive age as cancer (World Bank 1993). The direct and indirect economic consequences of violence against women, both at an individual and a societal level, are beginning to be documented (see e.g. Day 1995; Piispa & Heiskanen 2001; Walby 2004; WHO 2004a).

Violence against women takes many forms. The 1993 United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women was the first to arrive at an internationally agreed upon definition of violence as it pertains to women's experiences. Violence was defined as:

> any act that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life.

The Declaration specifies that this definition should encompass, but not be limited to, acts of physical, sexual, and psychological violence in the family, community or perpetrated or condoned by the State where it occurs. The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action expanded on this definition, specifying that violence against women

includes violations of the rights of women in situations of armed conflict, including systematic rape, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy, forced sterilization, forced abortion, coerced or forced use of contraceptives, prenatal sex selection and female infanticide.

Around the world, women suffer intimate partner violence, marital rape, rape by other men known to them and by strangers, incest, foeticide, sexual harassment, trafficking for the purposes of forced labour or prostitution, dowry-related violence, honour killings, other forms of femicide, acid attacks, and female genital mutilation. These acts are considered to be "gender-based" violence because they are committed almost exclusively by men against women, and are supported by gender inequalities at the societal level (Heise et al. 1999; Johnsson-Latham 2005). Individual acts of violence are supported overtly or tacitly by cultural, social or religious norms and economic inequalities, which can serve to undermine legal prohibitions against such acts. The term "gender-based violence" underscores the links between women's social and economic status and their vulnerability to male violence.

Studies have confirmed that violence affects vast numbers of women around the globe. In a summary of 80 population-based surveys conducted in more than 50 countries, Ellsberg & Heise (2005) find that:

- between 10% and 60% of women who have ever been married or had a partner have experienced at least one incident of physical violence by an intimate partner
- rates of intimate partner violence in a single year range from 3% or less in the United States, Australia and Canada, to 27% in Leon, Nicaragua, 38% in Korea, and 52% of Palestinian women in the West Bank and Gaza Strip
- women are more likely to be murdered by an intimate partner than by anyone else
- one-half of ever-partnered women in some countries have experience sexual violence by an intimate partner

In addition, up to one-half of adolescent girls women report their first sexual encounter as coerced (Krug et al. 2002).

While progress has been made in tackling violence against women and providing supports to victims in many countries, new forms are emerging. Human trafficking is overtaking drug smuggling as one of the world's fastest growing illegal activities, although estimates of the dimensions of the problem vary. A report by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime estimates that between 700,000 and 2 million people are trafficked each year (UNODC 2006). The Unites States 2005 *Trafficking in Persons* report estimates that between 600,000 and 800,000 persons are trafficked each year, the majority for commercial sexual exploitation (US State Department 2005). Approximately 80% are women and girls.

The impacts of violence on women, girls and societies can be profound. According to OXFAM, there are 50 million fewer women in South Asia today than there should be due to sex-selective abortions, violence and neglect. Girls and women have less to eat than boys and men, are often denied an education, are forced into dowry marriages, and have little or no access to proper health care (OXFAM International 2004). The premature death of women and girls due to gender discrimination, unequal access to resources, violence and neglect is known as the "missing women" phenomenon (Klasen & Wink 2003). Worldwide, missing women number approximately 100 million (Sen 2003).

Victims who survive often experience long-lasting harms: emotional and psychological trauma, post-traumatic stress disorder and other mental health problems, substance abuse problems, physical injury, and poor reproductive health (Campbell et al. 2002). Women who leave abusive partners are often poorer as a result. Effects on their children can include poor mother-child bonding, compromised cognitive and social development, and the psychological impacts of witnessing violence against their mothers (Berman et al. 2004). Male children have an increased risk of growing up to be abusive themselves, and girls have an increased risk of victimisation later in life (Johnson 1996).

The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS draws the links between deep-rooted gender inequalities and women's vulnerability to gender-based violence and their heightened vulnerability to HIV infection (WHO 2004b). In Africa, women and girls bear the brunt of HIV infection. They have the highest prevalence rate of infection due to sexual violence and inequality within marriage which makes it difficult for them to negotiate condom use and safe sex in their relationships. They are also at risk of violence if they test positive for the virus (Lewis 2005). In conflict settings, sexual violence is widespread and women face a heightened risk of exposure to HIV infections through rape and having to engage in sex work for survival. HIV/AIDS is an additional risk factor for women who are trafficked into sex work or forced into prostitution.

Violence against women is a deeply entrenched problem in most societies because attitudes and practices that support violence are institutionalized in custom and law at all levels of society—marriage and the family, home, community and state. Women traditionally have not had access to positions of authority in society and therefore have not had the power to define what is harmful to them and what actions should be undertaken to prevent violence and provide support to victims (Kelly 1988; UNIFEM 2003). The perpetration of violence against women and the inadequacy of responses to it are a direct result of women's lower social and economic status. The reverse is also true: a pervasive culture of gender-based violence erodes women's fundamental rights to life, health, security, bodily integrity, political participation, food, work and shelter (OXFAM 2004). Even where violence against women is officially prohibited by law, societal attitudes and legal systems are permeated by social norms that reinforce gender inequality and prevent women from having access to justice. In countries where prohibitions against sexual assault and intimate partner violence exist, weak enforcement of laws reduces their effectiveness. It is little wonder that sexual assault and intimate partner violence are the most under-reported of all crimes (Lievore 2003, 2005).

The International Framework

Early scholarship in the area of violence against women in the 1970s tended to be rooted in a criminal justice perspective (Tjaden 2005). Acts of violence were conceptualised as criminal code violations and the focus of research and activism was on improving the criminal justice and legal responses to offenders and victims. In the 1990s, violence against women began to be viewed as a public health problem and was identified as a leading cause of injury and death to women. Public

health agencies, including the World Health Organization, became active in violence prevention and public awareness campaigns, and surveillance and monitoring was broadened through women's health and reproductive clinics. In 1993, the Global Campaign for Women's Human Rights led the effort to place women's human rights on the agenda of the World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna. This was the critical point at which violence against women became recognised as a human rights issue. The human rights perspective helps broaden the understanding of what should be included under a definition of violence against women from one that is narrowly understood as a private matter between married couples or an attack by a stranger on the street. to a broader definition that includes rape in war, rape against women in refugee camps, rape by police and military and peace keeping personnel, trafficking of women for sexual exploitation, and harmful traditional practices, such as forced marriages, genital cutting, honor crimes and bride burning (Tjaden 2005). Not only does the human rights perspective broaden the definition of violence against women, it also focuses attention on discrimination and inequalities that are maintained or tolerated by the state and that increase women's vulnerability to violence. These include restrictions on women's ability to inherit property, obtain a divorce, and access education, health care and employment (Human Rights Watch 1999). At the 1995 UN Conference on Women in Beijing, governments agreed that respect for women's rights must be the cornerstone of efforts to improve women's political, economic and social status.

The recognition that violence against women is a violation of their human rights is considered a significant turning point in the fight to end violence and respond to the needs of victims (UNIFEM 2003). Norms and standards hold governments accountable for sustaining conditions that perpetuate violence and call on them to take steps to address the problem. The human rights perspective effectively provides governments with a framework for action and has helped frame the issue within the context of women's social and economic inequality and linked to other forms of discrimination that affect their status. For non-governmental agencies, these international instruments have become important tools for bringing pressure to bear on governments to bring about change to fulfil their obligations under international law to prevent violence and punish the perpetrators (UNIFEM 2003). Civil society now has access to mechanisms that have been developed to hold States accountable, including treaty bodies, international criminal tribunals, as well as the African, European and inter-American human rights systems (United Nations 2006). This empowers women as holders of rights rather than passive recipients of discretionary benefits.

Until 1945, international law did not focus specifically on the rights of individuals. The birth of the United Nations changed this as the Charter—and thus the founding principles of the United Nations—condemned any discrimination on the basis of race, sex, language or religion. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 further strengthened the rights of individuals. It also included a specific provision on equality between men and women, although the different gendered realities of men and women were not considered. Furthermore, these two early tools did not offer any concrete guidelines for preventing discrimination against women (Fedler & Tanzer 2000; Nousiainen & Pylkkänen 2001). In the 1950s and 1960s

the United Nations adopted instruments governing women's political rights as well as conventions on women's rights in marriage (see e.g. Fedler & Tanzer 2000). However, although the international human rights instruments were based on the principles of generality, equality and non-discrimination, women's rights and issues were largely marginalized in international law until the 1970s (Pentikäinen 1999).

A range of bodies, offices and agencies within the United Nations, including the World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), and the United Nations Office for Drugs and Crime (UNODC) are actively engaged in conducting research and implementing programs to combat gender-based violence. UN HABITAT, through its Safer Cities Programme, is working to improve women's safety in cities by providing guidelines for conducting safety audits in public spaces. Through community-based research and consultation, conceptual models and practical tools have been developed for use with non-governmental organizations and local governments to prevent gender-based violence (Michau & Naker 2004)

Violence against women has also been the focus of attention of agreements at a regional level. For example:

- The 1994 Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence Against Women (Belém do Pará) was one of the first regional treaties focusing exclusively on violence against women.
- The Southern African Development Community (SADC) adopted in 1998 an addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence against Women and Children to the 1997 SADC Declaration on Gender and Development. The Addendum identifies violence against women as a violation of women's human rights and as an impediment to sustainable development.
- In 2003, the African Union adopted a Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights. The Protocol obliges African states, among other issues, to take measures to eliminate all forms of discrimination and violence against women.
- The Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) adopted a Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the ASEAN Region in 2004.
- The European Forum for Urban Security adopted a declaration at the *Security and Democracy* conference in 2000, which contains recommendations for action on violence and women in cities.
- The Council of Europe adopted measures to counter violence against women in 2002 and urged Member States to tighten laws and increase public education.
- Two major initiatives on violence against women were launched by the European Union (EU) in 1997: the *European Campaign to Raise Awareness of Violence Against Women* and the *Daphne Programme*. The *Daphne Programme* is a community preventive action programme to combat violence against children, young people and women. It funds NGO and partnership projects, networks, and media campaigns, on domestic violence, trafficking, migrant and refugee women.

Table 1.1 lists some of the international conventions and instruments aimed at preventing gender-based violence.

Table 1.1 Selected international conventions and instruments aimed at preventing gender-based violence

Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, 1967	Recognised that discrimination against women denies and limits their equality of rights with men, is fundamentally unjust and constitutes an offence against human dignity.
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1979	Recognizes that discrimination is related to gender but did not include a focus on violence against women. However, in 1992, a General Recommendation noted that gender-based violence is discrimination within the meaning of CEDAW and is a hindrance to women's enjoyment of fundamental rights and freedoms. Member States are now required to report to the CEDAW committee on steps taken to combat forms of violence against women.
Third Conference on the Status of Women, Nairobi, 1985	Between 1976 and 1985 the UN celebrated the Decade for Women which helped place attention on women's rights. The Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women declared that violence against women is a hindrance to the achievement of development, equality and peace. It called for preventive policies, legal measures, national machinery and comprehensive assistance to victims.
World Conference on Human Rights, Vienna, 1993	Women's rights officially became recognised as human rights. Called for mainstreaming of women's human rights throughout United Nations programs.
Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, 1993	Included the first internationally agreed-upon definition of violence against women. The declaration makes clear the obligations of governments to address violence against women. The following year a Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women was established at the UN High Commission for Human Rights.[a]
Ad hoc tribunals for war crimes in Yugoslavia and Rwanda, 1993	Recognized rape as a crime against humanity. The following year, the UN Panel stated that rape related to ethnic cleansing constitutes genocide.
Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 1995	Violence against women was identified as an area that is critical for strengthening women's rights and gender equality. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action adopted a broad definition of violence against women and requires Member States to prevent and combat violence against women and trafficking in women, undertake research and assist victims. Gender-based violence was recognized as a threat to women's health and human rights.

(continued)

Table 1.1 (continued)

The United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders 1985, 1990 and 1995	Adopted resolutions on violence against women and domestic violence. The UN Crime Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice in 1996 received a plan of action on the subject of women and violence. The plan was based on the Resolution on the Elimination of Violence against Women adopted by the Ninth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders (Cairo, 1995), and the Fourth World Conference on Women. In 1997, the UN Commission approved a resolution on the elimination of violence against women.
General Assembly Resolution on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Measures to Eliminate violence Against Women, 1997	Urges member states to take measures to ensure that women are treated fairly by the criminal justice system, calls for research on the causes and consequences of violence against women, outlines preventive measures and includes model strategies for eradicating violence.
Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 1998	Codified rape, sexual slavery, forced prostitution, force pregnancy, forced sterilization or any other form of sexual violence in armed conflict as crimes against humanity and war crimes.
Beijing +5, Special Session of the General Assembly of the UN, 2000	The session added six more aspects of violence against women to be addressed by governments: crimes of honour; dowry-related violence; violence against widows and indigenous women; racially motivated violence; marital rape and forced and early marriages. Failure of States to aid victims of violence may constitute a human rights violation.
UN Security Council Resolution on Women, Peace and Security, 2000	Calls for participation of women in peace processes, gender training in peacekeeping operations, protection of women and girls and respect for their rights, and gender mainstreaming in the reporting and implementation systems of the UN relating to conflict, peace and security.
UN Guidelines for Crime Prevention, 2002	Include recognition of gender and diversity as one of the basis principles for strategic crime prevention at state and local levels.
UN General Assembly Resolution Working towards the Eliminations of Crimes Against Women Committed in the Name of Honour, 2004	Called upon States to continue to intensify efforts to prevent and eliminate honour crimes against women and girls, to investigate, prosecute and document honour crimes and punish perpetrators, to intensify efforts to raise awareness with the aim of changing attitudes and behaviour that allow such crimes to be committed.

[a] For more information on the various reports of the Special Rapporteur, visit http://www.ohchr.org/english/issues/women/rapporteur

By the definition adopted in the 1995 Beijing Declaration, trafficking in women constitutes a form of violence against women. Trafficking in persons was recognized as an issue in international law during the first half of the 20th century. Some of the early instruments include:

- the International Agreement for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic of 1904 (became a Convention in 1910)
- the 1921 Convention for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children
- the 1933 Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women of Full Age
- the 1949 Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others.

During the last years of the century, with an increase in trafficking in persons and an increased involvement of organized criminal groups, trafficking in persons became an international threat that required criminalization and regulation. There was also a need to standardize terminology, laws and practices to curb organized crime and trafficking in persons. The United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, was adopted in 2000. The Protocol includes an internationally agreed upon definition of trafficking in persons. The special needs of women and children as victims of trafficking are highlighted throughout the Protocol. Other international organizations have also incorporated trafficking in persons as an issue of international law. For example, the Council of Europe adopted a convention on trafficking in 2005. In December 2001, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) adopted a Declaration and ECOWAS Plan of Action against Trafficking in Persons. In Asia, the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking (COMMIT) is a process led by the Governments of the six Greater Mekong Sub-region countries. The process aims at creating a sustained and effective system of cross-border cooperation and collaboration to combat human trafficking.[1]

There is thus an array of instruments aimed at preventing all forms of violence against women. Member States are obliged to fulfill the requirements therein and to intensify their national—and joint international—action to combat all forms of gender-based violence.

The Millennium Development Goals

At the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000, leaders from 189 countries agreed to eight Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and set 2015 as the date for their achievement. The MDGs are the highest level expression of the international community's development priorities. The eight MDGs are (UNFPA 2005: 6–7):

1. eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2. achieve universal primary education

[1] http://www.no-trafficking.org/content/COMMIT_Process/commit_background.html#01

3. promote gender equality and empower women
4. reduce child mortality
5. improve maternal health
6. combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
7. ensure environmental sustainability
8. develop a global partnership for development

Gender equality is one of the Millennium Development Goals and, according to the United Nations Population Fund, it is key to achieving the other seven. Eradicating violence against women, in turn, is central to achieving gender equality (UNFPA 2005). Experience has shown that development policies that have gender equality at the forefront reap the greatest gains in reducing poverty, improving maternal and child health, reducing violence against women, and combating infectious diseases. Efforts to eliminate violence against women must go hand-in-hand with programs and policies to increase gender equality. Violence against women therefore both stems from the conditions addressed by the MDGs and hinders their achievement (WHO 2005a). As stated by the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA 2005:28):

> Efforts to outlaw discriminatory practices such as child marriage, honour killings, acid burning and the inheritance of "cleansing" of widows, among others, are unlikely to succeed unless they are accompanied by practical measures to promote gender-equitable norms that respect the rights of girls and women.

A 2005 report by the World Health Organization (WHO) highlights the connections between the MDGs and the prevention of violence against women by showing how working toward the MDGs will reduce violence, and how preventing violence against women will contribute to achieving each of the MDGs (WHO 2005a). Violence against women is not explicitly highlighted in the goals, targets or indicators established for monitoring progress, yet each of the goals offers a strategic opportunity for preventing gender-based violence. For example, with respect to eradicating poverty (MDG 1), the WHO (2005a) recommends strategies that respond to gender inequality by promoting access to education for women, addressing gender gaps in earnings and gender-based barriers to receiving credit, extending the availability of childcare to enable women to participate in the paid labour market, eliminating occupational segregation, and ensuring protections for women in precarious employment situations. Reducing poverty among women addresses a major risk factor for gender-based violence.

By ensuring that women and girls have access to education (MDG 2), women are empowered to use information and resources and attain greater economic independence which elevates their status and helps prevent gender-based violence. A comprehensive approach to achieving gender equality (MDG 3) includes the elimination of violence against women which therefore must be a central focus of goal 3. Harmful gender norms, traditions and acceptance of violence must be addressed, as well as legislation that discriminates against women. Child mortality (MDG 4) is associated with violence against women via death and injury inflicted on girl children by female infanticide, neglect, sexual violence and the preference given boy children in many countries. Partner violence inflicted on pregnant women can result in traumatic injury to the fetus, miscarriage, premature labour and low birth weight

(Campbell 2002). Efforts to reduce child mortality therefore must include efforts to reduce intimate partner violence and erase harmful gender-based practices that discriminate against girls. Maternal health (MDG 5) is directly affected by intimate partner violence; therefore efforts to improve maternal health must include a focus on reducing partner violence.

Prevention of HIV/AIDS (MDG 6) is especially difficult in societies where gender norms restrict sexual autonomy for women, where women lack power to insist on condom use, and where women are subjected to violence for testing positive for the disease. The goal of ensuring environmental sustainability (MDG 7) which, on the surface may appear not to have a direct link to violence prevention, has direct importance to women's safety. As the WHO (2005a) report points out, environmental sustainability will reduce conflict situations which are associated with high rates of physical and sexual assault against women. Efforts to improve the lives of slum dwellers, which is one of the targets of goal 7, should include interventions to improve women's security in public places. And finally, development strategies (MDG 8) must promote women's ability to participate as full partners which means eliminating harmful gender norms and violence.

Despite the high-level commitment to achieve the MDGs, the Millennium Project Report of 2005 states that "gender equality remains an unfulfilled goal". The report recognises the need to include specific interventions to address gender inequality if the MDGs are to be realised (UN Millennium Project 2005).

Evolution of Prevalence Studies on Violence Against Women

The importance of reliable statistical tools to measure violence against women for effective policy making has received increasing attention by international agencies and conventions. The Beijing Platform for Action in 1995 emphasized the importance of reliable statistical data in understanding violence against women and recommended that work be done to promote research and collect data relating to the prevalence of different forms of violence against women, and its causes, nature, seriousness and consequences. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, the body established to monitor implementation of CEDAW, acknowledges the need for reliable statistical data and urges States to strengthen efforts to gather statistics. The Millennium Project report of 2005 states that "[o]ne essential step to addressing these systemic challenges is the collection of gender-disaggregated data for monitoring progress" (UN Millennium Project 2005). In 2006, the UN Secretary-General's study on all forms and manifestations of violence against women recommended that States take responsibility for systematic collection and analysis of data (United Nations 2006). Through consultation with international experts on the methods and challenges of data collection on violence against women, the study recommends greater uniformity and comparability in data collection among countries.

Data collection in the area of violence against women is extremely challenging. Due to a variety of factors—shame, fear of the offender, concerns about the reaction

of family or friends, cultural attitudes, and lack of community support—most victims do not seek help from criminal justice, health or social service providers and therefore do not appear in official statistics. In many countries, services for abused women do not exist and where they are available, priorities and resources are concentrated on delivering aid to women and not on statistical data collection. There are also concerns about the accuracy of record-keeping by officials in some countries, for example where murders of newborn females, acid-throwing incidents and murders of women are recorded as "accidents" or not recorded at all (Krug et al. 2002). Data collection therefore is non-existent, inconsistent or incomplete in most countries. As a result, country estimates and international comparisons of the prevalence, context and correlates of violence against women are difficult to come by. Added to this is the problem of definition–countries may differ how violence is defined under law or in practice. As a consequence, policy and decisions are often based on inaccurate or incomplete data, a risky practice that can be downright harmful to women seeking justice.

In some countries, police statistics are the only source of information on the prevalence of violence against women. However, these data are characterised by three main problems that render them not suitable for this purpose: the underreported nature of crimes of violence against women; police discretion around laying charges, making an arrest and recording incidents in official statistics; and, the legal definition of assault, sexual assault and other violent crimes. A majority of women victims do not report their experiences of violence to the police (see Chapter 6 for an in-depth discussion of incentives and barriers to reporting). Even if women do report their ordeal to the police, the police do not necessarily record and follow up on these reports. Finally, legislation in each country varies as to the definition of violent crimes. In many instances, legislation is gender-neutral or gender-blind, thus failing to define certain forms of women's experiences as violence (see Nousiainen & Pylkkänen 2001).

Over the past three decades progress has been made in the development of methodologies to produce reliable estimates of the nature and extent of violence against women. The first population survey of experiences of crime among the general public was carried out in the late 1960s in the United States. Victimisation surveys interview large random samples of adults about their perceptions of crime, perceptions of their safety and experiences of crime, usually in the 12 months prior to the interview. This crime victimisation survey methodology was soon introduced elsewhere and gained popularity during the 1970s as a tool for assessing the level of crime in society (Cantor & Lynch 2000). Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, industrialised countries further developed the crime victimisation approach to interviewing citizens about their experiences of crime. These surveys were considered an important complement to official police statistics because they provided much-needed information about the "dark figure" of crime that was not reported to the police (Skogan & Maxfield 1981). Victimisation surveys provided researchers and policy makers with a source of information about the experiences of crime from the perspective of victims. As a further development, since 1989, the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) has collected data every few years on 11 forms of crime in over 60 countries around the world. The ICVS has provided an important

international comparative dimension to the estimation of crime (for the results of the ICVS see e.g. Alvazzi del Frate 1998; Mayhew & van Dijk 1997; van Kesteren et al. 2000; Zvekic 1998).

Over time it was recognized that although general victimisation surveys were successful in providing estimates of the prevalence of property crime, and in better understanding victims' perceptions and reporting behaviours, they were not adequately measuring crimes of violence against women (Johnson & Sacco 1995). This was due to many factors, including:

- lack of sensitive question wording
- lack of special selection and training for interviewers on how women are affected by violence and how they may react to survey questions, which is needed to sensitively conduct interviews
- the use of male interviewers
- lack of safety mechanisms for women who might be in danger for disclosing experiences of violence[2]
- lack of support for respondents who feel distressed or traumatised by disclosing painful memories of violence in the interview setting
- lack of other efforts to facilitate disclosure, such as privacy for respondents and taking time to build rapport during the interview
- the broad scope of crime victimisation surveys does not allow the time or space needed to adequately or sensitively address issues of violence in their complexity
- prevalence rates are based on a single screening question[3]
- traditional crime victimisation surveys orient respondents to think about crime in their neighbourhoods, and if they do not consider their experiences to be "crimes" they may not disclose them to survey interviewers
- the 12-month reference period commonly used in crime victimisation surveys undercounts women's experiences of violence and limits analyses of long-term consequences and outcomes, such as reporting to police and court outcomes

This critique of the traditional victimisation survey approach gradually led to structural changes to national surveys which were aimed at better capturing women's experiences of sexual and domestic violence. For example, the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) was redesigned in 1992 to improve and expand screening questions that led to more detailed incident reports (see Bachman & Taylor 1994; Fisher & Cullen 2000), and significant increases in the prevalence rates of sexual and domestic violence (Bachman & Saltzman 1995). The British Crime Survey (BCS) was remodeled in 1996 to include a domestic violence component which respondents filled in on their own by using a laptop computer, a technique

[2] As an example, in the first national crime victim survey in the United States all household members were interviewed together in a face-to-face situation. Little consideration was given to the possibility that victims of sexual or domestic violence might be unlikely to disclose experiences if the perpetrator is present during the interview.

[3] In the original National Crime Survey (NCS) in the United States, screening questions for assessing rape asked respondents if they were attacked or threatened but did not ask directly if they had experienced rape or attempted rape.

aimed at ensuring privacy (Mirrlees-Black 1999). Sexual assault was the focus of another special module completed in the same way in 1994. The self-completion component increased women's disclosure of sexual violence tenfold (Percy & Mayhew 1997) and at least doubled disclosures of domestic violence (Walby & Myhill 2001). However, despite these methodological improvements, critics argue that the range and detail of questions used to measure violence in these surveys need to be expanded further in order to adequately capture the complexities and nuances of women's experiences (Fisher & Cullen 2000; Walby & Myhill 2001).

Family violence surveys took off in the United States in the 1970s, parallel to crime victimisation surveys, and utilized some aspects of the methodology. But rather than a focus on crime victimisation, these surveys approached the topic from the perspective of everyday conflicts within marriage and interviewed both women and men but not usually in the same couple. The Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) was developed and widely used by researchers to derive estimates of acts used in resolving disputes or conflicts within relationships. This approach portrayed women and men as both victims and perpetrators of violence in marriage (see Gelles 1997; Straus et al. 1990). This approach has been criticized for not taking account of the gendered nature of violent conflicts in relationships and for omitting measures of context, impacts and consequences, injuries, and frequency of violence (Dobash & Dobash 2004; Dobash et al. 1992; Saunders 1988).

Surveys focusing solely on sexual violence have also been developed that incorporated techniques to try to counter non-disclosure and improve reliability of estimates (Koss & Gidycz 1985; McGee et al. 2002). Russell (1982) was one of the early researchers who interviewed randomly selected women about their experiences of sexual violence using a series of behaviourally-specific questions. However, Koss and her colleagues (1987) arguably have been the most influential in this area. They sought to broaden the scope of sexual victimisation along a continuum ranging from giving in to sex due to verbal pressure and coercion through to rape at the other extreme (Koss & Gidycz 1985; Koss et al. 1987). Their 10-item Sexual Experiences Survey measured four types of sexual aggression. Koss and her colleagues (1987) concluded that the rate of rape derived from their method was at least ten times greater than the rate derived from the National Crime Survey (as it was then called), a finding which contributed to the redesign of this survey.

Statistics Canada was the first national statistical agency to undertake a major overhaul of its approach to measuring women's victimisation and to conduct a special targeted survey. In 1993, a survey dedicated to exploring a wide range of women's experiences of violent victimisation was developed and implemented, using the basic crime victimisation survey methodology as a starting point. Like the victimisation survey approach, the Violence Against Women Survey involved interviews with randomly selected women in the population. Unlike the traditional approach, female interviewers were specially selected and trained, and other ethical considerations were taken into account, such as the provision of referrals to community agencies for respondents reporting violence and supports for interviewers (Johnson 1996). The approach was developed with input from women in emergency shelters and counseling groups, service providers and advocates, police and

government officials by way of country-wide consultations. Similar surveys, with some modifications, have been carried out in the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Finland and Sweden.

Population-based surveys of representative samples of women are now recognised as offering the most reliable method for acquiring statistically reliable estimates of the nature and extent of violence against women (United Nations 2006). Unlike statistics derived from police, social service or health agencies, randomly selected samples produce estimates of violence in the broader population. They are therefore more useful for policy development, public awareness-raising and research purposes. The number of countries that have conducted population surveys on violence against women is estimated at to be at least 70 (United Nations 2005). Although there are many commonalities among these surveys, there are important differences that prevent reliable country-to-country comparisons of results, such as how violence is defined, specific question wording used, study populations, reference periods (previous year, adult lifetime, childhood), methods of interviewing (telephone, face-to-face, mail-back questionnaires), and sampling methods.

Internationally Comparative Studies

Several initiatives have been developed to improve international comparisons of the prevalence of violence against women and its correlates. Most are health-oriented. For example, the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) are household surveys[4] that focus on various health-related characteristics, practices and behaviour in developing countries. Between 1990 and 2002, representative data on domestic violence had been collected in 11 countries (Kishor & Johnson 2004). The DHS surveys have the advantage of using large nationally-representative samples that are regularly repeated, and they use a standardized questionnaire and methodology to ensure comparisons over time and among countries. The measurement of domestic violence on the DHS has evolved over time from a single-question approach to a module of questions. The module includes nine questions related to acts of physical or sexual violence as well as a series of questions describing emotionally abusive and controlling behaviours. This module is optional: some countries opt out of the module entirely and continue to use the single question to gather prevalence data on violence. Because of these differences, as well as differences in sample selection of the women interviewed, problems of comparability remain.

The World Health Organization has developed a comprehensive Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women, which so far has been implemented in ten countries around the world. The WHO study was designed to provide estimates of the prevalence of physical, sexual and emotional

[4] Carried out by with the support of MACRO International and the US Agency for International Development.

violence against, with particular emphasis on violence by intimate partners (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005). Additional objectives were to assess the association between partner violence and a range of health outcomes, risk factors for partner violence, and women's help-seeking strategies. A common questionnaire containing a broad range of behaviourally-specific questions designed to measure women's experiences of violence was applied in each country under strict methodological guidelines, which allows for cross-country comparisons to be made with confidence. However, subtle differences remain in the definition of "ever-partnered" women that was used to determine who was at risk for intimate partner violence. This is a culturally-specific concept which is more narrowly defined in some countries than others and illustrates the challenges in multi-countries approaches even when the soundest research methodologies are incorporated into the study design. One very important contribution of the WHO study was the documentation of guidelines for the study of violence against women, including ethical considerations (see Ellsberg & Heise 2005).

While these initiatives and others have contributed to the development of research methodologies that facilitate international comparisons of the prevalence and outcomes of various forms of violence against women, they do not examine women's help-seeking behaviour involving the criminal justice system. Nor do they focus on the criminal justice response to women's disclosures of violence. The International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS) is an internationally comparative project that incorporates a standardised methodology and has as a primary focus the strengthening of legal measures and improving criminal justice responses to violence. The focus of this text is to summarize the results of the IVAWS in nine countries and discuss the implications for violence prevention and improving the criminal justice response to violence against women. The methodology of the IVAWS will be described in detail in the following chapter, and in subsequent chapters results are presented pertaining to the prevalence and nature of violence, impacts, correlates and help-seeking behaviours.

Internationally-comparative studies are important for a number of reasons:

- Establishing the correlates and causes of men's violence against women will help in planning more effective interventions, services for female victims of violence, and treatment programs for abusive men.
- Survey results can be used to educate the public and decision makers about the extent of physical and sexual violence perpetrated by men against women, the needs of victims, and the impacts on victims and society.
- The results of such surveys in developing countries, where resources are not easily obtained for research, may provide the only source of data describing the extent and nature of the problem.
- Survey results in developing countries will help international donors better understand the dimensions and context of the problem which can lead to better targeting of aid.
- Surveys that delve into interactions between victims and police can be used to train and sensitise criminal justice officials who work with victims of violence.

- Cross-cultural research can test for the existence of universal traits or factors associated with violence, information that is needed for the development of prevention programs and social change.
- A common understanding of the problem at the international level can assist in the evaluation of initiatives and responses put in place in different parts of the world.

Summary

Violence against women is now recognised as a human rights violation and an obstacle to the achievement of equality, development and peace. A range of international legal and policy frameworks are in place for addressing gender-based violence and women's inequality. Gender equality is at the heart of the Millennium Develop Goals and violence against women is critical for achieving gender equality. In order to chart progress toward achieving the aims of equality and the eradication of violence against women, reliable statistical data are needed for all countries around the world. The International Violence Against Women Survey is one tool developed for this purpose. The remaining chapters of this text will present the methodology and results of the IVAWS for nine countries and will summarise the implications of these results for action on violence against women.

Chapter 2
Methodology of the International Violence Against Women Survey

Background and Objectives of the IVAWS

The need for improved statistical tools and research on the prevalence and dimensions of violence against women that can be used for formulating policies, legislation and services for victims is now well-recognized. A number of international instruments and conventions call for the development of improved data collection instruments that are able to provide estimates of the nature, dimensions and causes of violence against women. This requires gathering and analysing data and information on a gender-disaggregated basis for decision making and policy making in the fields of health, social services, violence prevention and criminal justice.

The International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS) project was developed in response to the need for improved data collection instruments that would provide reliable statistical data on the prevalence of various forms of violence against women and their interaction with the criminal justice system. The purpose of the IVAWS is:

> to promote and implement research on violence against women in countries around the world, in particular developing countries and countries in transition, as an important research and policy tool. The survey may be considered a tool for developing and strengthening democracy by increasing public participation in the process of formulating criminal justice policies.

The IVAWS is intended to promote the random sample survey method of data gathering for policy making. It provides the opportunity for any country to take advantage of a well-developed and well-tested methodology to improve and enhance the availability of data on violence against women at the country level and to make international comparisons. Population surveys, which go directly to samples of the population and interview individuals in depth about their experiences, provide an important means for citizens to be involved in the development of criminal justice and other social policies. If the data are published and made widely available to decision makers, researchers, activists and agencies providing services to abused women, this is one way in which the voices of victims can be heard.

The objectives of the IVAWS project are to:

- create a standardised tool suitable for collecting comparable data on the prevalence and incidence of violence against women across cultures
- conduct the survey in several countries across the world by drawing a representative national sample of female respondents in each country and using a standardised interviewing methodology
- develop expertise and technical knowledge at the local level on research methods, including survey design, techniques for interviewing on sensitive topics, analysis and interpretation of victimisation survey data
- build a central database of the data sets and conduct cross-national analysis of the results
- use the data to test hypotheses and theories on violence against women
- put the results to use by organising local seminars and awareness-raising campaigns, and providing information to the media
- provide data for policy making in order to combat violence against women through:
  - increasing knowledge among the general public and among authorities and decision-makers on the scope of the problem, its causes and consequences
  - contributing to the development and strengthening of criminal justice responses
  - improving police action by generating information on non-reported cases, and on the degree of satisfaction with police and their response
  - improving mechanisms for prevention through a better understanding of risk factors and correlates of violence
  - improving assistance to victims through data on women's use of services

The development of a draft questionnaire and methodology began in 1997 at the initiative of the European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations (HEUNI), which is located in Helsinki. In 1999, an International Project Team was formed which consisted of HEUNI, the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) and Statistics Canada.[5] Initially, some testing of the draft questionnaire was carried out in Estonia in 2000. Following this pilot study, the questionnaire and methodology manual were drafted. At the time, UNICRI had been involved in the International Crime Victimisation Survey (ICVS), a general crime victim survey that has been conducted in over 60 countries since 1989. The IVAWS was conceived as a solution to the problem of under-reporting of sexual and domestic violence on the ICVS. The critique that the traditional methodology did not lend itself well to capturing women's experiences of sexual and domestic violence extended also to the ICVS. There was a perceived need

[5] At the time of writing, the International Project Team consisted of representatives from HEUNI and University of Ottawa, formerly Statistics Canada. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime was also involved in the implementation of the project, in particular in overseeing the IVAWS in Mozambique.

for international comparative research on these special topics and so the IVAWS was conceived to fill the gap.

Participating Countries

Discussions about participation in the IVAWS were first initiated with the network of countries who were involved in the ICVS. Interest spread and any country that could secure funding and identify a national coordinator was invited to participate. The first meeting of national IVAWS coordinators was organised and pilot studies were conducted in 2001 and 2002 in 13 countries.[6] The IVAWS questionnaire was finalised in English in 2002. To date, the questionnaire has been translated into Chinese, Czech, Danish, French, German, Greek, Italian, Polish, Portuguese and Spanish.

A number of countries commenced the full-fledged survey in 2003 and by the end of 2005, the IVAWS had been carried out or was underway in eleven countries. Victimisation-type surveys have been conducted internationally either by interviewing respondents over the telephone, personal face-to-face, or at times using a mail-out/mail-back questionnaire. As Table 2.1 shows, some of the IVAWS surveys were conducted by telephone and some face-to-face, a decision that was left up to project coordinators in each country.

Table 2.1 Countries participating in the IVAWS. sample sizes, response rates and methods of interviewing

Country	Sample size	Response rate*	Date of interviewing	Method of interviewing
Australia	6,677	39%	December 2002–June 2003	Telephone
Costa Rica	908	58%	July–August 2003	Face-to-face
Czech Republic	1,980	66%	May–June 2003	Face-to-face
Denmark	3,589	52%	October–November 2003	Telephone
Greece	479	Continuing		Face-to-face
Hong Kong	1,297	45%	May–June 2005	Telephone
Italy	25,000	72%	January–October 2006	Telephone
Mozambique	2,015	96%	June–August 2004	Face-to-face
Philippines	2,602	99%	June–July 2005	Face-to-face
Poland	2,009	87%	March–May 2004	Face-to-face
Switzerland	1,973	59%	April–August 2003	Telephone

*Response rates have been calculated as a percentage of completed interviews out of the number of households where initial contact was established and a woman selected to participate. The exceptionally high response rates in Mozambique and the Philippines may be due to the fact that approval was given by local community leaders prior to conducting the interviews and this was communicated to the selected respondents. This is in line with response rates obtained by the WHO in their research on violence against women in South-East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005).

[6] These countries included Argentina, Australia, Canada, Costa Rica, Denmark, Indonesia, Italy, Kazakhstan, Poland, Philippines, Serbia, Switzerland and Ukraine.

The field work of the survey in Italy, conducted by the Italian national statistical agency, ISTAT, was commenced later than the other surveys and the data set was not available at the time of this analysis; in the meantime the results of the survey in Italy have been published by ISTAT (2007). Some countries, such as Australia and Italy, were able to contribute proportionately greater resources to the project compared to others which resulted in substantially larger samples. The target sample in each country was 2,000 aged 18 to 69 years. For most countries, sample sizes were about 2,000 women but were closer to 1,000 in Costa Rica and Hong Kong. In total, over 53,000 women were interviewed about their experiences of violence. The experiences of 23,050 women in nine countries will be presented in this text. As interviewing was also continuing in Greece at the time of writing, data from this country could not be included in this analysis.

Each participating country was responsible for carrying out their own fund-raising for participation in the IVAWS. In most countries the funding from the survey was obtained from government sources or some other national fund (in Mozambique, the survey was co-funded by three United Nations agencies: see Appendix I for a listing of national coordinators and funding agencies). The selection of countries participating was thus in large part determined by the success of their fundraising efforts.

Materials and Manuals for Implementing the Survey

National co-ordinators were required to attend a training session covering all aspects of undertaking the survey in their country and each was provided with a comprehensive survey methodology package. The International Project Team was available throughout the data collection period to respond to queries that arose in the field. A few countries, such as Greece and Hong Kong, joined the project at a later date and so national co-ordinators received training and instructions on conducting the survey via email and telephone. The methodology package includes the IVAWS questionnaire, a pre-programmed data capture program, and an extensive research Manual with detailed guidelines on how to implement the survey. The Manual first outlines the background and objectives of the survey and details the steps to follow to get started on the IVAWS, including:

- budgeting for the survey and what the composition of the research team should be in each country, including technical facilities for data capture and processing
- recruitment and training of interviewers, including selection criteria, a training program, and procedures for debriefing interviewers
- guidelines for sampling procedures to ensure random select of respondents
- the logistics of how to administer the questionnaire
- how to use the data capture system
- instructions on coding, data entry and logical validation
- interviewer guidelines and frequently asked questions
- a rough outline for outline of presentation of data for national IVAWS reports

The questionnaire together with the methodology manual form a survey package which can be used to conduct the survey in different countries while ensuring that a standard approach is followed. The availability of this package is intended to facilitate the participation of countries in a standardised survey on violence against women where funding or expertise might not otherwise be available for questionnaire design and other developmental aspects of a project of this nature. Hence, involvement in the project results in the transfer of technical expertise on survey taking where none might have existed previously. In countries where there is little or no information on the extent of men's violence against women, participation in the IVAWS can also serve as a basis for public awareness, debate and national action on the issue. In countries where there have been prior prevalence surveys on violence against women, the IVAWS offers the possibility of international comparisons. The importance of the results is that they can be used to launch a firmly grounded public debate in the media, in academia and in the political sphere about the causes and consequences of violence against women and the responses of victims. The IVAWS facilitates comparability and can fill the gap in finding international as well as local remedies and responses to violence against women.

Ethical Considerations in Studying Violence Against Women

The IVAWS followed recommendations from Statistics Canada regarding the ethical conduct of interviewing women about violence (Johnson 1996). Since development of the Statistics Canada survey in 1993, the World Health Organisation (WHO) has identified eight key principles to ensure ethical research on violence against women that were developed for the Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women (see Ellsberg & Heise 2005 for elaboration). These were followed in the IVAWS and include:

- the safety of respondents and the research team is paramount, and should guide all project decisions
- prevalence studies need to be methodologically sound and to build upon current research experience about how to minimize the under-reporting of violence
- protecting confidentiality is essential to ensure both women's safety and data quality
- all research team members should be carefully selected and receive specialised training and on-going support
- the study design must include actions aimed at reducing any possible distress caused to the participants by the research
- fieldworkers should be trained to refer women requesting assistance to available local services and sources of support. Where few resources exist, it may be necessary for the study to create short-term support mechanisms
- researchers and donors have an ethical obligation to help ensure that their findings are properly interpreted and used to advance policy and intervention development

The IVAWS only used female interviewers and closely adhered to those principles. In each participating country, each interviewer was required to possess:

- some level of knowledge and comfort discussing issues related to violence against women
- a non-judgmental and empathetic attitude toward victims of domestic violence and sexual assault
- good interviewing skills, preferably with interviewing experience
- a pleasant personality and ability to relate to people in all walks of life
- an absence of highly biased views related to the subject matter or characteristics of respondents (age, social status, ethnicity, religion)
- a willingness to adhere to instruction and time schedules
- a willingness to report problems and discuss them in an objective manner
- an acceptable level of literacy and ability to understand the questionnaire and issues being surveyed
- knowledge of and facility in local languages and dialects

In each participating country, interviewers were trained by the national coordinator using the training module of the IVAWS Manual. The aim of the training was to equip the interviewers with a clear understanding of:

- how violence against women is defined in the country and on the survey
- the effects of violence on female victims that might lead them to make certain decisions
- common societal myths concerning violence and victims and the importance of these myths for respondents and interviewers
- how to ensure safety for respondents and themselves
- how to respond to emotional trauma that might be raised by responding to this survey, for both respondents and interviewers
- how to encourage participation in the survey and honest disclosures of violence

In order to minimise initial refusals, the IVAWS was introduced not as a survey on violence, but as a survey on personal safety. Interviewers were trained to ensure that interviews would be conducted in private and to be flexible about letting respondents determine when and where interviews would take place. In some instances, interviews were rescheduled or relocated so as to ensure privacy.

Interviewers were trained to recognize that the interview setting might be the first time the respondent reveals her experiences of male violence to anybody. While this may be a relief for some respondents, for others disclosing the experiences and the details may cause distress and emotional trauma. Interviewers were trained to be empathetic towards respondents and to respond appropriately by not rushing and by taking the time to build rapport. Interviewers were instructed not to act as counsellors but instead, in order to respond effectively to respondents' emotional trauma, they were instructed to be prepared to provide information about sources of victim assistance in the local community. This included information about crisis centres, crisis lines, other counsellors and shelters for abused women, as well as

community-based support and women's groups. Interviewers for the IVAWS were also provided with support which including frequent debriefings and counselling, both individually and in a group, throughout the fieldwork. In addition, interviewers were trained to prepare for the possibility that the interview could be overheard by someone. As interviewers cannot know in advance if respondents may be living with violence, they were trained to deal with situations where the abuser or some other family member entered the scene of interview. Interviewer selection and training, and support for both respondents and interviewers, were seen as critical components to ensuring that the project was conducted in an ethical manner and that the data would have a high degree of reliability.

Limitations and Issues Related to Multi-country Research

Although every effort was made to adhere to sound methodological principles in designing, testing and implementing the IVAWS in these various countries, it is difficult to control for all aspects of the survey-taking process in each country. There are many potential influences on a survey at the country level and the individual level that may affect the percentage of women who respond (response rate) and the willingness of women to provide candid responses to questions about violent victimisation (rates of disclosure), all of which can affect the results of the survey in each country. Factors that have the potential to affect the outcome of the survey include the following:

1. *Culture*: There are bound to be differences in the degree to which women from different cultural milieux are familiar and at ease with responding to surveys and describing their personal experiences to a stranger in the context of an interview. There will be differences in societal attitudes toward victims of sexual and domestic violence and the degree of openness to acknowledging and discussing these experiences. Norms protecting family privacy that prevent women in many cultures from reporting to the police or other agencies may also inhibit women from disclosing to survey interviewers. If violence against women is not *de facto* considered an issue of concern for the criminal justice or health systems, women may be reluctant to name their experiences in the terms employed in the survey. Prevalence rates presented in the following analysis therefore likely under-estimate the true rates of violence in these countries. In the absence of qualitative interviews with women in each country it is unknown how this varies among countries.
2. *Subjectivity*: Although the survey questionnaire was thoroughly tested in all countries, as well as additional countries which have not yet taken up the IVAWS, it is difficult to control for and detect variation in the subjective meaning of violence to the women responding. This is an issue that exists to some extent within and between countries and survey researchers continue to grapple with it. The implication of this is that there may be variations in the meaning of a violent assault for individual women, depending on past experiences, their social

situation, cultural definitions of violence, societal attitudes towards violence and victims, and so on. This variation in the meaning of violence for the women responding is bound to exist in larger measure in cross-cultural comparative studies where societal-level differences are greater. While survey designers do their best to ensure that the questions are clear and unambiguous and that they are thoroughly tested among a diverse group of women, in the end respondents will perceive their experiences to fit into the survey categories or they won't. They will perceive some benefit in reporting their experiences and disclose them to interviewers, or they will perceive some risk and choose to keep them private. It is not known to what extent differences in the prevalence of sexual and intimate partner violence presented in this text can be attributed to variations in the subjective meaning of violence for the women responding. This is an important question for future research.

3. *Translation*: We cannot overlook the possibility that translations of the original questionnaire may have affected the results. The questionnaire was designed in English and translated into the relevant languages in the participating countries. Although great care was taken to ensure accuracy of the translations via back-translations (a technique where the document is translated into another language then back into English and the two English versions are compared), it is possible that certain concepts don't translate as well as others and the results may be biased as a result. Situations where questions may have been misinterpreted due to cultural differences or possible problems with the translation, including issues with dialects, are highlighted in the discussion of results wherever they are known.
4. *Differences in modes of interviewing*: The research literature on the effect of the mode of interviewing is inconclusive. Telephone interviewing tends to be the preferred mode of interviewing in countries where telephone ownership is high, due in part to the lower costs in comparison with face-to-face interviewing. Telephone interviews provide a degree of anonymity that is not possible in face-to-face interviews, which may result in higher levels of disclosure of experiences of violence. On the other hand, in the context of a face-to-face interview, interviewers may be in a better position to develop rapport and enhanced trust which then encourages honest disclosures of violence. Face-to-face interviewing also overcomes some problems with bias in sample selection that occurs when respondents without telephones are omitted. The rapidly growing use of mobile telephones in some countries, particularly among young people who often do not have landlines, means they are more likely to be excluded in telephone surveys. But bias may also creep into face-to-face surveys if the sample is restricted geographically due to logistical difficulties reaching some selected households. The decision to adopt one method or the other was left to each country coordinator and depended on a number of factors, including the technical expertise available to undertake the survey, cultural appropriateness, and the available budget.
5. *Memory and recall*: A common concern among victimisation survey researchers is the reliability of responses related to events that occurred some time ago.

Researchers in the field of violence against women typically wish to focus on the history of violence in women's lives, and not just very recent events. There are many reasons for this, including the importance of understanding the long-term emotional and social impacts of violent victimisation, and the importance of tracking actions taken by criminal justice officials, which tend to evolve over a lengthy period of time. Very traumatic experiences are unlikely to be forgotten, but may be difficult to place in time. An event that occurred around the age of 16 could be classified as child abuse or an adult experience depending on where the respondent places it in time. Less traumatic experiences may be forgotten completely and not reported during the interview, or the details may be misreported.

6. *Response rates*: Responses rates vary considerably among the IVAWS countries. The percentage of women who were selected for an interview and who agreed to take part ranged from 39% in Australia to 96% in Mozambique. The lower the response rate, the greater the concern that the survey responses will be biased. The results will be affected to the extent that the omitted groups differ from those who were interviewed on indicators such as victimisation rates. In order to adjust for non-response and coverage problems, the data were weighted by age group according to data from the United Nations Statistical Division. Age is the variable most commonly employed to improve the representativeness of a sample as it is associated with marital status, lifestyle and other socio-demographic characteristics of a population.

These limitations are important to consider throughout the remainder of this text in the interpretation of international comparisons of victimisation rates, the profile of types of violence, and the correlates of violence in each country.

Reliability of the Estimates

The IVAWS is comprised of sample surveys in each participating country where the objective was to select samples of women at random. Random samples are the ideal because they produce estimates that can be generalized to the population at large. Although this was the objective, it is rarely possible to obtain purely random samples in social science research due to such factors as refusals to participate, unequal telephone coverage in telephone surveys, and logistical problems in reaching remote areas in face-to-face surveys. In order to assess how well the samples represented all women in each country, the age profile of the sample was compared to the age profile obtained from the United Nations Statistical Division. Adjustments were made through a process of weighting so that each sample would be representative of the local population according to age. This helps ensure that the results are representative and can be generalized to the population of women in the participating countries (see Appendix I for details about the weighting procedure).

Because the data are based on a sample, the estimates presented in this analysis are subject to sampling variability; that is, they may differ from those that would have been produced if all women in each country had been interviewed. One measure of the likely difference is the standard error (SE), which indicates the extent to which an estimate might have varied by chance because only a sample of women were included. There are about two chances in three (67%) that a sample estimate will vary by less than one standard error from the number that would have been obtained if all women had been included, and about 19 chances in 20 (95%) that the difference will be less than two standard errors.

Another measure of the likely difference is the relative standard error (RSE) that is obtained by expressing the standard error as a percentage of the estimate. The relative standard error provides an indication of the relative accuracy of the estimate. The larger the sample, the smaller the SE and the RSE. Therefore larger estimates and those based on larger samples are more reliable relative to smaller estimates and those based on smaller samples. Estimates with relative standard errors of less than 25% are considered sufficiently reliable for most purposes. Estimates with relative standard errors between 25% and 50% are marked with an asterisk to indicate that they should be treated with caution. Estimates with relative standard errors 50% or greater are subject to sampling error too high for most purposes and so are not presented in this text. In addition, all estimates based on sample counts of less than 5 are suppressed, whether or not the relative standard error exceeds 50% (although typically it does).

Outline of the IVAWS Questionnaire

The IVAWS questionnaire can be divided roughly into three thematic parts: women's experiences of male violence, details and consequences of these experiences, and information about the background and current characteristics of respondents and their male partners.

As part of the Secretary General's report on violence against women, an expert group was convened by the United Nations in Geneva in 2005 to assess the challenges and gaps in data collection on violence against women and made a number of recommendations for improving population-based surveys (Report of the Expert Group Meeting 2005). Among others, these include:

- using multiple behaviourally-specific questions, rather than one single question directed at determining whether the woman has been "abused" or has been the victim of "violence"
- using multiple approaches and measures to determine the severity of violence, including the frequency of violent incidents, physical and emotional injuries, reproductive health problems, economic and social participation, costs and service utilization, consequences for children
- differentiating types of violence in the presentation of results

The IVAWS employs the approach of using multiple behaviourally-specific questions to measure violence and includes a broad range of indicators of severity, impacts for women and their children, and service utilization. The questionnaire consists of nine separate sections:

- **Section A: Control form** – the composition of the household that is used to select a respondent from among women in the household
- **Section B: Marital status** – current marital status, history of previous relationships, and respondent characteristics such as educational attainment, employment status and sources of income, and optional questions about ethnicity, religion and alcohol consumption
- **Section C: Experience of violence** – seven specific behavourial questions concerning physical violence and five concerning sexual violence. Each one is followed by questions about the relationship of the perpetrator(s), frequency of incidents since age 16, recency of incidents, and frequency within the previous 12 months.
- **Section D: Non-partner victimisation report** – details about incidents that involved men other than intimate partners (husbands, partners or boyfriends), including location, use of drugs or alcohol by perpetrators, injury, receiving medical care, fearing for her life, victim's use of alcohol or medication to cope with the effects, reporting to police and other agencies, perceptions of the seriousness of the incident. If more than one incident was reported, respondents are asked to report on the most recent. This approach was taken to reduce respondent burden.
- **Section E: Partner victimisation report** – follows a format similar to Section D.
- **Section F: Characteristics of violent previous intimate partner** – employment status and source of income, length of relationship, age, violent behaviour outside the family, emotionally abusive and controlling behaviours, alcohol use, and optional questions about ethnicity and religion, drug use, arranged marriages and dowry/bride-price payment.
- **Section G: Characteristics of current intimate partner** – employment status and source of income, length of relationship, age, educational attainment, violent behaviour outside the family, emotionally abusive and controlling behaviours, alcohol use, and optional questions about ethnicity and religion, drug use, arranged marriages and dowry/bride-price payment.
- **Optional section H: Mother abuse history and childhood victimisation** – this is an optional section that includes questions about violence in respondent's family of origin and male partner's family of origin, including witnessing violence by fathers against mothers, experiencing physical violence by fathers before the age of 16, respondent experienced physical violence by mothers, respondent experienced sexual violence by anyone prior to age 16.
- **Section I: Income & conclusion** – income of everyone in the household combined entered into quartiles (calculated in advance by national co-ordinators in the national currency, on the basis of information available locally).

The complete questionnaire is included in Appendix IV.

Box 2.1 Optional questions The questionnaire contains a number of optional questions. During the course of the development of the questionnaire, in consultation with a variety of countries, it was agreed that each participating country would use their discretion whether or not to include them. These optional questions include section H: Mother Abuse History and Childhood Victimisation, which deals with:

- respondent's current partner witnessed violence by his father towards his mother, or directly experienced violence by his father
- respondent's previous partner witnessed violence by his father towards his mother, or directly experienced violence by his father
- respondent witnessed violence by her father towards her mother
- respondent experienced violence by her father or mother, how often it happened and how serious she considered it to be
- respondent experienced sexual violence before the age of 16, relationship to the perpetrator, how many times it happened and how serious she considered it to be.

Other optional questions were:

- respondent's ethnic background/nationality, religious affiliation and whether she practices her religion, and her alcohol use
- how helpful the respondent found the services of shelters/transition houses/crisis centres in relation to the violence she experienced
- respondent chose her current or previous husband/partner/fiancé or if someone else did it, whether she had a say in marrying him, whether the marriage involved dowry/bride-price and details about the dowry/bride-price
- ethnic background/nationality, religious affiliation and practices, drug and alcohol use of current or previous partner

Additional questions In some countries, the research teams added extra questions related to the local context.

In Mozambique, the local research team added a section on women's health, family planning, HIV/AIDS and violence during pregnancy. The local World Health Organization (WHO) office was part of the research steering committee in Mozambique, and thus, the additional health-related questions were adapted from the WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women (see Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005).

The victimisation screeners that are used to estimate the prevalence of violent victimisation (physical and sexual violence separately) are composed of seven questions pertaining to physical violence and five relating to sexual violence. Each category begins with lifetime victimisation (since age 16), followed by a detailed breakdown of perpetrator relationship. As detailed in Box 2.2, respondents were

first asked a series of six specific behavioural questions about physical violence ranging from threats of physical violence that were seriously enough to cause her fear, to being threatened by or injured with a weapon. A catch-all question about other types of physical violence not already mentioned was included. Sexual assault was measured by way of four specific questions ranging from attempted and forced intercourse to unwanted sexual touching and forced sex with other people (intending to capture forced prostitution and trafficking for sexual exploitation). A catch-all question about other types of sexual violence not already mentioned was also included.

Box 2.2 Measuring violence against women Research has shown that surveys that use specific behavioural measures of a range of types of violent acts will produce more reliable and valid estimates than surveys that use general all-encompassing terms such as "violence" or "assault". This is because individual respondents can hold different ideas of what constitutes violence or an assault and may be reluctant to include assaults by husbands if not specially questioned about them. The International Violence Against Women Survey measured physical violence through the following series of questions.

I would like to begin by asking you to think carefully about all men, including men you have known, such as friends and relatives, men you have met casually, your husband or partner, previous husbands or partners, as well as male strangers. Since you were 16 or older has a man ever . . .

- *threatened to hurt you physically in a way that frightened you?*
- *thrown something at you or hit you with something that hurt or frightened you?*
- *pushed or grabbed you or twisted your arm or pulled your hair in a way that hurt or frightened you?*
- *slapped, kicked, bit or hit you with a fist?*
- *tried to strangle or suffocate you, burn or scald you on purpose?*
- *used or threatened to use a knife or gun on you?*
- *been physically violent towards you in a way that I have not already mentioned?*

Sexual assault was measured through the following questions.

Since the age of 16, has a man ever . . .

- *forced you into sexual intercourse by threatening you, holding you down, or hurting you in some way?*
- *attempted to force you into sexual intercourse by threatening you, holding you down or hurting you in some way?*
- *touched you sexually when you did not want him to in a way that was distressing to you?*

- *forced or attempted to force you into sexual activity with someone else, including being forced to have sex for money or in exchange for goods?*
- *been sexually violent towards you in a way that I have not already mentioned?*

After each item, respondents were asked to identify the relationship of the perpetrator which included current and previous husbands, partners and boyfriends, other relatives, other known men such as acquaintances, friends or work colleagues, and strangers. Respondents were also asked about the timing of the violence so that one-year and lifetime prevalence rates could be calculated.

Physical abuse by parents in childhood, sexual abuse and witnessing violence were measured as follows:

Thinking of your own biological father, any foster father or stepfather you might have had, or anyone your mother lived with, were any of these men physically violent towards your mother? Was your father (or any of these other men) ever physically violent towards you before the age of 16?
Thinking of your own biological mother, any foster mother or stepmother you might have had, or anyone your father lived with, were any of these physically violent towards you before the age of 16?
Finally, I would like to ask about any experiences of sexual violence you might have had before the age of 16. By sexual violent I mean any of the types of sexual violence I asked about earlier. Before you were aged 16, did anybody ever force or attempt to force you into any sexual activity? Who was it who did this?

These behavioural questions originated from the Statistics Canada national survey on violence against women and were modified in consultation with national coordinators (Johnson 1996). Following questions about adult lifetime experiences of various types of physical and sexual violence, respondents were then asked about the experiences in closer detail with separate sections dedicated to partner and non-partner violence. The focus of this detailed examination is the most recent incidents of partner violence and violence involving other men. This method was selected as a way to connect these responses to the types of violence discussed in the first part of the questionnaire while avoiding the difficulty of discussing numerous incidents and the consequences of each which could be quite time consuming and emotionally draining for women with multiple experiences of violence. An alternative method would be to select the most serious incident for detailed discussion but it was felt that this could bias the results. The ‘most recent incident’ method was considered to result in a more random selection of incidents, although for women who have separated from violent partners, the more recent incident which resulted in the separation may very well have been the most serious; however, this cannot be determined with certainty. It is a limitation of snapshot surveys such as the IVAWS that the progression and evolution of violence in relationships, and the complexity and nuances, cannot easily be assessed.

Summary

The International Violence Against Women Survey was implemented in 11 countries using a well-tested questionnaire and standard methodology in order to conduct analyses nationally and internationally about women's experiences of violence, the impacts on them, and the steps they take to obtain help. Behaviourally-specific questions were used to measure experiences of violence, a method that is now widely recognised as likely to produce the most valid and reliable estimates. However, many potential influences may affect the results that survey researchers cannot always control for, even when there is good communication among national coordinators and the soundest research design is used. Factors such as culture, subjectivity, translation, mode of interviewing, memory and recall can affect results. The quality of statistical approaches to interviewing women about their experiences of violence has improved considerably over the past two decades. However, researchers must continue to work to refine research methods and techniques through qualitative interviews to better understand women's perceptions of violence and experiences of responding to structured survey questionnaires. The following chapter will present the prevalence and severity of violence against women in nine countries.

Chapter 3
The Prevalence and Severity of Violence Against Women

Research has shown that violence against women is a serious social problem that exists in varying degrees in almost all societies. In independent studies, county estimates of the number of women affected by violence vary depending on a number of factors, including the geographic area studied (whether an urban area, rural area or the entire country), the age and marital status of the women selected to respond, the definition of violence used in the study, the specific questions used to measure violence, and selection and training of interviewers. Estimates may also be affected by the level of non-response of the women being interviewed, which may be due to shame, embarrassment, fear of her abuser, or confusion about the meaning of the questions. Independent studies around the world estimate the lifetime prevalence of violence by an intimate partner to lie between 10% and 60% (Ellsberg & Heise 2005). Using a standardised questionnaire designed to facilitate international comparisons, the WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women estimates that between 15% and 71% of ever-partnered women aged 15 to 49 have been victims of intimate partner violence in the ten countries studied. Most countries fell between 29% and 62% (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005). The Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) program, which interviewed representative samples of women aged 15 to 49 in nine countries about violence in the household, estimates that between 17% and 48% of ever-married women have been physically abused by a spouse (Kishor & Johnson 2004).

The focus of the IVAWS was to investigate physical and sexual violence against women, including violence committed by intimate partners, other known men and strangers. Violence was measured using a wide range of questions concerning acts of physical and sexual violence (see Box 2.2 *Measuring violence against women* in Chapter 2). The primary focus of this study is to derive estimates of the *prevalence* of violence, that is, the percentage of women in each country who reported that they had experienced one or more of these acts of violence by a male perpetrator since the age of 16. An alternative way of measuring violence is to study the *incidence* in the population, which is an estimate of the number of times an act of violence occurs over a given time period which is usually calculated as a rate per 1,000 or per 100,000 women in the population (*incidence rate*). Since one individual can experience violence more than once in any given time period, incidence rates are not equivalent to prevalence rates. The IVAWS counted how many women

experienced each act of violence once or more than once but it did not measure the incidence of violence.[7] The term *prevalence of violence* in the following analysis is used interchangeably with *rate of violence*. Rates are calculated on the basis of the number of women in the population which enables comparisons to be made among countries with differing population sizes. In victimisation studies, rates are typically calculated per 100, per 1,000 or per 100,000 individuals in the population. In this study, rates were calculated per 100 women aged 16 years or over in each country which equates to a percentage of all women. In the case of intimate partner violence, prevalence rates were based on women who had ever been at risk of partner violence, that is, women who had ever been in a dating, cohabiting or marital relationship with a male partner. In the case of violence perpetrated by men other than intimate partners, prevalence rates were based on all women age 16 and older. For each act of violence that respondents reported, they were asked when it occurred so that the prevalence of violence in the 12 months preceding the survey could also be calculated.

Countries participating in the IVAWS had the option of including a module of questions about experiences of violence in childhood, that is, before age 16 (see Box 2.2). These questions were not as detailed as questions concerning violence in adulthood and included physical assaults inflicted by parents as well as sexual violence perpetrated by parents and others. The prevalence of childhood victimisation was calculated as a percentage of all women in each country sample.

Total Lifetime Experiences of Violence

The definition of "violence" in this survey is determined through a series of behaviourally-specific questions and included violence since age 16 perpetrated by male partners and former partners, friends, acquaintances and other known men, and strangers. In addition, questions about violence perpetrated in childhood were optional and these included physical assaults by parents and sexual abuse by anyone, prior to age 16. Survey questions measuring childhood victimisation were included in all countries with the exception of Demark, Hong Kong and Mozambique. Other types of violence, such as childhood physical assaults by siblings or peers were excluded from the survey. The percentages of women who disclosed experiences of violence to survey interviewers ranged considerably among these countries. Among the seven IVAWS countries that addressed victimisation as an adult and a child, the proportion of women who reported experiencing any type of physical or sexual violence ranged from 24% in the Philippines to 73% in Costa Rica (Fig. 3.1). Although efforts were made to encourage women to report honestly on

[7] Countries had the option of recording actual number of incidents or recording frequency of violence within categories, such as 1–3 times per month, 1–3 times per week, everyday or almost everyday. Results are therefore not consistent and not comparable across countries.

their experiences, through sensitive question wording and building rapport between interviewers and respondents, the possibility remains that some women did not disclose their experiences due to embarrassment, shame, cultural taboos against talking about very personal experiences especially those involving family members, forgetting or misunderstanding the meaning of the questions. These figures therefore likely underestimate the true level of violence against women in these societies. It is not possible to know from survey responses how the reluctance to disclose violence might differ by country.

Experiences of Violence in Adulthood

Among the countries who participated in the IVAWS, the percentage of women who reported at least one incident of physical or sexual violence by any man in their adult lifetime (since age 16) ranged from about one-in-five in Hong Kong and the Philippines to more than one-third in Poland and Switzerland, and between

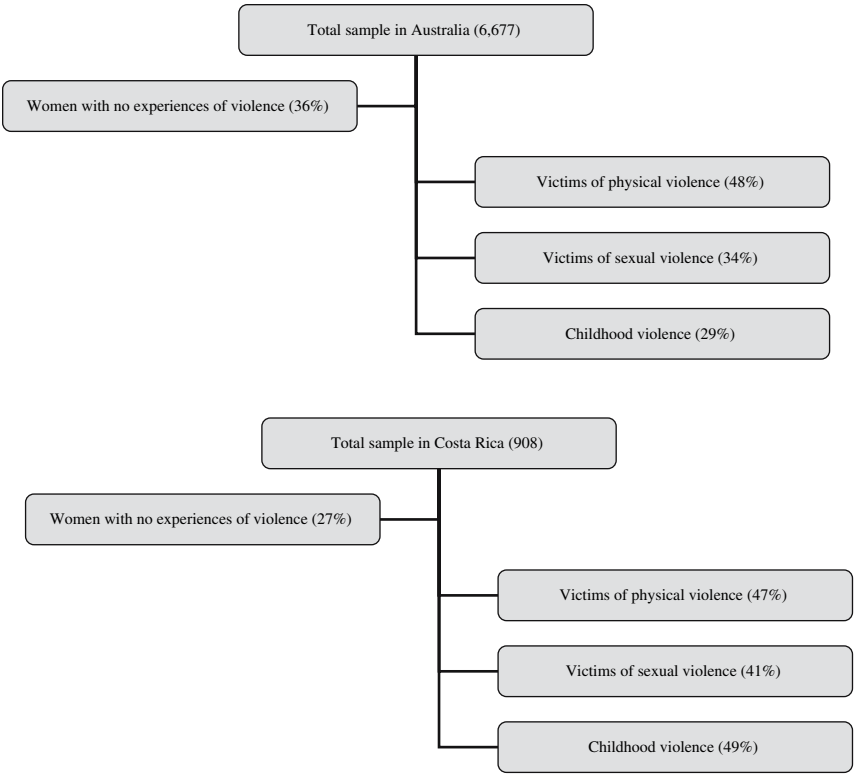
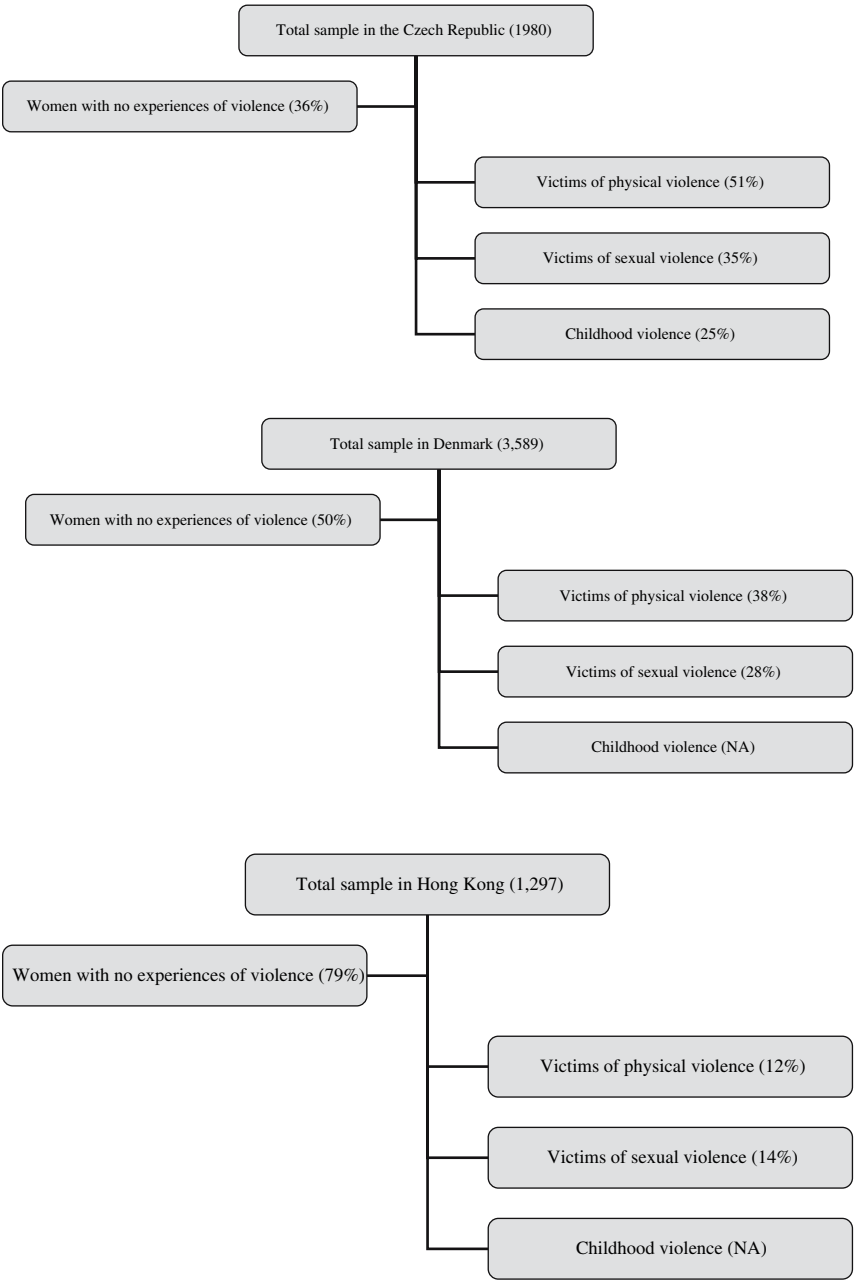


Fig. 3.1 Percentage of women who experienced violence as an adult or a child in each participating country



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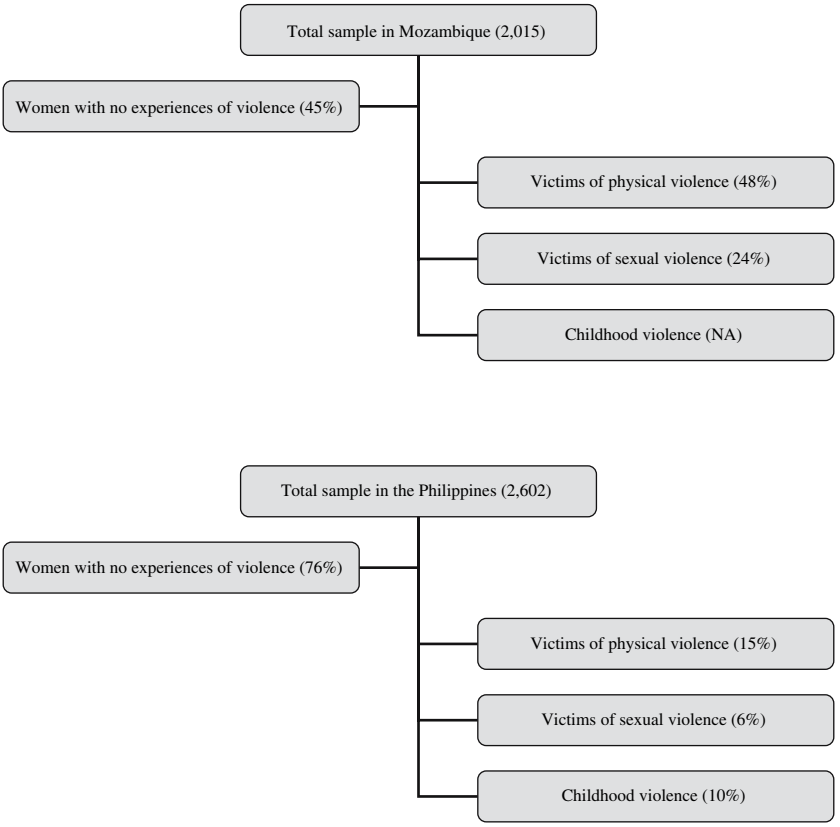


Fig. 3.1 (continued)

fifty and sixty percent in Australia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Mozambique. In most countries, victimisation rates were above 35% (Fig. 3.2).

The pattern was similar for physical violence. In the majority of countries, between 30% and 51% of women were victims of physical violence since age 16. With respect to sexual violence, Costa Rican women had the highest rates: 41% have been victims of sexual assault. Generally speaking, women tended to report physical violence more often than sexual violence. Exceptions were Hong Kong and Switzerland, where women were equally likely to report physical and sexual violence.

The IVAWS also provides a snapshot of current victims of violence—those who were victimised in the twelve-months prior to being interviewed. Among the countries participating in the IVAWS, one-year rates of violence by any man ranged from 6% or less in Denmark, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland, to 22% in Mozambique. Although women in Mozambique experienced adult lifetime violence at rates comparable to other countries, the one-year rate of violence in that

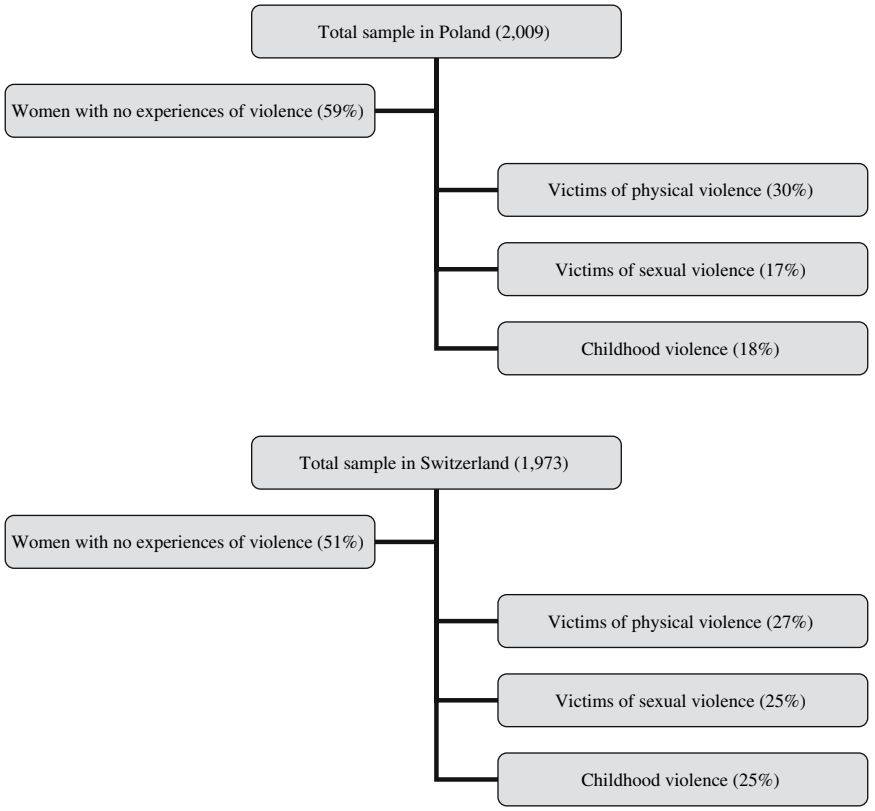


Fig. 3.1 (continued)

country is twice as high as Australia, four times higher than Denmark, Hong Kong, the Philippines and Poland, and ten times higher than Switzerland (Fig. 3.3).

Intimate Partner Violence

Rates of intimate partner violence among women in these nine countries range from 9% to 40%. This represents the percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced violence by a male partner during their adult lifetime. These figures are based on all women who have ever been married, lived with a man in a cohabiting relationship, or had a dating relationship with a man. Four-in-ten women in Mozambique who have ever had an intimate partner, and close to that percentage in Costa Rica and the Czech Republic, report having been physically or sexually assaulted by a partner. About one-quarter of women in Australia and one-fifth of women in Denmark have experienced intimate partner violence. The lowest rates were reported by women in Hong Kong, the Philippines and Switzerland (10%). This pattern holds true for physical assaults as well. However, with respect to sexual violence, women in Costa Rica experienced sexual violence by intimate partners at a rate higher than other

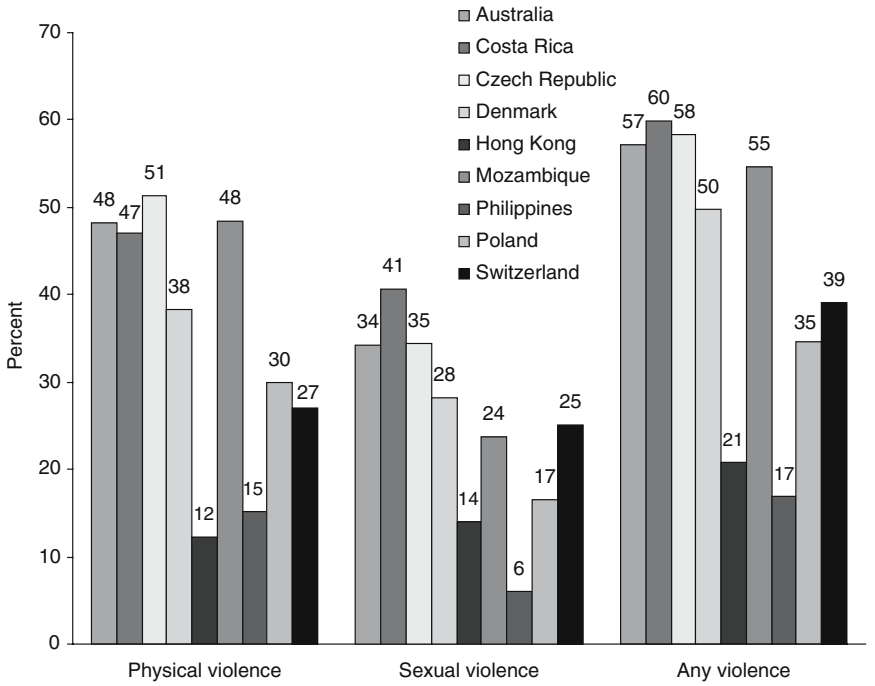


Fig. 3.2 Adult lifetime rates of violence against women by any man

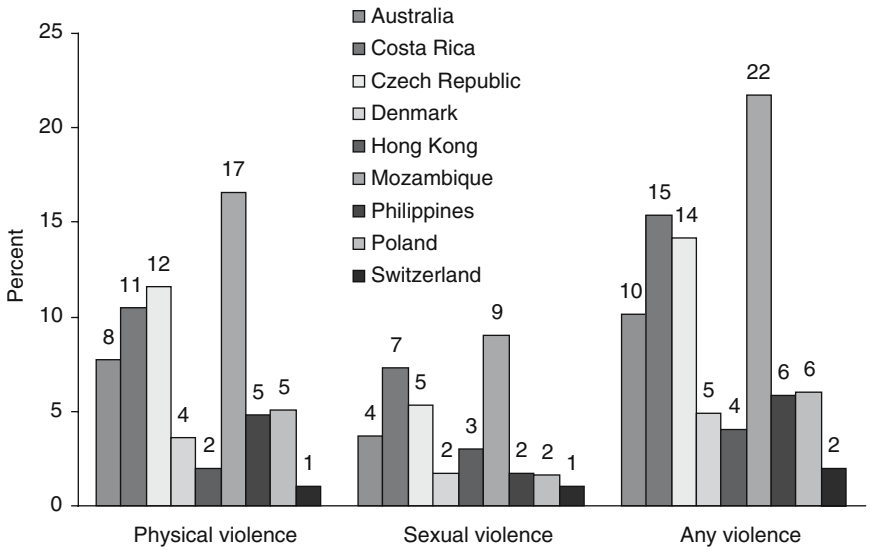


Fig. 3.3 One-year rates of violence against women by any man

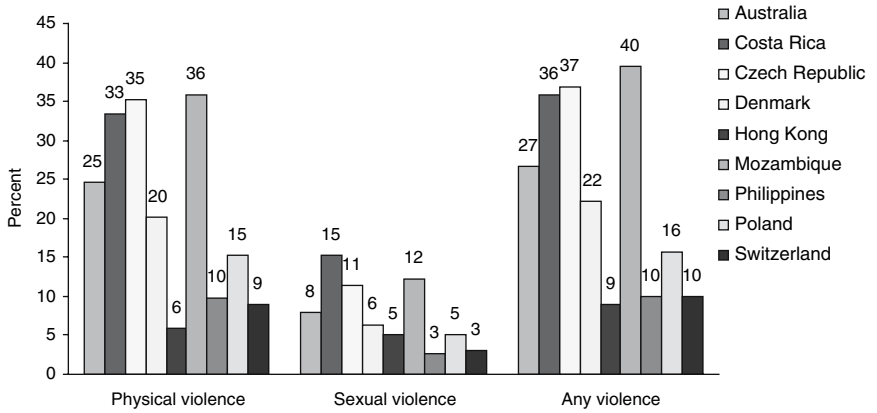


Fig. 3.4 Lifetime rates of intimate partner violence

countries (15%), twice the rate for women in Australia and Denmark, and five times the rate for women in the Philippines and Switzerland (Fig. 3.4).

Although lifetime rates of intimate partner violence in Mozambique are comparable to several other societies, this country stands out as having significantly higher one-year rates of violence by intimate partners: 18% of women in Mozambique were physically or sexually assaulted by a partner during the 12 months prior to the survey (Fig. 3.5). One-year rates of physical, sexual and total violence by intimate partners were many times higher in Mozambique than in any other country. This discrepancy in patterns of lifetime and one-year rates may indicate that in a country like Mozambique, which has very traditional gender roles and attitudes toward marriage and divorce, it is more difficult than in some other countries to

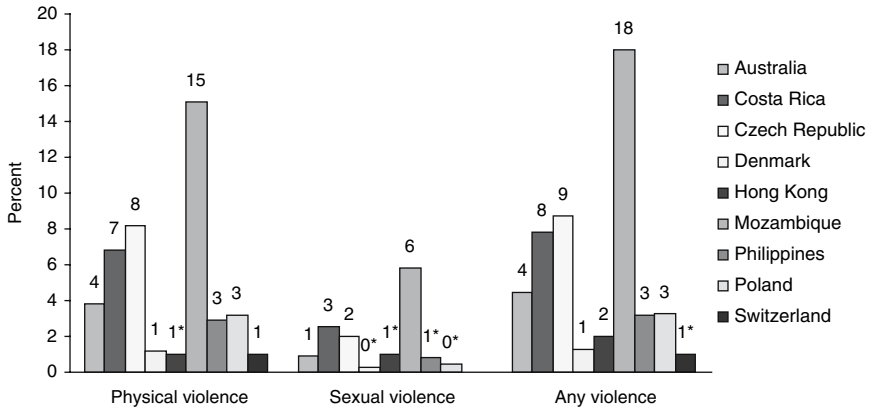


Fig. 3.5 One-year rates of intimate partner violence
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
The RSE for sexual assault in Switzerland is greater than 50.

leave violent partners and seek divorce and therefore many women continue to endure ongoing abuse.[8]

Rates of intimate partner violence were calculated for women who were in a relationship with a man at the time of the interview, for those who had been previously in a relationship, and for all women combined who had ever been in a relationship, either at the time of the interview or in the past. Current relationships include women who fall into the following categories:

- currently married at the time of the interview and living with their husband at least some of the time
- co-habiting with a man without being formally married to him
- involved in a dating relationship with a man

Previous relationships include women who were:

- formerly married and currently separated
- formerly married and currently divorced
- formerly cohabitating with a man without being married to him
- formerly involved with a man in a dating relationship

As shown in Table 3.1, the status of women's current relationships varies somewhat in the countries studied. Women in Hong Kong, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland were most likely to be married at the time of the interview and women in Denmark reported the highest levels of co-habitation. The percentage who were involved in dating relationships was about one-in-ten in all countries with the exception of the Philippines where only 1% of women were dating. The percentage who were not involved with a man in any type of relationship at the time of the interview ranged from a high of 29% in Costa Rica to a low of 18% in Switzerland.

Table 3.2 displays the status of relationships that have taken place in the past. Thirty percent of women in the Czech Republic had been previously married

Table 3.1 Current relationship status (percentage)

	Married	Co-habitating	Dating	No current relationship	Total
Australia	56	10	10	24	100
Costa Rica	47	15	9	29	100
Czech Republic	53	11	12	25	100
Denmark	49	21	9	21	100
Hong Kong	62	2	12	24	100
Mozambique	58	9	8	25	100
Philippines	65	9	1	25	100
Poland	64	4	11	21	100
Switzerland	62	11	9	18	100

[8] The *Family Act*, passed by Parliament in 2003 and signed by the President in 2005, recognises domestic violence as a reason for divorce and makes it easer for women to own property.

Table 3.2 Previous relationship status (percentage)

	Previously married	Previously cohabitating	Previously dating	No previous relationship
Australia	21	21	63	27
Costa Rica	17	13	36	43
Czech Republic	30	18	39	36
Denmark	24	33	58	21
Hong Kong	9	5	38	48
Mozambique	18	27	11	44
Philippines	10	4	3	84
Poland	18	4	17	67
Switzerland	18	19	45	36

Figures do not add to 100% due to multiple responses.

compared to just 9% in Hong Kong. This includes previous marriages that ended in death or divorce. Women in Denmark were most likely to have had a previous cohabitating relationship. Previous dating relationships were reported by 63% of women in Australia and just 3% of women in the Philippines and 11% in Mozambique. A total of 84% of women in the Philippines said they had had no previous relationships while this is true for only one-fifth of women in Denmark. Thus the number of women included in calculations of current or previous partner violence depends on the relationship history of the women interviewed, which is affected by social and cultural norms regarding marriage, divorce, pre-marital dating and cohabitation without legal marriage.

Women responding to the IVAWS were asked to report separately on violence that occurred in current and past relationships. Respondents had the opportunity to report separate experiences of violence by different intimate partners, including current spouses or live-in or dating partners, or husbands, live-in and dating partners they had had in the past. Added together, this accounts for all women who have ever been at risk of being physically or sexually assaulted by a male partner during their lifetime. This subset of women is referred to as *ever-partnered* women. Percentages of ever-partnered women range from 89% in Hong Kong to upwards of 94% in all other countries.

Research that has examined women's lifetime experiences of intimate partner violence, including both current and previous relationships, has typically identified former partners as more violent than current partners. For example, in Canada's national Violence Against Women Survey, 15% of women in current marital relationships reported experiencing physical or sexual violence by their current spouse or live-in partners while 48% of women with former partners had experienced violence by those former partners (Johnson, 1996). Figures for Finland were 20% for women in current relationships and 49% for women with previous relationships. (Piispa et al. 2006). One interpretation of the differences in rates in current and former relationships is that in societies such as Canada and Finland, where marital break-up is not uncommon and supports for abused women and single parents exist, women are more likely to leave violent partners and remain with partners who are not violent. It is also not uncommon for violence to occur after a couple

has separated. In many instances, violence escalates when the woman leaves or announces her intention to leave an abusive partner (Campbell et al. 2001). The prevalence of both lifetime and one-year partner violence therefore is expected to be lower in intact intimate relationships compared with relationships that have ended.

In the countries studied in the IVAWS, with the exception of Mozambique, women reported higher rates of violence in previous relationships than in current relationships. Intimate partner violence in Denmark was eight times higher in past relationships compared with current relationships, six times higher in Switzerland, four time higher in Poland, three times higher in Australia, and about twice as high in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and the Philippines (Figs. 3.6 and 3.7). In contrast, women in Mozambique have higher rates of intimate partner violence in current relationships compared to previous relationships (31% compared to 25%). Almost one-third of women in Mozambique have been assaulted by a partner in a relationship that was current at the time of the interview, considerably higher than for any other country studied. Rates of violence in current relationships were ten times higher in Mozambique than in Denmark and four times higher than in Australia. Yet, with respect to previous relationships, rates were comparable in these three countries at about one-quarter of all women with previous relationships. Rates of violence in current relationships are based on women who were married or living with a man in a cohabiting relationship at the time of the interview, or were currently involved in a dating relationship. Figures describing violence in previous relationships are based on all women who have been married in the past, have lived with a man in a cohabiting relationship, or have had a dating relationship in the past. Women with both current and previous relationships will fall into both categories.

Mozambique is a traditional society where patriarchal values may prevail to a greater extent than the other IVAWS countries. One manifestation of patriarchal values is violence directed at intimate partners. In addition, divorce is uncommon in Mozambique; it is generally culturally and socially unacceptable for a man and

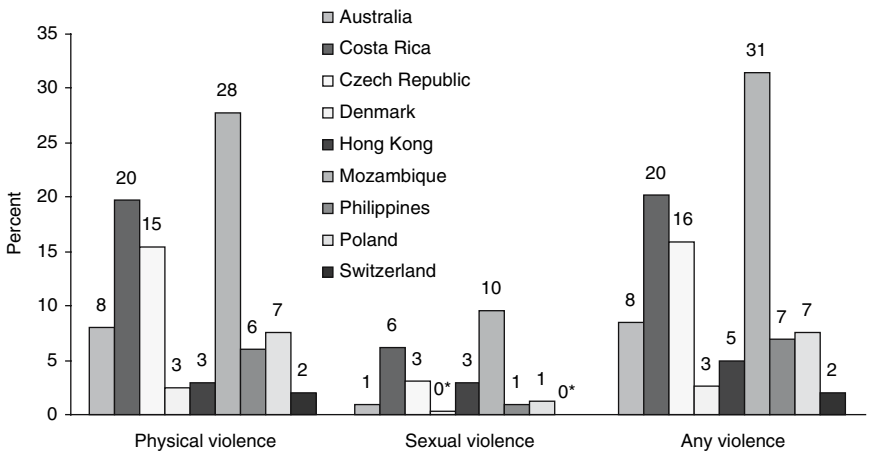


Fig. 3.6 Lifetime rates of violence by current partners
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

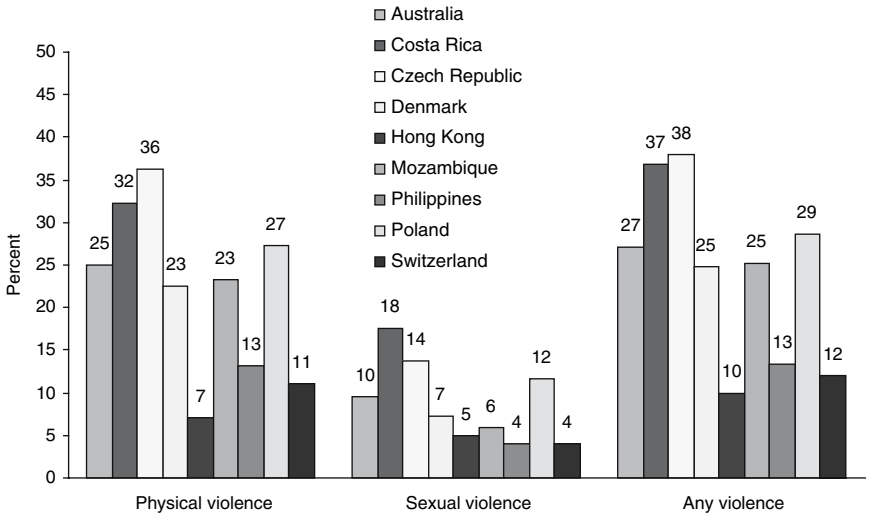


Fig. 3.7 Lifetime rates of violence by previous partners

women to divorce. Unlike some other countries, such as Denmark, Mozambique has very few services for victims of gender-based violence and very few that would advocate divorce as an appropriate response to intimate partner violence. It is therefore difficult for women to leave a violent partner. Currently partnered women tend to be younger in Mozambique and Costa Rica compared with other countries, and youth can be a risk factor for violence (see Chapter 5 for an in depth analysis of correlates of violence). Yet, similar proportions of currently partnered women in Australia and Poland are also relatively young and rates of current partner violence in these countries are lower by comparison. As shown in subsequent chapters, a multiplicity of factors contribute to women's risk of violence, of which age is just one.

Severity of Violence by Intimate Partners

Respondents to the IVAWS were asked six specific behavioural questions in order to determine the prevalence of physical violence committed by intimate partners (see Chapter 2 for details about question wording). Following each item, respondents were asked to indicate the relationship of the male who perpetrated that type of violence and more than one man could be identified. The responses of women who identified current or previous partners were combined to derive estimates of overall physical violence for ever-partnered women. Figure 3.8 illustrates the prevalence of these six types of violence, in addition to a category designed to capture anything that is missed by these six but that the woman considers to be physical violence. Percentages do not add to the total percentage of women victimised as shown in Fig. 3.4 because many women reported more than one type of physical violence.

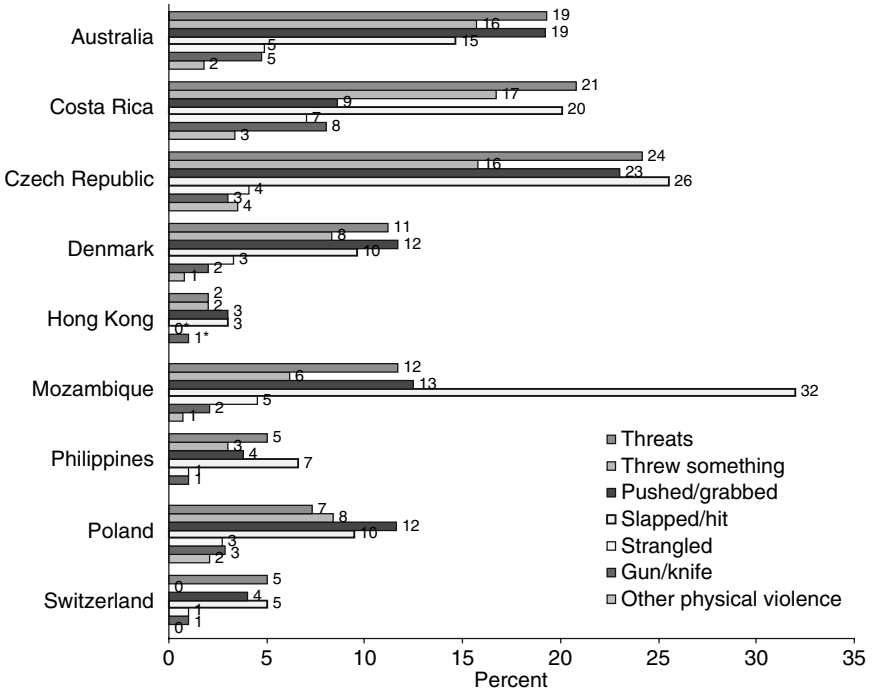


Fig. 3.8 Prevalence of types of physical violence by intimate partners, calculated as a percentage of ever-partnered women

In the Swiss survey the categories "Threw something" and "Slapped/hit" were combined. The result is shown here as the category "Slapped/hit" which therefore is not comparable with other countries. The survey in Switzerland did not include the category "Other physical violence".

Compared to other countries, Costa Rica had the highest proportions of victimised women to report the most serious, life-threatening forms of violence, such being strangled, suffocated, burned or scalded, or having a gun or knife used against them. Almost one-in-ten victims of intimate partner violence in Costa Rica reported partners who committed these two categories of violent acts. Mozambique stands out as the country where women are most likely to be slapped, kicked, bit or hit with a fist by an intimate partner. In most of the remaining countries, the most common acts of intimate partner violence were threats of physical violence that frightened them, or acts of pushing, grabbing, having an arm twisted or hair pulled. (See Appendix III for RSEs for these estimates).

Figure 3.9 illustrates the most serious type of physical violence ever inflicted against women by intimate partners for each country in the order that appears in Fig. 3.8. This order is somewhat arbitrary as consequences and outcomes are not taken into account and victims' perceptions of seriousness may not be consistent with this ranking. Each woman who reported physical violence by an intimate partner is counted once in this graph according to the most serious act of violence she experienced. Although threats are among the most frequently reported, threats typically occur in combination with other types of assaults. Among victims of physical

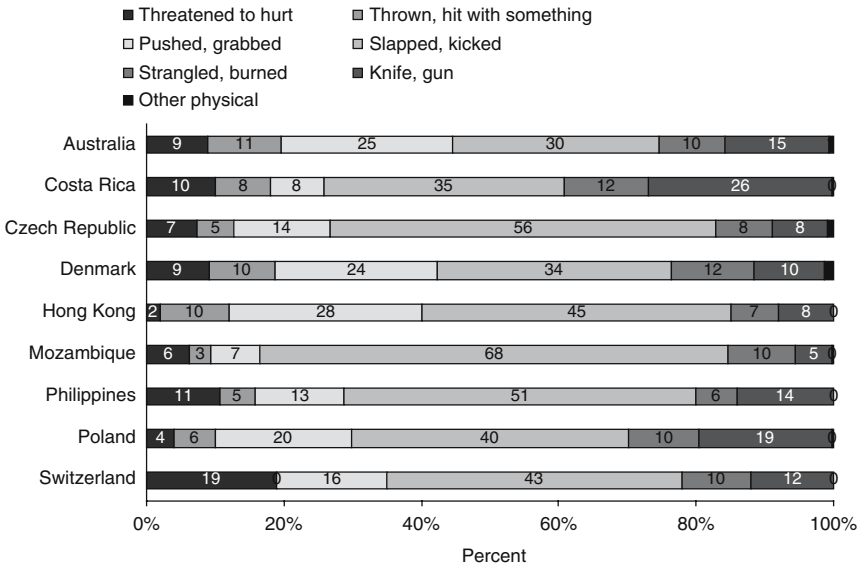


Fig. 3.9 Most serious type of physical violence by intimate partners, calculated as a percentage of victimised women

In the Swiss survey the categories "Threw something" and "Slapped/hit" were combined. The result is shown here as the category 'Slapped/hit' which therefore is not comparable with other countries. The survey in Switzerland did not include the category "Other physical violence".

violence by intimate partners, one-tenth or fewer reported being threatened with violence only and had no experiences of direct assault or threats with a weapon. At least ninety percent of women in each country reported actual physical violence that hurt or frightened them. One exception is Switzerland where one-fifth of women experienced threats of violence as the most serious act; however, this is a reflection of the difference in the way the IVAWS questionnaire was constructed in that country (see Box 3.1). For two-thirds of women in Mozambique, the most serious type of violence was being slapped, kicked, bit or hit with a fist. About one-third of victims in Australia, Costa Rica and Denmark and four-in-ten victims in Hong Kong, Poland and Switzerland reported this as the most serious type of violence ever inflicted by intimate partners. Victimised women in Costa Rica were more likely than women in other countries to have been threatened or assaulted with a gun or knife (26%) followed by women in Poland (19%). Victims of physical violence by intimate partners in Mozambique, Hong Kong and the Czech Republic were least likely to have had guns or knives used against them.

Box 3.1 Experimental component of IVAWS in Switzerland The IVAWS in Switzerland featured a methodological experiment which was aimed at determining whether different approaches in the initial victimisation questions (the screener questions) have an effect on disclosures of violence.

The experiment was based on the one hand on concerns over the length of interviews as a burden to the respondent, and on the other hand on the implications of the interview time to the project budget. The experiment, as well as other aspects of the Swiss survey, is covered in detail by Killias et al. (2004). The respondents in the Swiss sample were assigned to two groups along the lines of the language of the interview (1,352 interviews were conducted in German and 623 interviews in French; it was assumed that membership in a language group would not be correlated with the experience of violence).

The screeners in the IVAWS standard questionnaire ask the respondents whether, since the age of 16 years, they have experienced any of the seven types of physical violence or any of the five types of sexual violence. The German-language part of the Swiss sample used an approach which is more comparable to the standard set of screening questions. The Swiss questionnaire did not use the categories 'other physical violence', 'other sexual violence', and 'being forced into sexual activity with someone else', the last being deemed too rare an occurrence in the Swiss context to be reliably measured with a survey using a probability sample of approximately 2,000 respondents. The Swiss questionnaire also used two broad questions which group questions used in the standard IVAWS questionnaire: 1) having something thrown at you or hitting you with something that hurt or frightened you, and 2) being slapped, kicked, bit or hit with a fist.

The experimental questionnaire design, applied in the French-speaking part of the sample, involved an initial contact with the questions on violence using only three screener questions, two on physical violence and one on sexual violence. They were as follows:

Since you were 16 or older, has any man ever . . .

- threatened to hurt you physically, pushed you, grabbed you, twisted your arm or pulled your hair in a way that really hurt or frightened you? Or has any man ever slapped, kicked, bit or hit you with a fist or with an object?
- tried to strangle or suffocate you, burn or scald you on purpose? Or has any man ever attacked, threatened or injured you with a knife or a gun?
- kissed you or touched you sexually when you did not want him to, in a way that was distressing to you? Or has any man ever forced you or attempted to force you into sexual intercourse by threatening you, holding you down or hurting you in some way?

Based on the responses to these three screeners, respondents who reported violence were then asked to specify the types of violence they had experienced using the same classification as with the German-speaking respondents. The purpose of the screener questions, in addition to providing a lifetime

prevalence of physical and sexual violence, is to select those respondents who have been victims of violence for a more detailed interview concerning their experiences. The research hypothesis in the use of the two different types of screening questions was that the selection of the respondents with victimisation experiences can be done as effectively with a shorter set of questions thereby using less time. This was to be determined by the rates of different types of violence obtained with the use of these two different approaches.

This table (adapted from Killias et al. 2004) shows the prevalence rates obtained by the two approaches. In total, the condensed version produced a lower prevalence for the total calculation of any violent behaviour. The same is true for two of eight types of victimisation: threats to hurt physically and rape. One item–slap, kick, bite or hit with a fist or an object–was significantly higher in the condensed version. In case of threats it could be argued that when the many different types of violence with varying degrees of severity are attached to the same question, the respondents in their replies would focus on more serious incidents and neglect to report the less serious. However, this clearly does not apply in the case of the sexual violence screener where the question includes both unwanted sexual touching and rape. In this case the prevalence of different types of sexual violence might be a factor; more women have experienced some type of physical violence besides threats, while rape is a fairly rare occurrence, at least in Switzerland. For most women there is no other type of sexual violence that they have experienced other than unwanted sexual touching, and so rape, while more serious, would not have quite as big a drowning out effect as some types of physical violence for threats of physical violence. On the other hand, when in the standard IVAWS questionnaire the types of violence are presented one by one starting with threats of physical violence, it might be that respondents who report having been threatened then do not report on the other aspects of the same incident. This might be one reason for the significantly greater number of respondents reporting having been slapped, kicked, bit or hit with a fist or an object, when this type of violence is coupled in the same screener question with threats. Despite the evidence that for some types of violence the different screening methods may have had an effect on the results, in comparisons with other countries the complete data set of Switzerland has been used in order for the results to reflect the whole country. It is necessary to note that, based on the results of the experiment, the rates counted for the whole of Switzerland may underestimate the true levels by a few percentage points.

The survey in Switzerland also used a different approach in collecting data on the most recent victimisation experience. In the standard IVAWS questionnaire the details of incident (where it happened, did it result in injuries, was it reported to the police, etc.) are collected for the most recent incident of intimate partner violence and the most recent incident of non-partner violence. These incidents may involve one or more types of physical and/or

sexual violence. In the Swiss approach this victimisation report was used separately for incidents involving a particular type of intimate partner violence and non-partner violence. Separate victimisation reports were collect for the most recent incident of 1) slapping, kicking, biting or hitting with a fist of an object, 2) trying to strangle or suffocate, burn or scald on purpose, 3) attacking, threatening or injuring with a knife or a gun, 4) rape, and 5) attempted rape by intimate partners and non-partners, a total of ten victimisation reports. Due to the different approach taken it was not possible to use these data in comparisons with other countries.

Prevalence rates of victimisation obtained with the full set of screeners and with three screeners (condensed version), Switzerland

Type of victimisation	Full version (N = 1009)*		Condensed version (N = 962)*		p-value for the difference
	% of victims	N	% of victims	N	
Threat to hurt physically	19.0%	192	8.6 %	83	< .001
To push, grab, twist the arm of pulled the hair	12.1%	122	10.5 %	101	not significant
To slap, kick, bite or hit with the fist or an object	9.5%	96	12.3 %	118	< .05
To try to strangle or suffocate, burn or scald on purpose	2.5%	25	2.7 %	26	not significant
To attack, threaten or injure with a knife or a gun	3.8%	38	2.9 %	28	not significant
Rape	7.4%	75	3.8 %	36	< .001
Rape attempt	6.2%	62	7.5 %	72	not significant
Unwanted kissing or sexual touching	18.9%	191	17.1 %	164	not significant
Any violent behaviour	42.1%	425	36.7 %	353	< .001

Adapted from Killias et al. 2004

*For some items the total number of cases may be one or two cases smaller due to item non-response

With respect to sexual violence by intimate partners, women in Costa Rica reported the highest rates of actual and attempted forced sexual intercourse and other sexual violence by intimate partners. Within countries, types of sexual violence perpetrated by intimate partners were most likely to be forced sexual intercourse, although the percentages are less than 10% in all countries. Fewer women reported having been forced by intimate partners to have sex with someone else (such as forced prostitution) or other acts of sexual violence that don't fall into these categories (Fig. 3.10).

Examining experiences of sexual violence by intimate partners according to the most serious type presents a somewhat different picture. In Fig. 3.11, severity

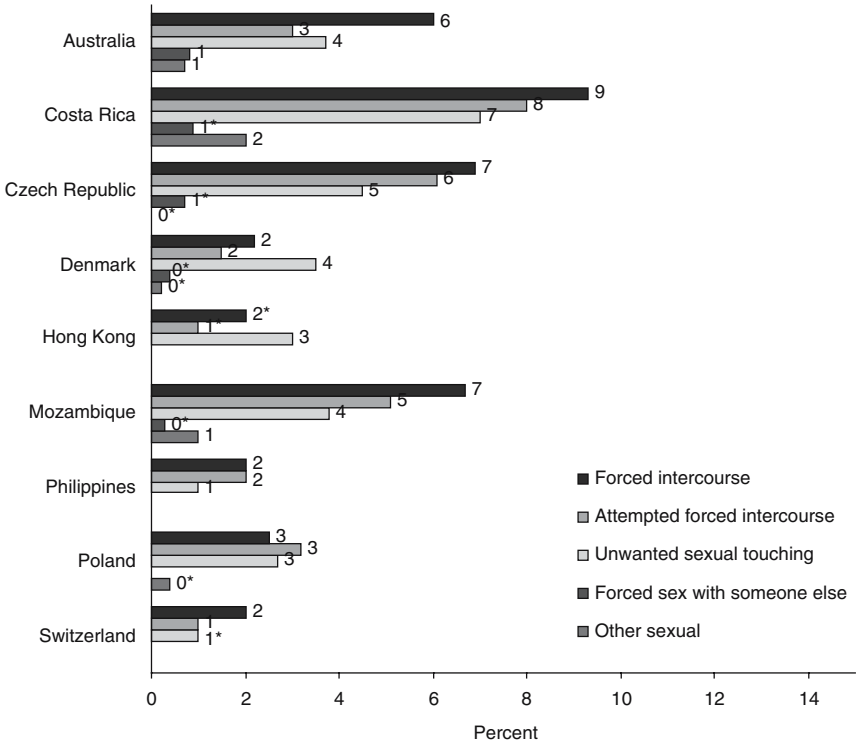


Fig. 3.10 Prevalence of types of sexual violence by intimate partners, calculated as a percentage of ever-partnered women

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

The RSE for some categories of responses in some countries was greater than 50 or counts were less than 5 so percentages are suppressed. The survey in Switzerland did not include categories "Forced sex with someone else" and "Other sexual".

is arbitrarily determined in the following order: forced sexual intercourse (rape), attempted forced sexual intercourse (attempted rape), forced sexual activity with someone else, unwanted sexual touching and other sexual violence. Each woman who reported sexual violence is included once in this analysis according to the most serious type of violence she experienced. With the exception of Denmark and Hong Kong, between one-half and two-thirds of women who were sexually assaulted by intimate partners reported being raped (forced intercourse). Between one-quarter and one-third of victims experienced attempted rape. Danish women and those in Hong Kong who were sexually assaulted by partners were more likely than women in other countries to describe the most serious incident as unwanted sexual touching. These results may reflect, in part, cultural variations in the willingness of women to name sexually coercive or violent acts as falling within the categories used in this survey, particularly if they are committed by intimate partners.

The mean number of types of violence inflicted by intimate partners ranged from a low of 1.8 in Hong Kong to highs of 3.3 in Costa Rica and 3.4 in Poland. As shown

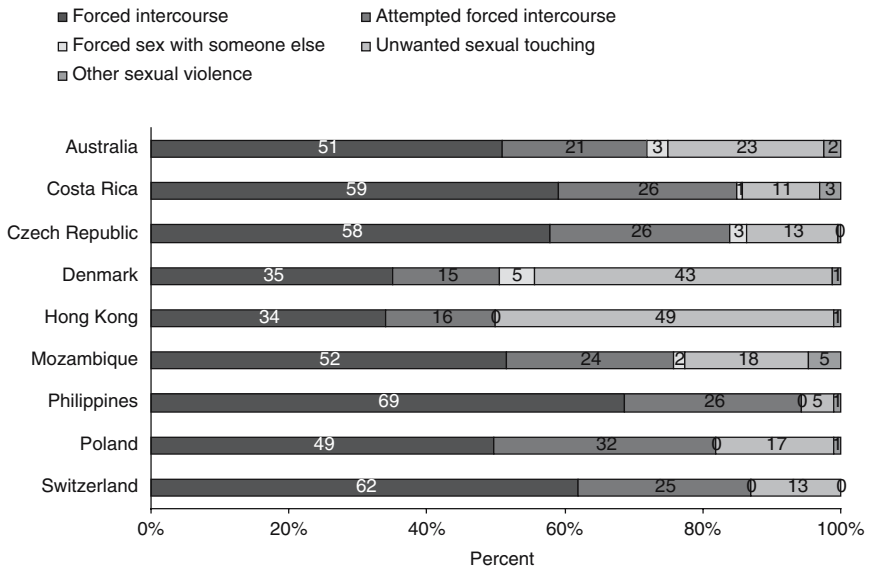


Fig. 3.11 Most serious type of sexual violence by intimate partners, calculated as a percentage of victimised women

The survey in Switzerland did not include categories "Forced sex with someone else" and "Other sexual".

in Fig. 3.12, the majority of victims of intimate partner violence in all countries, with the exception of Mozambique, Hong Kong and Switzerland, reported more than one type of violence measured in this survey. Half of women in Mozambique and Switzerland and fully 60% of women in Hong Kong reported one type while

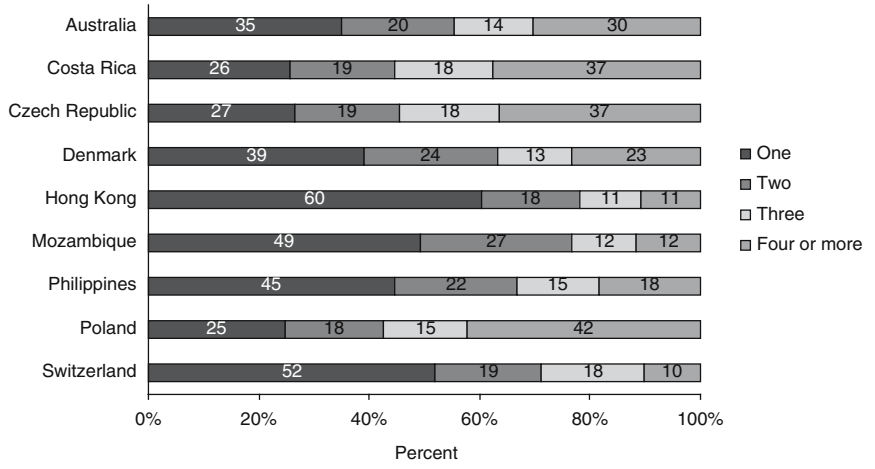


Fig. 3.12 Number of different types of violence by intimate partners, calculated as a percentage of victimised women

the percentage who reported four types or more was as high as 42% in Poland. The frequency of separate incidents of violence is an important indicator of severity, yet it is not easily calculated by IVAWS responses due to the format of the questionnaire. Countries had the option of recording actual number of incidents or recording frequency of violence within categories, such as 1–3 times per month, 1–3 times per week, everyday or almost everyday. Results are therefore not consistent and not comparable across countries.

Violence by Other Men

A different picture emerges in some countries when women are questioned about their experiences of violence by men other than intimate partners. Women in Costa Rica show the highest rates of violent victimisation by men other than intimate partners at 42% of all women. Rates of non-partner violence fall between 25% and 42% in the majority of countries (Fig. 3.13). The lowest rates are reported by women in Hong Kong and the Philippines where only about one in ten women report being physically or sexually assaulted by men other than intimate partners. While women in Switzerland reported among the lowest rates of intimate partner violence—about half the rate reported by women in Australia and Denmark—rates of non-partner violence reported by Swiss women were on par with these countries. Women in Mozambique, who reported a rate of intimate partner violence on par with Costa Rica and the Czech Republic, experienced violence by non-partners at a rate about half that of these other countries.

The relatively high rates of violence by non-partners in Costa Rica are reflected in sexual assault in particular. Costa Rica is the one country where women report noticeably higher rates of sexual than physical violence by non-partners. Sexual

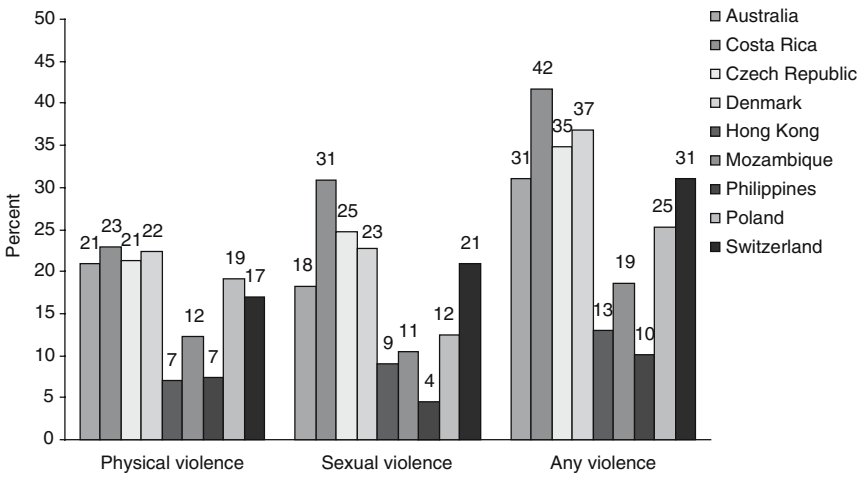


Fig. 3.13 Adult lifetime rates of violence by men other than intimate partners

assault is slightly more prevalent than physical assault among women in the Czech Republic and Switzerland. In other countries, physical violence was more prevalent or occurred at a rate comparable to sexual violence.

The profile of violence perpetrated by men other than intimate partners varies by country. Costa Rican women have the highest rates of violence by relatives, share the highest rates of stranger violence with women in Denmark, and together with women in Australia, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Switzerland, report the highest rates of violence by male friends and acquaintances (Fig. 3.14). Women in the Philippines have the lowest rates of violence by strangers, and together with Hong Kong they have the lowest rates of violence by friends/acquaintances. Less than 10% of women in all countries with the exception of Costa Rica report experiencing violence by relatives. In Costa Rica the figure is 14%.

When considering the type of violence, that is physical or sexual assaults, other important differences come to light. For example, Danish women report the highest prevalence of physical assaults by strangers (15%) and among the lowest rates of violence by relatives (3%). Costa Rican women have the highest rates of physical assaults by relatives (11%) (Fig. 3.15). Sexual violence is reported by higher percentages of women in Costa Rica compared with other countries, especially concerning relatives and strangers (Fig. 3.16). One-fifth of Costa Rican women have been sexually assaulted by a stranger since the age of 16. Similar percentages of women in Australia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Switzerland reported experiencing sexual violence by friends and acquaintances–just over one-in-ten.

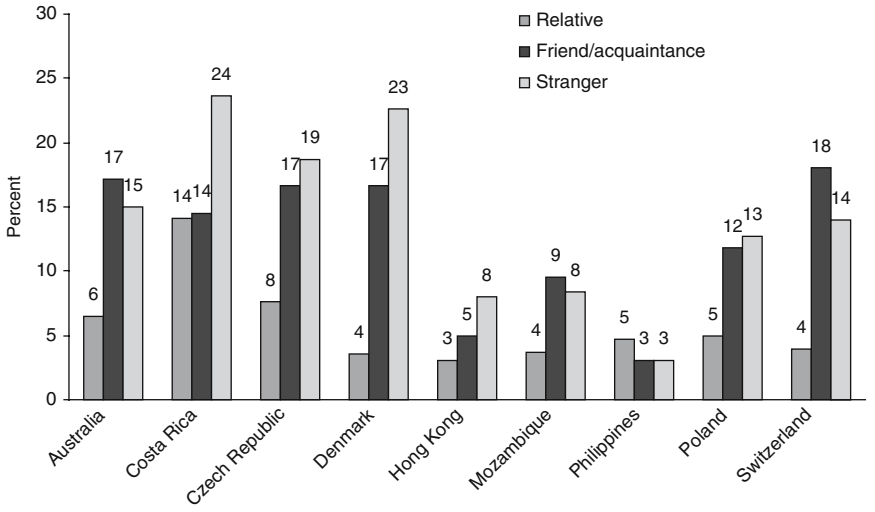


Fig. 3.14 Adult lifetime rates of violence by other men by relationship type

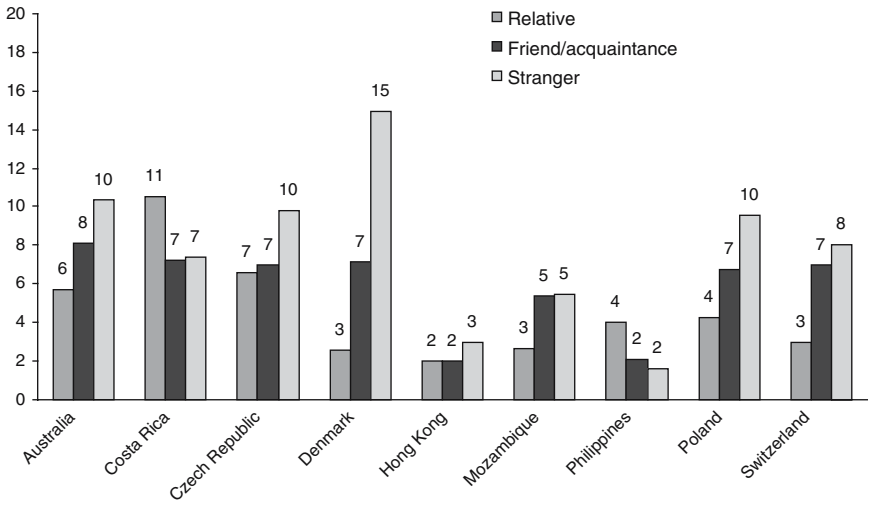


Fig. 3.15 Adult lifetime rates of physical violence by other men by relationship type

Severity of Violence by Other Men

Women who reported being victimized by other men were asked the same list of behavioural questions designed to assess the breadth and severity of the violence inflicted. The most prevalent forms of physical violence directed at women by men other than intimate partners in these countries were men threatening to hurt them physically in a way that frightened them. Next most common in most countries was being pushed, grabbed, having an arm twisted or hair pulled. Relatively high percentages of victims of non-partner violence in Costa Rica had objects thrown at them or were hit with something that hurt or frightened them (Fig. 3.17).

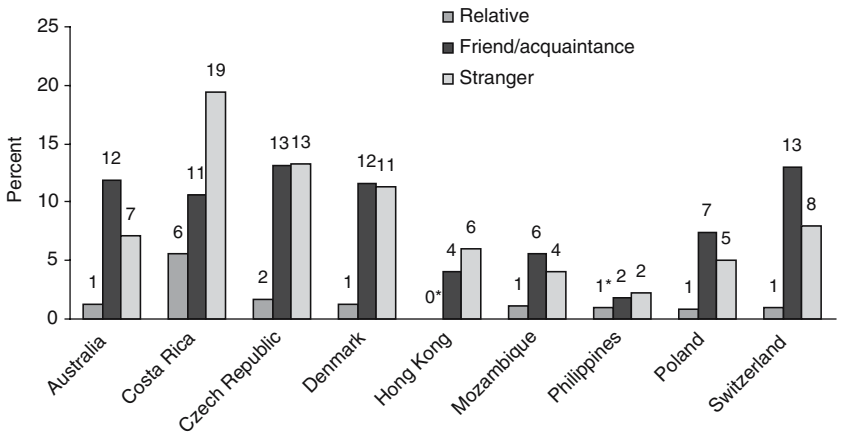


Fig. 3.16 Adult lifetime rates of sexual violence by other men by relationship type
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

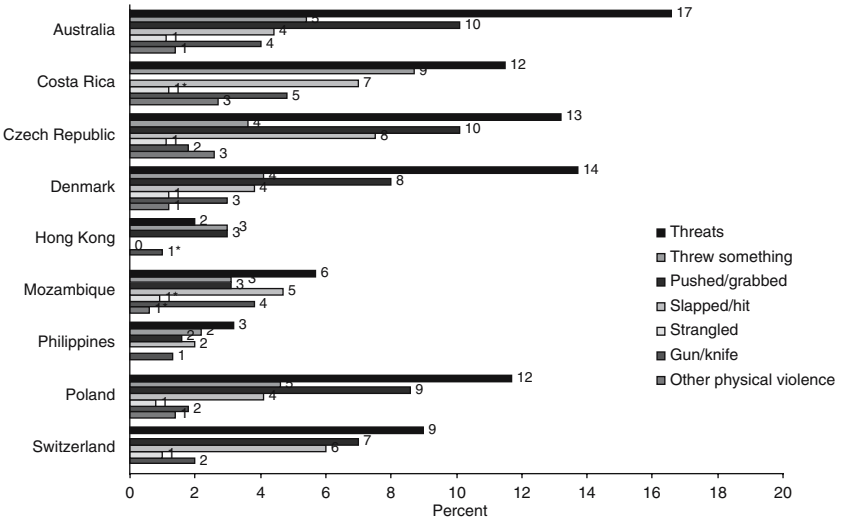


Fig. 3.17 Prevalence of types of physical violence by other men, calculated as a percentage of all women

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

The RSE for some categories of responses in some countries was greater than 50 or counts were less than 5 so percentages are suppressed.

In the Swiss survey the categories "Threw something" and "Slapped/hit" were combined. The result is shown here as the category "Slapped/hit" which therefore is not comparable with other countries. The survey in Switzerland did not include the category "Other physical violence".

With respect to the most serious type of physical violence ever experienced by men other than intimate partners, women were more likely than in cases of partner violence to report threats that frightened them as the most serious. It is interesting that prevalence does not necessarily correlate with severity. For example, Costa Rica has the highest rate of violence by non-partners and about one-quarter of these women were threatened by or had a gun or knife used against them, which is a very serious form of violence (Fig. 3.18). On the other hand, Denmark also had relatively high rates of non-partner violence, but a higher percentage involved threats or being hit with an object and a lower percentage involved guns or knives. Mozambique is a country with a relatively low rate of non-partner violence but a percentage of victims similar to Costa Rica were threatened with or had guns or knives used against them.

Sexual violence is more commonly reported to occur outside of, as compared to within, intimate relationships. Types of sexual violence perpetrated by non-partners also differ compared with sexual violence occurring within intimate relationships. In contrast to intimate partner violence, where forced sexual intercourse (rape) was most prevalent, unwanted sexual touching was the most common type of sexual assault perpetrated by non-partners in all countries. Between 17% and 25% of women in Australia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Switzerland had had at least one experience of unwanted sexual touching in their adult lifetime (Fig. 3.19). Women in Mozambique differ from women in other countries as they

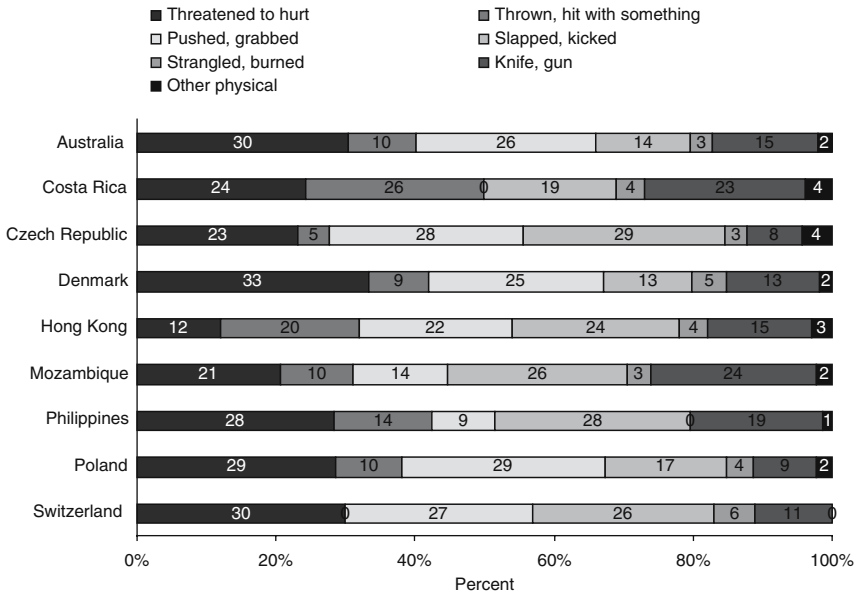


Fig. 3.18 Most serious type of physical violence by other men, calculated as a percentage of victimised women

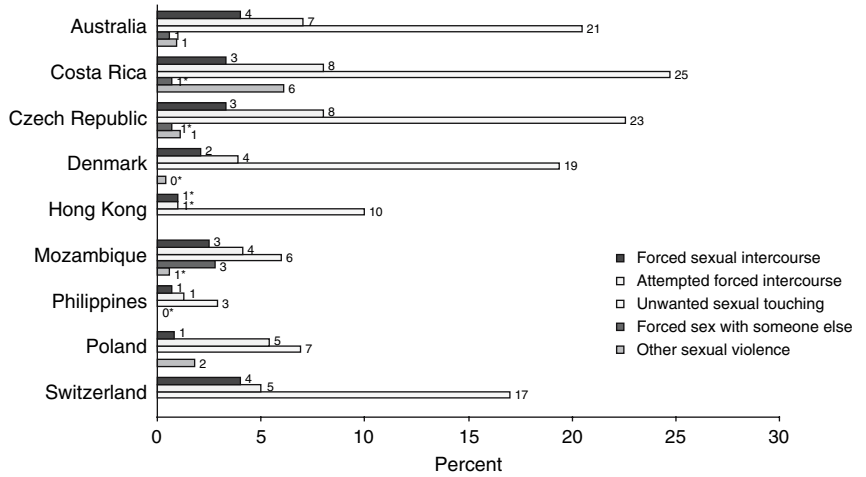


Fig. 3.19 Prevalence of types of sexual violence by other men, calculated as a percentage of all women

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

The RSE for some categories of responses in some countries was greater than 50 or counts were less than 5 so percentages are suppressed.

The survey in Switzerland did not include categories 'Forced sex with someone else' and 'Other sexual'.

were as likely to be forced to have sex with someone else, such as in exchange for money or other needed goods, as they were to be raped. This pattern does not exist in other countries and is unique to Mozambique.

Counting victims of sexual violence just once according to the most serious form of violence they have experienced, Fig. 3.20 shows that rape was the most serious assault for less than one-in-ten victimised women in all countries. Poland was the country most likely to report attempted rape as most serious type of sexual violence women experienced by men other than intimate partners. Attempted rape was the most serious type of sexual assault experienced for 30% of victims in Poland followed by 21% of victims in Mozambique. Forced sexual activity with someone else (including forced prostitution) was negligible for women in all IVAWS countries with the exception of Mozambique and the Philippines where 16% and 8% of women, respectively, reported this as the most serious on this scale. Unwanted sexual touching, in the absence of rape, attempted rape or forced sex with someone else, was the most serious for the majority of women in all countries. The percentage of victims of sexual violence who reported unwanted sexual touching as the most serious ranged from about half in Mozambique and Poland to 97% in Hong Kong. Again, this may be a reflection of cultural differences in the way women in these varied countries interpreted the survey questions in light of their own experiences, and made the decision to report them to survey interviewers.

Women victimised by men other than intimate partners tended to experience fewer types and fewer incidents of violence in all countries. With the exception of the Czech Republic, between one-half and 70% of women who were victimised by men other than intimate partners reported experiencing one type of violence

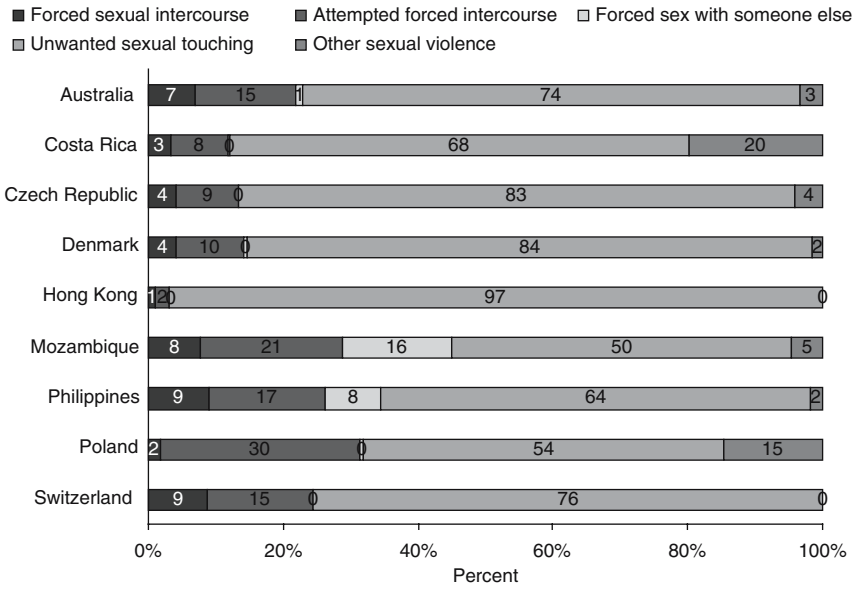


Fig. 3.20 Most serious type of sexual violence by other men, calculated as a percentage of victimised women

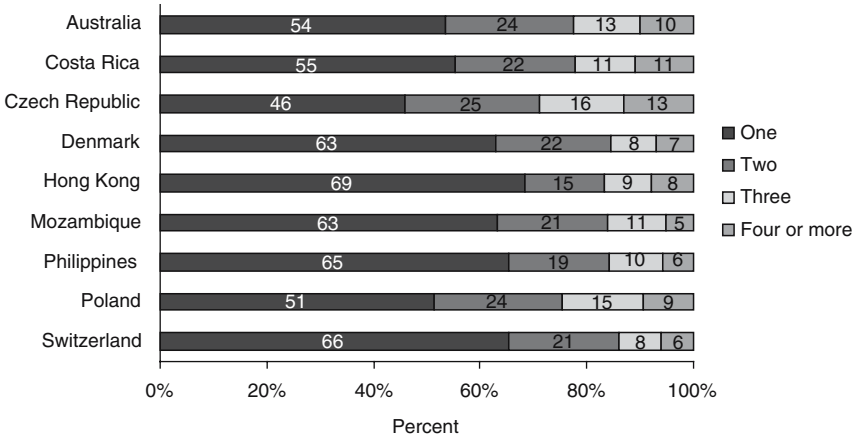


Fig. 3.21 Number of different types of violence by men other than intimate partners, calculated as a percentage of all victimised women

(Fig. 3.21). The mean number of non-partner incidents ranged from 1.6 in Denmark, Hong Kong, Mozambique and the Philippines to 1.9 in Australia, Costa Rica and Poland, and 2.1 in the Czech Republic. This includes only incidents that occurred while the women were at least 16 years of age and does not include childhood victimisation. This differs to patterns shown for intimate partner violence where the majority of victims reported more than one type of violence, and the percentage reporting four or more was as high as 42% in Poland. This reflects the different situation for women who are abused by intimate partners whereby they are connected to their abuser through family and social ties, share a household and often share children, and can become trapped in a cycle of repeated assaults without intervention by friends or neighbours, legal or social services. With the exception of women who are victimised by relatives, non-partner violence does not usually entail the same dynamics as exist in intimate partner abuse.

Respondents' Perceptions of the Severity of Violence Committed Against Them

Other indicators of the severity of the violence were based on respondents' perceptions of the seriousness of the most recent incident and whether they considered it to be a crime. Perceptions may not reflect actual severity from an objective standpoint as they are coloured by societal-level norms and attitudes about the acceptance of violence toward women. As shown in Fig. 3.22, the majority of women who were assaulted by intimate partners in previous relationships considered the violence to be serious, ranging from 63% in Hong Kong to 92% in Poland. However, in all countries, violence by current partners was less likely to be considered serious. Violence in current relationships was considered to be serious by about 40% of

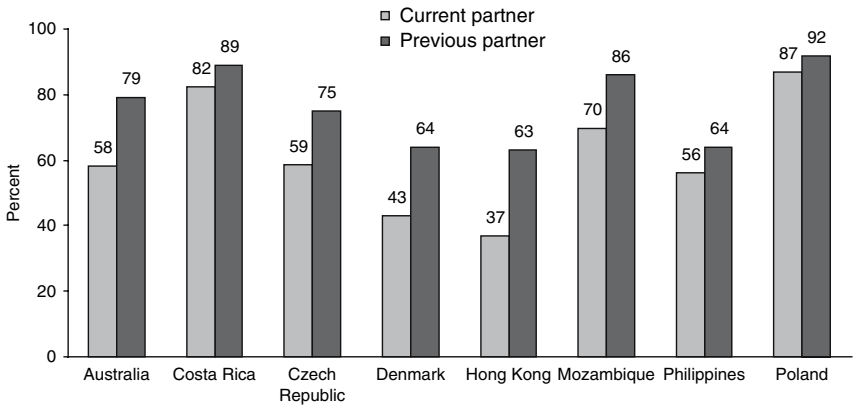


Fig. 3.22 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who considered it to be serious

women in Denmark and Hong Kong, compared with more than 80% of women in Costa Rica and Poland. The difference in the perceptions of violence by current and past partners may reflect the actual level of violence, which tends to be more severe in relationships that women have fled (Johnson 1996). It may also reflect an unwillingness to describe the violence as serious among women who must continue to tolerate it or are finding ways to live within a violent relationship. (See Appendix III for perceptions of seriousness for all partner violence, current and previous partners combined.)

Victims' perceptions of the seriousness of violence perpetrated by strangers and men known to them (other than intimate partners) is mixed (Fig. 3.23). In many countries perceptions of seriousness are similar for strangers compared with friends, acquaintances and relatives. In some countries, such as the Czech Republic, Hong

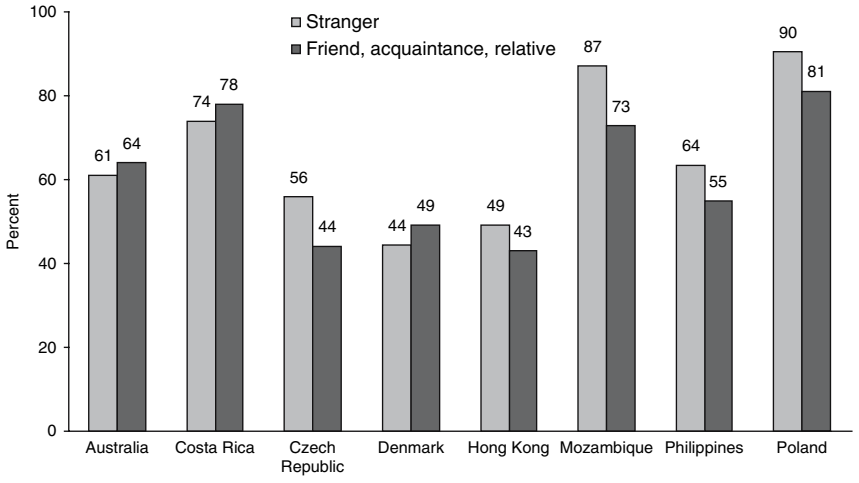


Fig. 3.23 Percentage of victims of non-partner violence who considered it to be serious

Kong, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland, stranger violence is perceived to be more serious than violence committed by known men. This may reflect a difference in the actual types of violence committed by these two groups of offenders, or it may reflect differences in what is defined culturally as a serious incident that is met with public disapproval. Violence by strangers, particularly sexual assault, has been considered by the criminal justice system and society at large in many countries as fitting within the definition of "real rape" more so than sexual assaults involving known men. Sample counts in most IVAWS countries are too small to investigate perceptions of seriousness according to type of assault in addition to the relationship of offenders to victims. Overall, women in Denmark and Hong Kong were less likely to perceive non-partner violence to be serious compared with women in other countries, such as Costa Rica, Mozambique and Poland. (See Appendix III for perceptions of seriousness for all categories of non-partners combined.)

Legal definitions of sexual assault, marital rape and domestic violence in the survey countries are specified in Appendix II. In all IVAWS countries, rape is prohibited and in all countries except Mozambique other types of forced sexual activity are also prohibited. Rape in marriage is specified as a crime in all countries except Mozambique (Fig. 3.25). Violence by intimate partners is not specified in the legal codes of most countries, but it is considered a crime under general assault provisions. When respondents to the IVAWS were asked if they considered their experiences of violence to constitute a crime, some discrepancies were uncovered in the assaults women reported to the survey and their perceptions of whether the incident qualified as an assault under the legal code. Not all women who were assaulted by intimate partners considered the act to constitute a crime.

Perceptions of whether intimate partner violence was considered a crime varied according to whether the violence occurred in a current relationship or one that had ended (Fig. 3.24). For example, half of women in Australia and the Czech Republic and 59% of women in Hong Kong who were assaulted by current partners said that

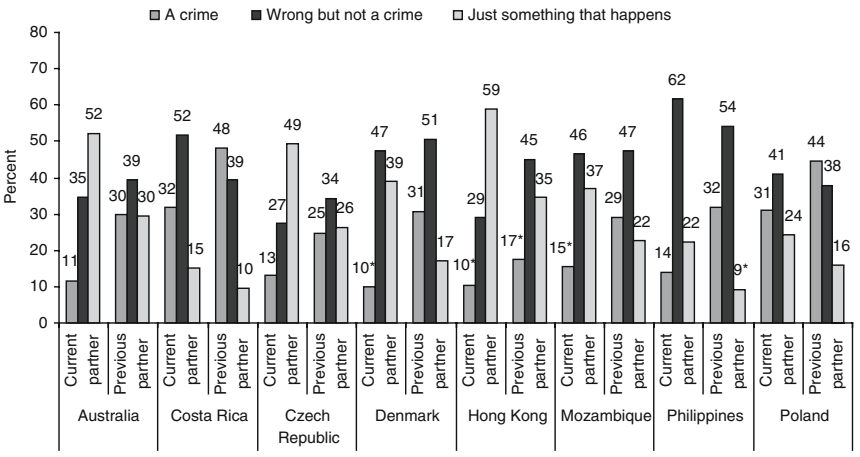


Fig. 3.24 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who considered it to be a crime
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

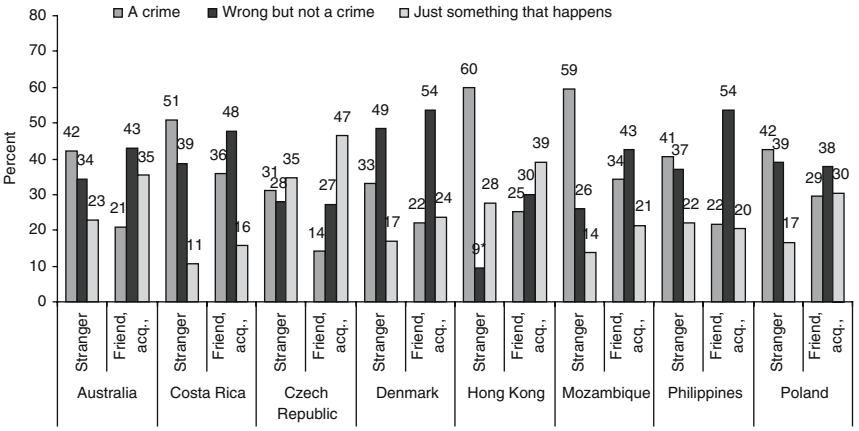


Fig. 3.25 Percentage of victims of non-partner violence who considered it to be a crime

what happened to them was "just something that happens". This compares to just 15% of women in Costa Rica. In all countries, violence by past partners was less likely than violence occurring in current relationships to be viewed as just something that happens and more likely to be considered a crime. Countries where violence by past partners was most likely to be considered a crime were Costa Rica (48%) and Poland (44%). Women in Denmark, Mozambique and the Philippines were more likely to consider violence by current and previous partners to be wrong but not a crime compared to women in other countries. (See Appendix III for perceptions of whether the incident was a crime for all partner violence, current and previous partners combined.)

Clearly legal codes are only one source of information, and perhaps not the most important, that influences victims' perceptions and how they categorise their experiences. Victims' perceptions of whether intimate partner violence should be considered a crime are affected by social norms and the attitudes and beliefs of other people in their immediate environment. These are more likely to shape victims' beliefs and responses to the violence than whether their experiences fit within an objective assessment of what would be considered a crime under the legal code.

With respect to violence committed by men other than intimate partners, in all countries, women were more likely to perceive violence by strangers to be a crime compared with violence involving known men such as friends, acquaintance and relatives. However, the percentage of women who considered stranger violence to be a crime varied from about 30% in the Czech Republic and Denmark to 60% in Hong Kong and Mozambique (Fig. 3.25). Violence by known men was considered a crime by 14% of women in the Czech Republic up to about one-third in Costa Rica and Mozambique. Czech women were most likely to consider violence by known men to be just something that happens which was also the most common response among women in Hong Kong. More common was the perception that violence by known men was wrong but not a crime, reported by at least half of victims in Costa Rica, Denmark and the Philippines and was the most common response in Australia,

Mozambique and Poland. (See Appendix III for perceptions of whether the incident was a crime for all categories of non-partners combined.)

Violence in Childhood

Questions on the IVAWS regarding experiences of violence in childhood were optional. Among the countries participating in the study, all but Denmark, Hong Kong and Mozambique included this module of questions. Violence in childhood encompassed the following:

- physical assaults by fathers and mothers
- sexual violence by fathers, step-fathers, mothers, step-mothers, siblings, other relatives and other known men

Rates of physical violence by parents in childhood ranged from a low of 9% in the Philippines to a high of 40% in Costa Rica (Fig. 3.26). Women in Costa Rica report physical violence by parents in childhood at rates twice as high as women in Australia, the Czech Republic and Switzerland and four times higher than women in the Philippines. Fathers outnumbered mothers as perpetrators of parental physical abuse in every country except Costa Rica where mothers were slightly more likely than fathers to inflict physical punishment on these female respondents when they were children.

Women who had been physically assaulted by parents were asked how serious they considered the assaults to be. Less than half of women in the Czech Republic and the Philippines who were physically abused by fathers and one-third of women in these countries who were abused by mothers considered the abuse to be serious. Those in other countries who considered the abuse to be serious were upwards of

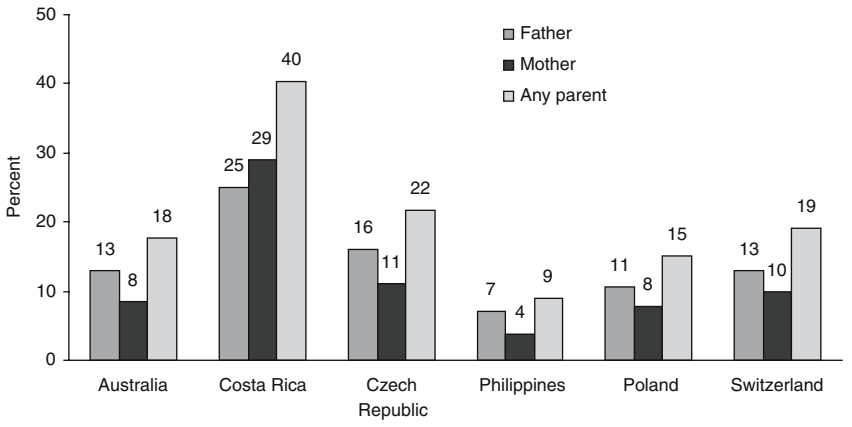


Fig. 3.26 Rates of physical violence in childhood by parents

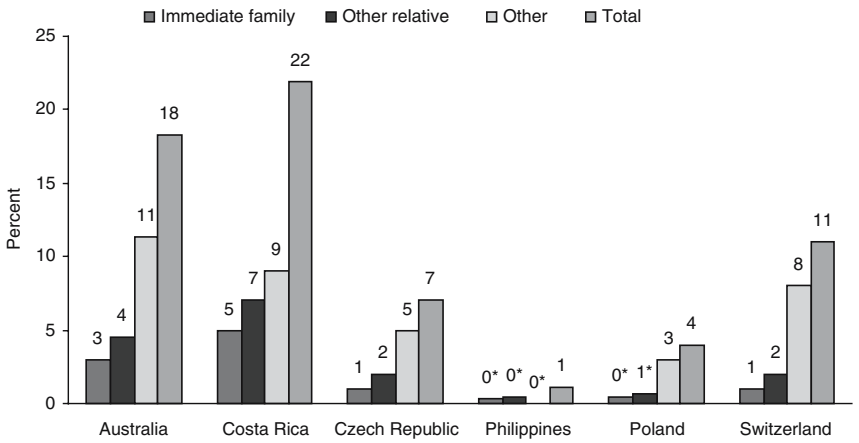


Fig. 3.27 Rates of sexual violence in childhood Immediate family includes father, mother, step-parents and siblings.
Other includes other known offenders and strangers.
* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

three-quarters in the case of abuse by fathers and at least two-thirds in the case of abuse by mothers. Without details about injury and other consequences of these assaults, severity is not an objective measure. Inter-country differences in perceptions of severity of parental assaults may be a reflection of actual differences in the degree of severity in the manner in which parents use physical means to discipline their children, or cultural variations in perceptions of the acceptability of physical discipline whereby parents can use violence with impunity in some countries and it may not be considered serious unless severe injury results.

The IVAWS also asked about experiences of forced sexual activity before age 16. Rates were highest in Costa Rica and Australia where about one in five women reported being sexually assaulted (Fig. 3.27). Australian women were unlike women in other countries in that they were equally likely to report physical abuse by parents and sexual abuse before age 16. It was typical for other countries to report higher rates of physical as compared with sexual violence in childhood. Childhood physical and sexual abuse can be traumatic experiences for victims and disclosures especially difficult in an interview situation, even where confidentiality is guaranteed. These figures therefore may undercount the true prevalence of childhood abuse in these countries.

Interconnections Among Lifetime Experiences of Violence

Results of the International Violence Against Women Survey indicate that violence is a common feature in the lives of large percentages of women. Significant proportions of women in the countries included in this study experienced physical or sexual violence since the age of 16 and in childhood. Fig. 3.28 illustrates the extent

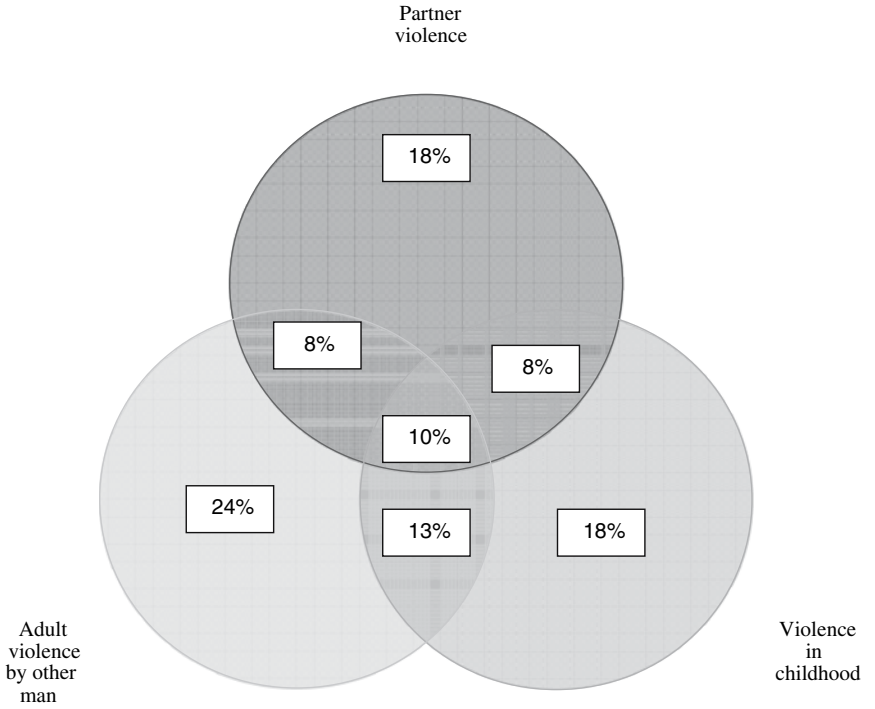


Fig. 3.28 Interconnections among experiences of violence

to which these experiences overlap. Including just the six countries that included both adult and childhood experiences of violence, victimised women experienced violence in the following ways:

- 10% of victimised women in the sample experienced violence in all three contexts: violence by an intimate partner, violence by another man since age 16, and physical or sexual abuse in childhood
- 44% experienced intimate partner violence
  - 18% reported partner violence and no other type of violence
  - 26% were victims of intimate partner violence and other types of violence
- 55% experienced violence by men other than intimate partners in their adult lifetime
  - 24% reported only non-partner violence as an adult
  - 31% were victims of non-partner violence and violence in other situations
- 49% experienced abuse as a child, either physical abuse by parents or unwanted sexual activity by anyone
  - 18% experienced childhood violence and no violence as an adult
  - 31% experienced childhood violence and violence as an adult

Overall, 40% of victimised women experienced violence in more than one context and 60% were victims of violence in one of these three situations only. The following chapter explores some of the factors that are associated with a heightened risk of violence, including the extent to which childhood experiences of violence represent a risk factor for adult victimisation.

Summary

Results of the IVAWS show that violence against women is widespread and affects substantial proportions of women in the countries studied. Rates of intimate partner violence are comparably high in Mozambique, Costa Rica and the Czech Republic. Mozambique stands out as having the highest rates of violence in the 12 months prior to the survey interview, and the unusual pattern of reporting higher rates of violence by current partners as compared with men in past relationships. This disparity between Mozambique and the other countries studied may be due to a more traditional culture that does not support separation and divorce as an appropriate response to intimate partner violence.

Violent victimisation by men other than intimate partners was most prevalent in Costa Rica, and in particular, women in that country were most susceptible to sexual assault by non-partners. Perceptions of the seriousness of the violence perpetrated against them, or whether victims consider the experience to be a crime, are likely coloured by social norms present in the women's immediate environment.

Physical violence by parents is most prevalent in the backgrounds of women in Costa Rica. Together with Australian women, they were more likely than women in other countries to report sexual abuse in childhood.

Cross-national comparative research has many benefits in terms of identifying levels of risk and the factors that contribute to or protect from violent victimisation. However, it also has its challenges with respect to standardisation of question meaning and interpretation by respondents. Even when care is taken to standardise the methodology used in participating countries, through use of a common questionnaire, interviewer selection and training, data capture and editing, the comparability of results may be affected by cultural differences regarding the willingness of women to identify their experiences as fitting within the objectives of the survey, and their willingness to disclose experiences to an interviewer. Notwithstanding this caveat and possible under-reporting of violence in these surveys, these results leave no doubt that violence against women is a broad and multi-faceted social problem. Chapter 4 will examine the impacts and consequences of violence for these women.

Chapter 4
The Impact and Consequences of Violence for Women

Identification of serious and long-lasting impacts have led violence against women to be identified as a major public health issue (Heise et al. 1994; Velzeboer et al. 2003). Violence is both a direct cause of acute and chronic health problems and can be an indirect risk factor for a wide range of problems stemming from injury, fear and stress (Campbell et al. 2002). Research with victims of intimate partner violence in health care and other settings has documented such problems as physical injury, chronic pain, headaches and migraines, memory loss, abdominal pain, gastrointestinal problems, gynaecological problems, as well as mental health problems such as depression, alcohol and drug abuse, low self-esteem, fear, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder, and suicide attempts (Campbell 2002; Campbell et al. 2004; Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005; Heise et al. 1999; Krug et al. 2002). Women who are sexually assaulted by intimate partners (which is almost always accompanied by physical violence) have significantly more health and gynecological problems and HIV/AIDS than women who are physically but not sexually assaulted (Campbell & Lewandowski 1997; Campbell & Soeken 1999). One Australian study estimates that intimate partner violence has a greater impact on the health of women under the age of 45 than any other risk factor and the greatest proportion of the impact is associated with mental health problems (Victorian Department of Human Services 2004). Although victims of psychological or emotional abuse often describe the impacts as more serious than physical abuse, few studies have examined this empirically. In a study of women seeking medical care in two clinics situated at universities in the United States, Coker and her associates (2005) found that psychological abuse by intimate partners was as strongly associated with adverse health outcomes as was physical violence.

Childhood sexual victimisation is also associated with mental health problems, drug abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, unwanted pregnancy, and high-risk behaviours such as unprotected sex and prostitution (Heise et al. 1999; McClellan et al. 1997). In addition to the impact of sexual victimisation itself, many women suffer secondary victimisation from friends, family and the social and criminal justices agencies to whom they turn for support in the aftermath of the attack. Victim-blaming attitudes are widespread in most societies which can leave victims feeling they somehow caused the attack, or that the severity or impact of the event should be minimised. Negative reactions from others can lead victims of sexual assault to abuse alcohol and drugs, withdraw from others, and delay help-seeking,

all of which can be seriously detrimental to victims' self-esteem and successful recovery (Campbell & Raja 1999; Ullman 1996).

In addition to health problems, violence also impairs the ability of women to function in the labour market, complete their education, carry out their everyday activities, and participate as fully functioning members of the community. The fear of violence causes women to curtail their activities in public places and can seriously limit the extent to which they participate in social or educational events or take on jobs that require them to travel alone at night (Johnson 1996).

Women in the IVAWS were asked to describe the impact of the violence they experience in terms of physical injury, receiving medical attention for injuries, fearing for their lives, and using drugs or alcohol to cope with the consequences of the violence. In this section, respondents were questioned only about the most recent incident of violence. It is well known from previous research that abused women very often experience multiple or ongoing assaults by their partners. To ask detailed questions about each incident would pose an unreasonable burden on respondents. There is also a risk that, because of the high frequency of some assaults, the accuracy of recall regarding the details of each one could be at issue. Rather than asking about the outcome and consequences of each incident, respondents were asked to describe the most recent. Analyses of the impacts of violence presented in this chapter therefore are based on single incidents. Injury and other consequences of assault describe the most recent incident and are taken to be representative of all assaults in the absence of more complete information. However, when comparing the consequences of violent perpetrated by current and previous partners, it is likely that the most recent incident of violence by a previous partner is more serious than the most recent incident by a current partner because separation from a violent spouse is likely to be triggered by the most serious assaults.

Physical Injury

The closer the relationship of perpetrators to victims, the higher the rates of physical injury suffered by victims. Higher percentages of intimate partners inflicted physical injury compared with other known men or strangers (Fig 4.1 and 4.2). One exception to this was Mozambique where strangers were as likely to cause injury to victims as were current partners. With the exception of Hong Kong, violence by previous partners was more likely to result in physical injury compared with violence in current relationships. Over half of all women in the Czech Republic, the Philippines and Poland who were assaulted by a previous partner reported being physically injured by him. The highest rates of injury by current partners were also reported by women the Czech Republic, the Philippines and Poland, at 40% or more. (See Appendix III for the percentage injured for all partner violence, current and previous partners combined.)

Physical injuries were described as bruises by 57% of women injured by intimate partners. One in five suffered cuts, scratches or burns, and the remainder

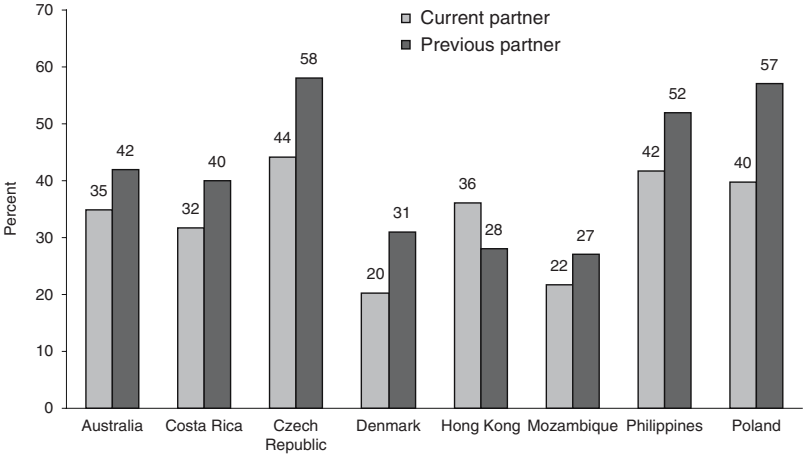


Fig. 4.1 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who were physically injured

suffered fractures, broken bones, head injuries, genital injuries and other internal injuries. Responses to questions about physical injury could be affected by variations in perceptions of what constitutes an injury, particularly in the context of ongoing violence by an intimate partner. If violence is normative or widely tolerated and victims are not provided with support to end the violence or seek help, relatively minor injuries may be dismissed as not worth mentioning in an interview situation.

Following from the pattern of closer relationships being more likely to result in physical injury to victims, in the context of non-partner violence, other known men tended to be more likely than strangers to injure their victims. Exceptions

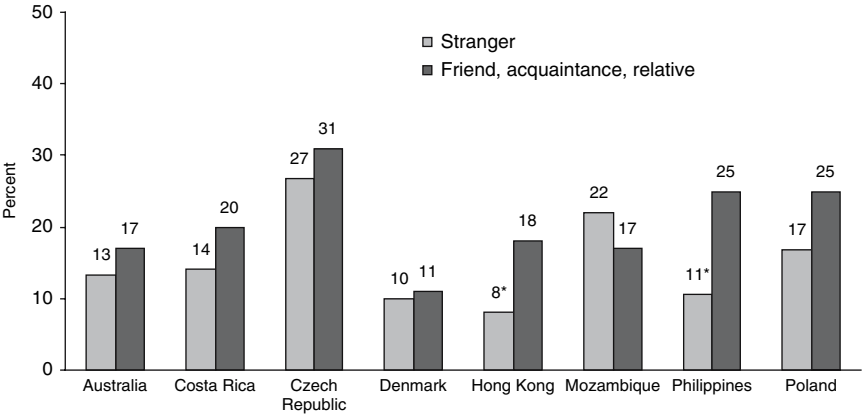


Fig. 4.2 Percentage of victims of non-partner violence who were physically injured
∗ Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

were Denmark and Mozambique. In Mozambique the pattern was the reverse and in Denmark there was no difference in levels of injury between the two groups of perpetrators. Women in the Czech Republic reported the highest rates of injury by both strangers and known men which makes Czech women consistently among the most frequently injured in all relationship categories. Similar to the injuries inflicted by partners, women injured by strangers and known men were most likely to describe their injuries as bruises (56%). Sixteen percent also suffered cuts, scratches or burns, and the remainder suffered fractures, broken bones, head injuries, genital injuries and other internal injuries.

Requiring Medical Attention

Requiring medical attention for injuries is an indicator of very serious levels of violence. Significant proportions of women answered "yes" to the question *Were you injured so badly that you needed medical care, even if you didn't get it?* The phrasing of the question this way was intended to ensure that women who required medical attention but didn't receive it, because they were prevented from doing so by the offender or for some other reason, were counted. In the case of intimate partner violence, in the majority of countries women were injured badly enough to require medical attention in previous relationships more often than in current relationships. This was the case for women in all countries except Hong Kong and the Philippines where current and previous partners were equally likely to inflict injury requiring medical attention. The percentage of women requiring medical attention for injuries

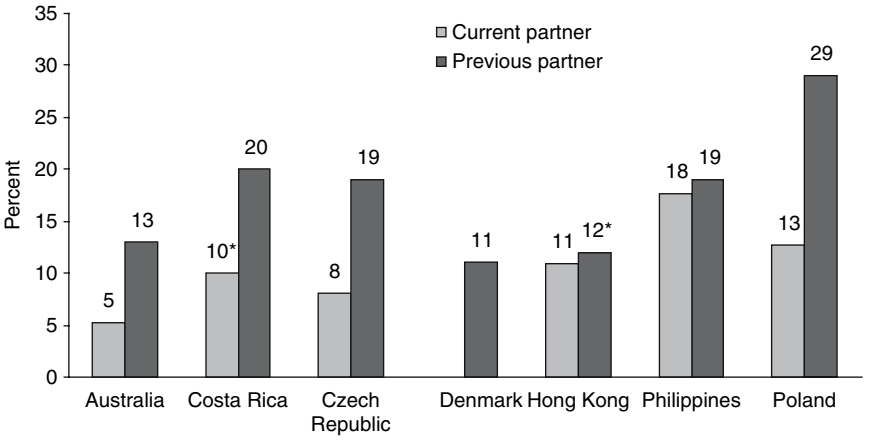


Fig. 4.3 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who required medical attention for injuries

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

Relative standard error for current partner in Denmark was greater than 50.

This question was omitted from the Mozambique questionnaire.

in relationships that were current at the time of the interview was highest in the Philippines (18%). The percentage requiring medical attention for violence in past relationships was one-in-five in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and the Philippines and 29% in Poland (Fig. 4.3).

The percentage of women who required medical attention following violence by strangers and known men was lower, averaging less than five percent in all countries.

Fearing for Her Life

Fearing one's life is in danger from a violent partner or other man is perhaps one of the most important indicators of the impact and severity of the violence. Just as women were more likely to have been injured in previous violent relationships, they were also more likely to state that they feared their lives were in danger by previous partners compared with current partners. Around 60% of women in Costa Rica, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland said they had feared for their lives in a previous violent relationship (Fig. 4.4). Half of Costa Rican women in current violent relationships fear for their lives and figures are almost as high among women in Mozambique and the Philippines. This is an indication that women are living with very serious violence or threats of serious violence or death which they are unable to escape from due to cultural practices or lack of social or legal supports. The percentages of women fearing for their lives were lowest in Australia, Denmark and Hong Kong.

It is interesting that rates of physical injury are not always a good indicator of violence that causes women to fear for their lives. For example, women in Mozambique reported relatively low levels of injury by violent partners but were among those most likely to fear for their lives. This illustrates an important fact about intimate partner violence that should form an essential component

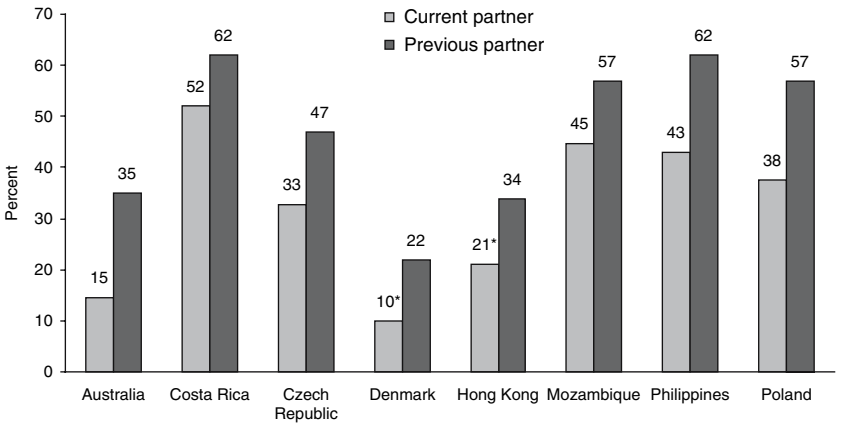


Fig. 4.4 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who feared for their lives

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

of training and awareness-raising for criminal justice officials and other helping agencies: visible physical injuries are not the only indicator of the severity of violence and the need of women for protection and support. Credible threats, threats with weapons and other acts not resulting in injury can instil fear of serious assaults or death in abused women and these threats should be taken seriously.

With respect to violence inflicted by men other than intimate partners, women were generally more likely to fear their lives were in danger at the time of a violent assault by strangers compared with men they knew such as friends and acquaintances (Fig. 4.5). This was true for all countries except Costa Rica and Hong Kong where violence by known men more often caused women to fear for their lives. Those who feared for their lives when faced with violence by strangers varied widely from 14% in Hong Kong and 15% in Denmark to 79% of women in Mozambique. Among women victimised by men known to them, percentages who feared for their lives ranged from a low of 8% in Denmark to over 50% in Costa Rica, Mozambique and the Philippines. Again, fearing for one's life is not always predicted by physical injury. One example is in Costa Rica where 20% of women victimised by known men were injured and 54% feared for their lives. Strangers injured 11% of victims in the Philippines but 61% of victims said they feared their lives were in danger at the time of the attack. Other factors, such as the context in which the violence took place, the frequency of assaults and threats experienced throughout the lifetime, supports and interventions from outsiders, and verbal threats of serious violence or death, can all have a bearing on whether victims will fear for their lives during a violent assault by strangers, friends or acquaintances.

In Chapter 3 it was shown that not all women who were violently victimised by intimate partners or other men considered the experience to be serious, and many did not consider these experiences to constitute a crime. Perceptions of seriousness

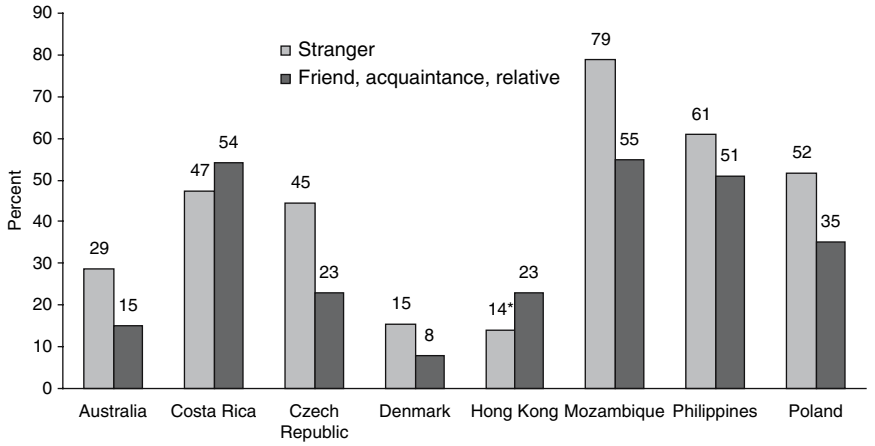


Fig. 4.5 Percentage of victims of non-partner violence who feared for their lives
∗ Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

are in part determined by the impact of the assault on victims, including physical injuries. In most countries, upwards of 90% of women who were injured by intimate partner assaults considered the incident to be serious for them. However, in the Philippines and Hong Kong, 22% and 30%, respectively, of injured women did not consider the assaults against them to be serious.

There is considerable ambiguity about labelling intimate partner assaults as crimes in all countries, even when they are serious enough to result in physical injury. Just 25% of injured women in Hong Kong and 32% of injured women in the Czech Republic considered the assault to be a crime. The highest proportion was in Costa Rica where 67% of women injured by intimate partners labelled the assault a crime. Substantial proportions of injured women accepted the assault as just something that happens, including 28% in Hong Kong, 24% in Australia and 22% in the Czech Republic.

Fearing one's life is in danger is a reflection of severe violence or the threat of violence or death. In the vast majority of cases of intimate partner violence where women feared their lives were in danger—over 90% in most countries—they also considered the situation to be serious. One exception is the Philippines where 20% of women who feared for their lives did not considered the situation to be serious. Even though they may consider it serious, in some countries a majority of women did not consider the incident to be a crime even in cases so severe the women feared their lives were in danger (Fig. 4.6). In the Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Mozambique and the Philippines only about one-third of women who were so severely assaulted or threatened that they feared for their lives nonetheless did not consider the incident to be a crime. Only in Denmark did more than three-quarters of women in such a situation considered the incident to be a crime. Perceptions of the private nature of family matters endure in many cultures even when violence results in injury or fear of injury or death. Legal education to improve

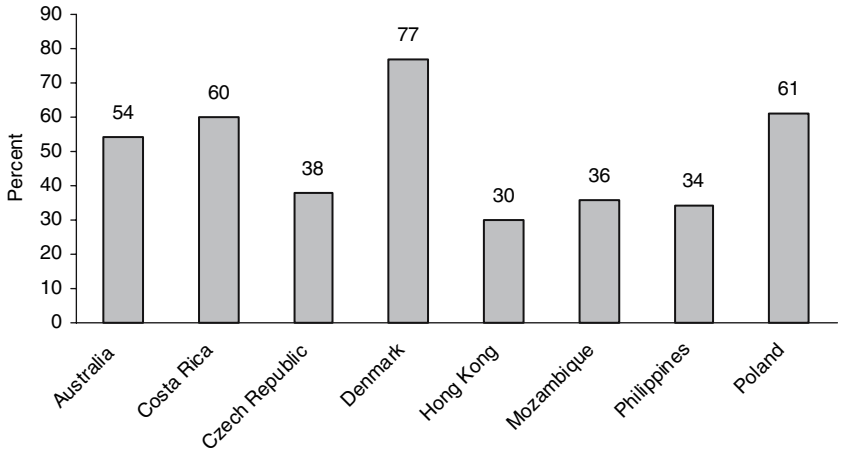


Fig. 4.6 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who feared for their lives who considered the incident to be a crime

awareness of the criminal and harmful nature of physical and sexual violence may help alter the attitudes of abused women and others in their social and family environments, with the objective of breaking down barriers to providing supports to victims.

Use of Alcohol and Medication to Cope with the Violence

Women use a variety of strategies to cope with the impact of partner violence and assaults by other men, some of which can have further negative consequences for their own health. One such strategy is to use alcohol or medication to alleviate negative emotional and physical impacts of the violence. Use of alcohol or medication to cope with intimate partner violence is substantially higher in countries such as the Czech Republic and Poland than in others, including Denmark and Mozambique (Fig. 4.7). Around thirty percent of women in the Czech Republic who were assaulted by previous partners, and similar percentage in Poland who were victimised by current or past partners, used alcohol or medication to cope. The very small percentages of women who used alcohol as a coping strategy in Mozambique may be due in part to the fact that about one-fifth of the population is Muslim. In other countries, there is a general pattern of higher use of alcohol and medication to help cope with the impact of violence in previous relationships, where the violence has been shown to be more serious. But in some countries rates of alcohol and drug use are similar in current and previous relationships and in Poland alcohol or drug use are higher in situations current partner violence.

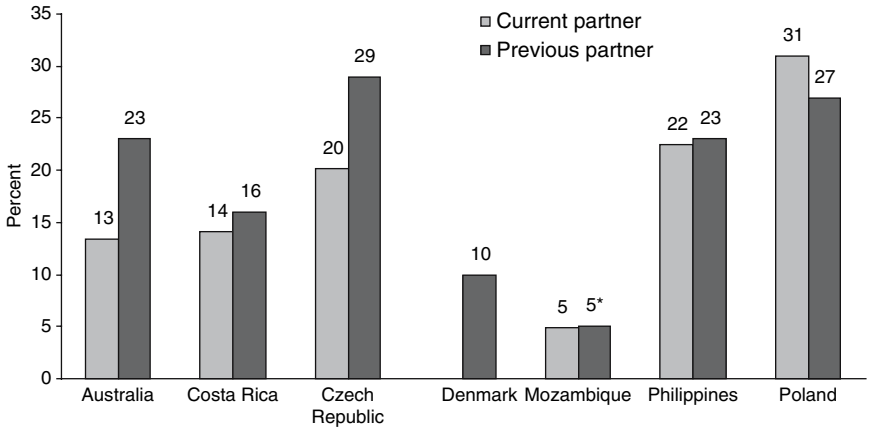


Fig. 4.7 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who use alcohol or medication to help cope with the violence

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

Sample counts for current partner in Denmark and both current and previous partners in Hong Kong are less than 5.

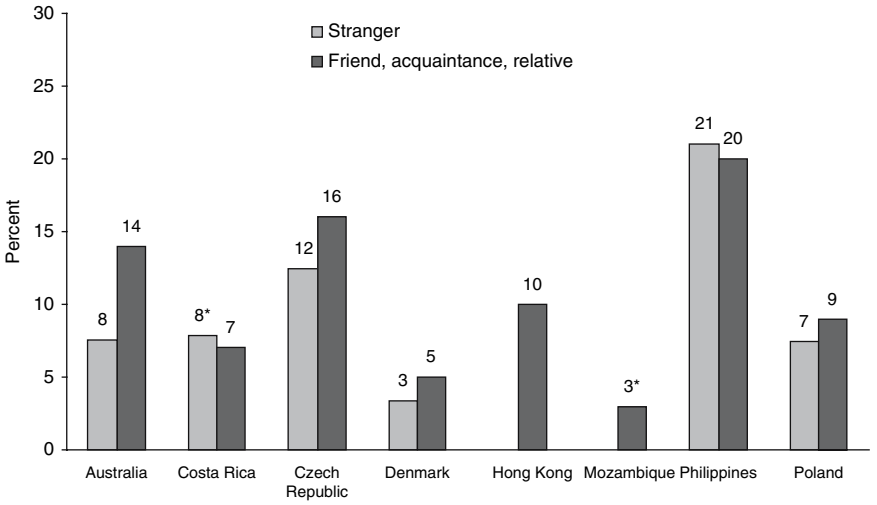


Fig. 4.8 Percentage of victims of non-partner violence who use alcohol or medication to help cope with the violence

The relative standard error for stranger in Mozambique and Hong Kong is greater than 50.

Women who were victimised by strangers and known men were less likely to have used alcohol or medication to help cope with the experience. Women in the Philippines had the highest rates of substance use as a coping strategy: one in five who were assaulted by a stranger or known man used alcohol or medication to cope (Fig. 4.8). This was a less common coping strategy for women in Denmark than in other countries.

Summary

The impacts and consequences of violence for female victims, on the few measures included in the IVAWS, were substantial. Physical injury and fear for personal safety was common, especially among those assaulted by intimate partners. This is exacerbated by the fact that victims of intimate partner violence live with their perpetrators and are connected to them through marriage, children, financial arrangements, extended family and other obligations. It is often a very complex matter to disengage from a violent partner, given legal, social and cultural barriers, and even when separated, violent partners can continue to instil fear through threats, stalking and harassment, and violence (Campbell et al. 2001). Fear can be debilitating and interfere with the woman's ability to assess her own safety, to reach out to others who might be able to provide support, and to bring sanctions to bear on violent partners. The substantial levels of fear caused by stranger violence is likely a consequence of the unknown and unexpected nature of these attacks, the element of surprise, and the feelings of loss of control over the situation.

Using alcohol or medication to help cope with the experience and impacts of violence is practiced by significant proportions of victims of violence in some countries. This strategy is likely to be counterproductive and can have negative impacts on women's health in the long run, but is indicative of the emotional impact on victims and the lack of alternatives some perceive to be available to them in their local communities.

Chapter 5
Correlates of Violence

As shown in Chapter 3, there is variation in the types and frequency of violence experienced by women in the countries participating in the IVAWS. There is ethnographic evidence from other research studies that, although gender-based violence exists to some extent in the majority of societies, it is low or non-existent in some. In his ethnographic study of 90 small-scale and peasant societies, Levinson (1989) identified 16 that were relatively free of family violence. Sanday (1981), in a cross-cultural study of rape in 95 tribal societies, described 45 as free of rape. The fact that cross-cultural research has found variations in the frequency and severity of violence against women has led some researchers to the conclusion that violence therefore is not inevitable (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005) and that by identifying factors that raise the risk of violence, actions can be taken to prevent it.

This chapter examines the factors that are associated with physical and sexual violence and that those help protect women from violence. Previous research has identified certain characteristics of women, their male perpetrators and the surrounding culture that are associated with a heightened risk of intimate partner violence. These include: the youth of the victim and perpetrator; male unemployment and low economic status; alcohol and drug abuse on the part of male partners; exposure to violence in childhood; emotional abuse by male partners; forced sex; male dominance and control in the family; traditional gender-role ideology; attitudes condoning marital violence; a wider culture that equates masculinity with dominance, toughness and honour; and, a culture that condones violence as a way to solve problems (Heise 1998; Stith et al. 2004).

Many of the risk factors for killing or attempted killing of female partners are the same: perpetrators with a history of violence inside and outside the home; access to weapons; substance abuse; jealousy and obsessiveness; stalking; sexual violence; violence during pregnancy; children from a previous relationship living in the home; threats of homicide or suicide; and, separation or threats by female partners to end the relationship (Campbell et al. 2001, 2003; Gartner et al. 1998; McFarlane et al. 2002; Wilson & Daly 1998). Men are almost universally most often the perpetrators in intimate partner homicides cross-culturally, and when women kill intimate partners they are far more likely to be killing a violent partner in self-defence (Campbell et al. 2001).

As a field of study, research examining correlates and risk factors for sexual assault is less well-developed than in the area of intimate partner violence. Victimisation surveys, which are designed to assess the prevalence of sexual violence and the factors or situations that increase women's risk of attack, typically contain little information about offenders, with the exception of offenders who are intimate partners. This is due to the very nature of victimisation surveys which focus primarily on the characteristics of respondents who are the victims of crimes, and also concerns that women may not have reliable information about many characteristics of sexual offenders who are casual acquaintance, friends or strangers. Correlates of sexual victimisation that have been identified by surveys include being young and unmarried, being a student or active in leisure or work patterns that take place outside the home in the evening, and having previously been raped or sexually abused (Gannon & Mihorean 2005; Krug et al. 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes 2006). These indicate something about the risk of sexual violence for young women but they are not very helpful for identifying factors related to perpetrators that could help with the design of intervention or prevention programs for potential offenders. Prevention and intervention strategies that typically flow from assessments of risk based on the characteristics of sexual assault victims focus on helping women protect themselves by restricting their activities or improving their self-defence capabilities. These strategies place the burden of prevention on female victims and not on the perpetrators of sexual violence.

Studies of offenders have identified characteristics that raise the likelihood of committing sexual violence, but these studies are generally based on men who have been apprehended by police. Offenders who are charged by police, convicted and sentenced to prison represent a very small, nonrepresentative sample of all men who rape (see Chapter 6 for a discussion of the barriers to reporting sexual violence to the police). The World Health Organization, in a review of the research literature in the *World Report on Violence and Health* cite the following personal and societal level risk factors for perpetrating sexual violence: alcohol consumption, especially within a cultural context of male group bonding; a history of sexual violence in childhood; strongly patriarchal relationships or family structures; societal tolerance of sexual assault and objectification of women; high levels of violence in the community; and weak laws and policies related to sexual violence and gender equality (Krug et al. 2002).

Small studies, typically conducted with men attending college, have explored men's attitudes and beliefs about rape and rape victims. The results of these studies provide an important source of information for understanding male sexual aggression. Belief in rape myths—beliefs that only certain types of women are raped, women "ask for it" by the way they dress, any woman who doesn't want sex can resist if she wants to, and women cry rape when they engage in sex that they later regret—are widespread and those who adhere to rape myths are more likely to use sexual coercion or commit rape and support male peers in the same behaviour (Burt 1991; Check & Malamuth 1985; Murnen et al. 2002; Schwartz & Dekeseredy 1997; Taylor & Mouzos 2006). Men who hold rape-supportive beliefs also tend to hold traditional beliefs about gender roles, negative attitudes toward male-female relationships, hostile attitudes toward women, conservative political beliefs, and express a need for power and dominance in intimate relationships (Anderson et al.

1997; Murnen et al. 2002; Sanday 1990). Rape is more common in societies where individual attitudes and beliefs condoning rape are supported by a broader cultural ideology of male superiority (Sanday 1981). A South African study of love and violence among adolescents suggest that while the young people are aware of power differentials, inequities and double standards operating within constructions of love and sexual intercourse, resistance is difficult due to male power and peer pressure (Wood & Jewkes 2001).

Following the format of most victimisation studies on violence against women, the IVAWS did not capture detailed information on perpetrators of sexual violence unless they were intimate partners. The following analysis therefore is biased in favour of identifying risk factors and correlates of intimate partner violence. Nevertheless, the research literature indicates that there are generalities that can be made about men who perpetrate physical and sexual violence against intimate partners and those who commit sexual assaults on other women. Studies like the IVAWS are important for contributing to a theoretical understanding about how and why physical and sexual violence against women occurs. This is important because the way in which men's violence toward women is understood to occur will largely determine how societies respond to intervene and prevent violence. If violence is understood as a legitimate response to a disobedient woman, for example, outsiders including police and health professionals will feel no obligation to intervene. If violence is understood as an individual problem, stemming from such factors as alcohol abuse or mental illness, the policy response might be to increase counselling services for men with alcohol or mental health problems. If, on the other hand, the problem is seen to be widespread and situated at the societal level, the policy response should be quite different and may include legislative change, public awareness campaigns, publicly funded shelters and other assistance for victims. Changing both attitudes and behaviour regarding intimate partner violence and sexual assault should form part of a broad strategy towards gender equality.

Reliable estimates of the types and severity of male violence against women, such as those provided by the International Violence Against Women Survey are important for raising awareness and understanding of the dimensions of the problem. An examination of the context within which violence takes place across societies can help further our understanding of why violence occurs and how it can be prevented and reduced. The main theoretical explanations currently in use to explain men's use of physical and sexual violence against female partners and other women are social learning theory, theories of gender and masculinity, and feminist theories (see Box 5.1: *Theoretical explanations for male violence against women*). Social learning theory maintains that violence is learned by modelling the behaviour of others within a social context where the consequences are viewed as positive. Sources for learning include family members in addition to the wider society in which the individual lives. Exposure to violence in childhood provides a direct opportunity to learn to use violence and increases the chance of behaving violently later in life. Theories that focus on gender and masculinity explain violence as the outcome of social training in gender roles that support male dominance and control over women. Violence is thus seen as a legitimate way of expressing masculinity and enhancing male status in certain milieux. Feminist theories emphasize the social structures that create

and sustain unequal power relations between women and men and argue that gender equality in all spheres of life is essential for the reduction of gender-based violence.

Box 5.1 Theoretical explanations for male violence against women

Social learning theory: Social learning is perhaps the most popular explanation for how violent behaviour is acquired. It is a generalized theory developed to explain how children learn to use violence by modeling their behaviour on others (Bandura 1977). According to social learning theory, violence is learned through experiencing physical punishment or through witnessing violence directed at others. Violent behaviours are learned in an environment where the consequences are seen as positive (for example, resolving conflicts or acquiring male status and authority) and where opportunities to learn alternative responses are minimal, absent or not rewarded. These responses continue in adulthood as mechanisms for handling conflict and negative emotions. The source of observation and learning extends beyond the family to include the subculture in which the individual lives, including media images that portray women as having less worth and deserving less respect than men. Social learning theory is commonly used to explain the 'intergenerational cycle of violence' where boys who witness violence against their mothers are more likely to behave violently toward their own partners when they grow up. Male peer groups are also an important source of support and advice on the use of psychological, physical or sexual abuse of women (Schwartz & Dekeseredy 1997).

Gender and masculinity: Gender role socialization occurs when boys and girls absorb messages about what it means to be masculine or feminine in their culture. During early gender identity formation, boys reject the feminine in favour of the more powerful masculine (Chodorow 1974). Efforts to define themselves as masculine can involve devaluing and targeting women for physical and sexual violence. *Hegemonic masculinity* is the dominant, idealized form of masculinity in any society and is defined through work in the paid labour market, the subordination of women, heterosexism, and driven and uncontrollable sexuality (Messerschmidt 1993). Men apply the ideals of hegemonic masculinity to the situations they face in everyday life and pursue a gendered strategy of action. Masculinity is therefore accomplished depending on one's social position (determined by class and race) and the situation. Women accomplish their feminine role by fulfilling their obligations as a wife in the gendered division of power and labour which can lead them into and trap them in violent relationships. Although men as a group control the economic, religious and political institutions in all societies, all men do not have the same access to resources. Economically and racially marginalized men will construct masculinity differently than middle-class men due to the differences in their position in the social structure and the resources available to them. Marginalized men who are unable to acquire masculine status through legitimate methods rely more frequently on violence for constructing a publicly aggressive form of masculinity. A great deal of violence can be understood as

male status competitions, as honour-related, or reflective of a crisis in gender-role identify (Daly & Wilson 1988). Men seek to demonstrate status through a variety of methods, such as demonstrations of wealth or knowledge, verbal defence of their honour, sexual prowess, control over women, sport, risk taking, verbal and physical threats, and violence.

Feminist theories: Feminist theories explain gender-based violence within the context of socio-economic and legal structures and practices that historically have fostered male privilege and women's dependence on male partners. Feminist theories maintain that gender-based violence occurs on a scale that is possible only in a social context that defines women as subordinate to men. Despite much diversity amongst feminist theorists, one central tenet is that the vast majority of societies around the world are structured in patriarchy. There are two necessary elements of patriarchy: *social structures* that define and reinforce a superior position for men, and an *ideology* that serves to legitimate this arrangement (Dobash & Dobash 1979: 43). Social structures that create and sustain unequal power relations between men and women include laws and legal institutions, religious institutions, educational and health systems, and the family. Ideology is the process by which this hierarchical system is accepted as natural and good by the majority of the population. Men occupy powerful positions in these institutions and thus have had the authority to define what acts of gender-based violence would be considered serious and what actions would be undertaken in response to them (Kelly 1988: 138). Where women have limited access to positions of power, they are unable to alter the structures or norms that are biased against them (Kelly 1988: 27). Feminist activists have been at the forefront of women's struggles for legal and social change to improve their status and eliminate gender-based violence. The promotion of gender-equality norms is identified as the most important factor in reducing gender-based violence (UNPFA 2005).

Most researchers will agree that there is no single explanation for male violence against women. Most men who are exposed to violence while growing up are not violent toward their female partners as adults (Johnson 1996). Likewise, while men in the vast majority of cultures are exposed to hegemonic masculinity that equates masculinity with dominance over women, the majority of men acquire and demonstrate masculine status through non-violent means which can include employment, education or sport, or other action depending on the environment. And, while most societies are structured around patriarchal socio-cultural and legal structures that foster male privilege, not all men within those societies perpetrate gender-based violence. In fact, some men in these societies are actively involved in efforts to eliminate violence against women (for example, the White Ribbon Campaign at www.whiteribbon.ca and www.eurowrc.org; www.jacksonkatz.com; www.mencanstoprape.org). Many men in positions of power, including legislators, policy makers, researchers and social activists, have worked collectively or individually for legal and social change to raise awareness and end violence against women.

Heise (1998; Heise et al. 1999) proposes an ecological framework for understanding gender-based violence that encourages a more integrated way of thinking about it than through a single theoretical perspective. This framework takes into account the interconnections among personal, situational and socio-cultural factors and is conceptualized as four concentric circles:

1. The innermost circle represents the perpetrator and his personal history. This includes exposure to violence in the family, having an absent or rejecting father, being abused as a child, and alcohol abuse.
2. The next circle represents the family context in which the violence takes place. This includes gender relations, marital conflict, and male control of wealth and decision making.
3. The third represents the social institutions and structures in which the family is imbedded. This includes isolation of the woman and the family, as well as peer associations that legitimize and condone violence against women.
4. The largest circle represents the social environment including norms that govern gender relations and male control over women and acceptance of violence as a way to settle interpersonal disputes. Negative messages about women contribute to a climate tolerant of gender-based violence and tolerant of the social, economic and cultural oppression of women.

The IVAWS contained a number of possible ways of assessing variation in the risk of physical and sexual violence against women. All respondents, regardless of whether they reported violence, were asked to provide details about their own personal sociodemographic characteristics, characteristics of current male partners, and features of the household. Patterns of one-year and adult lifetime victimisation are examined in this chapter according to respondent characteristics such as:

- age group
- marital status
- source of income
- decision-making authority over how her money and partner's money is spent
- witnessing violence by fathers in childhood
- childhood experiences of physical and sexual violence

characteristics of current male partners:

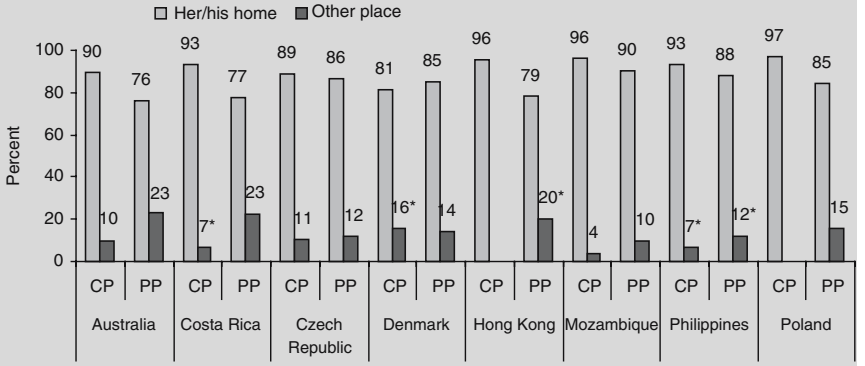
- age group
- source of income
- heavy alcohol use
- use of violence outside the home
- use of emotional abuse toward female partners
- attempts to control female partners
- witnessing violence by fathers in childhood
- victim of physical abuse by fathers in childhood

as well as features of the household:

- household income

Box 5.2 Where violence occurs Respondents to the IVAWS were asked to provide details about the violence they experienced by intimate partners and other men for the most recent incident of both partner and non-partner violence. Details were asked of the most recent incident only in order to reduce the interviewing time for women who had been victimised many times. Details included questions related to where the incident occurred, and the impacts and consequences of the violence. Violence by current partners was most likely to take place at the couple's home; however, for 16% of Danish women, current partners were violent in other locations. Previous partners were also most likely to have been violent at the home of the woman or the man but, with the exception of the Czech Republic and Denmark, were more likely than current partners to have been violent in other locations. This counts violence committed while the relationship was intact but can also include incidents that occurred after the couple had separated.

Place of occurrence of partner violence

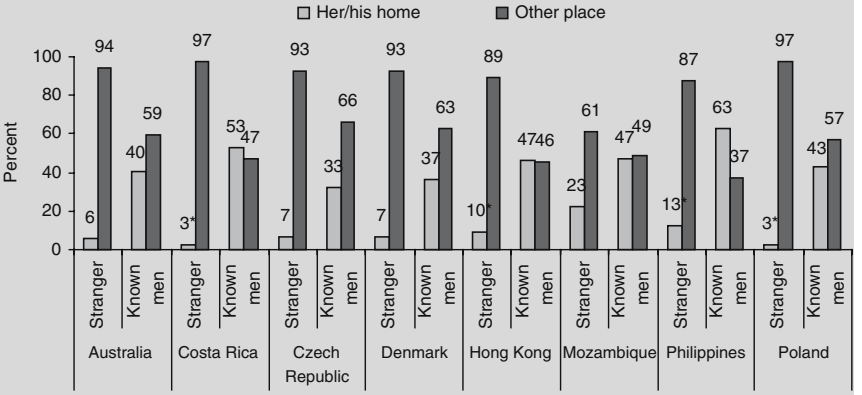


CP = current partner; PP = previous partner

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50. Sample counts for 'other place' for CP for Hong Kong and Poland are less than 5.

Violence by strangers occurs most often in other places, but in Mozambique strangers assaulted or sexually assaulted in the home of the victim or the perpetrator in 23% of cases. The percentage of known men (friends, acquaintances and relatives) who assaulted women in their own homes ranged from 33% in the Czech Republic to 63% in the Philippines. The home is thus a place where women experienced not only intimate partner violence but violence by other known men as well, and in some cases even strangers.

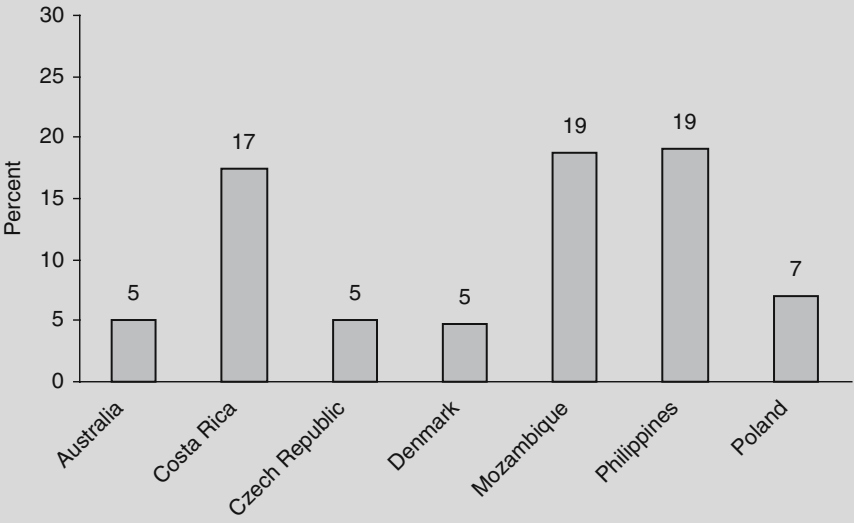
Place of occurrence of non-partner violence



* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Box 5.3 Violence during pregnancy Women who are assaulted by intimate partners are vulnerable to being abused during pregnancy. Violence can directly affect pregnancy outcomes by causing low birth weight babies, premature labour, miscarriage, infection related to forced sex, inadequate prenatal care, and exacerbation of other health problems of the mother such as hypertension. Violence can also have an indirect effect on pregnancy through the association of abuse with other risk factors, such as smoking and substance abuse (Campbell & Lewandowski 1997; Heise et al. 1999). Women in the IVAWS who had been physically or sexually assaulted by an intimate partner were asked if the most recent incident of violence occurred at a time when they were pregnant. The percentage who were pregnant at the time ranged from almost one-in-five in Costa Rica, Mozambique and the Philippines to one-in-twenty in Australia, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Poland. These figures undercount the prevalence of violence curing pregnancy since just the most recent incident was counted in what may have been a long series of assaults. The figures are also based on all victims of intimate partner violence and not just the "at risk" population who had ever been pregnant. The WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women, which included women of reproductive age only, documented the proportion of abused women who had ever been pregnant

Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who were pregnant at the time of the violence



Sample count in Hong Kong was less than 5.

and the percentage of these women who experienced physical violence during at least one pregnancy. The percentage of ever-pregnant women who had been victimised during pregnancy ranged from 8% in Japan to 44% in rural Peru (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005). Between one-quarter and one-half of women abused during pregnancy were punched or kicked in the abdomen. In the WHO study, high levels of both intimate partner violence did not necessarily correspond with high levels of violence during pregnancy, which suggests to the authors that in some countries where violence against women is common, violence during pregnancy is less accepted and may actually be a protective factor. Similar results were found in countries included in the IVAWS. Women in Mozambique and Costa Rica reported among the highest levels of both intimate partner violence and violence during pregnancy, while women in the Philippines reported relatively low levels of partner violence but a high proportion of these women were pregnant at the time. The reverse is true for women in the Czech Republic who had relatively high levels of partner violence but a low percentage were pregnant at the time.

Age of Female Victims and Male Partners

It is a common finding in victimisation research that the youngest adults experience the highest rates of violent victimisation and intimate partner violence is no exception (Bachman & Saltzman 1995; Perkins 1997). For the purposes of this analysis, rates of violence were calculated for female respondents and their current intimate partners according to four age groups. As shown in Fig. 5.1, Australia, Hong Kong and Mozambique reflect the pattern commonly found in other research studies: an inverse relationship between violence and age. Women in the youngest age group reported the highest rates of partner violence over the previous one-year period and rates are lower for older women. A possible explanation for this finding is that relative immaturity of young adults and lack of problem solving skills may lead to violence in interpersonal relationships, and a lack of experience in identifying and avoiding violent situations (Courmarelos & Allen 1998). Costa Rica and the Philippines show a different pattern: rates are relatively steady for women in age groups under 50 and the rate drops for women age 50 and older. In Poland women aged 40–49 report the highest rates of intimate partner violence in the year prior to the survey. The patterns are the same and rates almost identical when calculated on the basis of male partners' age.

It is expected that lifetime rates of intimate partner violence will rise according to the time women have "at risk" of violent victimisation. That is, older women are expected to have experienced higher rates of violence over their adult lifetime than younger women. This is based on an assumption that most women become involved in romantic relationships at approximately the same age and that the older a women

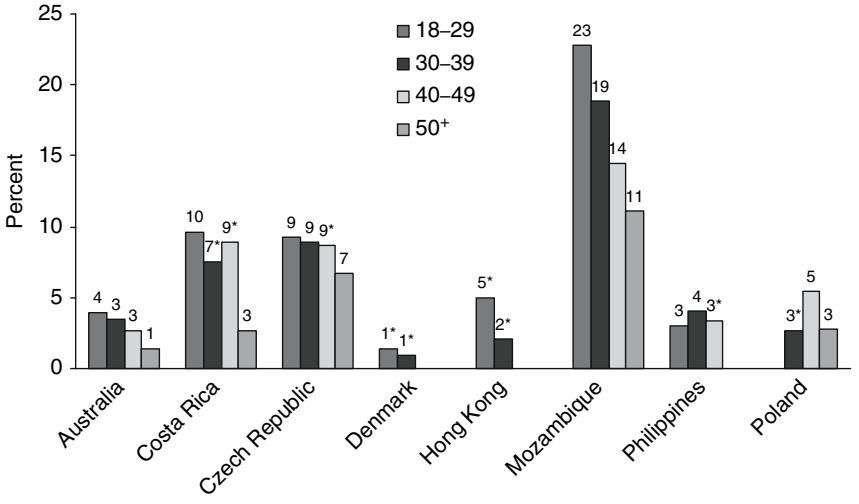


Fig. 5.1 One-year rates of current partner violence by age of victims
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts in Switzerland are less than 5 in all age categories.
Sample counts in some age categories in Denmark, Hong Kong and Poland were less than 5.

is, the longer she is at risk of violence by intimate partners. Only Poland and the Czech Republic show this expected pattern (Fig. 5.2). In all other countries either there is no difference in rates by age group, or the oldest group of women report rates that are among the lowest. In Australia, Costa Rica and the Philippines, the percentage of women ever assaulted by their current partner increases with age then drops for the oldest group of women. In Mozambique, the youngest women report the highest adult lifetime rates. Again, patterns are very similar when calculated on the basis of partners' age. The tendency of older women to report lower rates of lifetime experiences of intimate partner violence may be due to a generational effect whereby younger women are more willing to disclose experiences of violence to an interviewer as a result of changing social attitudes and a reduction in the stigma associated with victimisation, and the oldest group of women are reluctant to do so. Or it may simply be due to a tendency to forget or minimise events that happened in the past, which is likely to affect older women to a greater extent. Alternatively, lower rates of intimate partner violence for older women may reflect a cohort effect whereby younger women report higher rates because violence is more prevalent for them than it was for their older relatives. These are the limits of a snapshot survey that focuses only at a single point in time but seeks to understand a history of violence across the lifespan.

Looking at non-partner violence, a consistent and expected pattern is shown: rates of violence in the previous one-year period are highest for the youngest group of women and decline with age (Table 5.1). Higher rates of violent victimisation by men other than intimate partners against younger women has been attributed to lifestyle patterns which place younger women in more frequent contact with young males

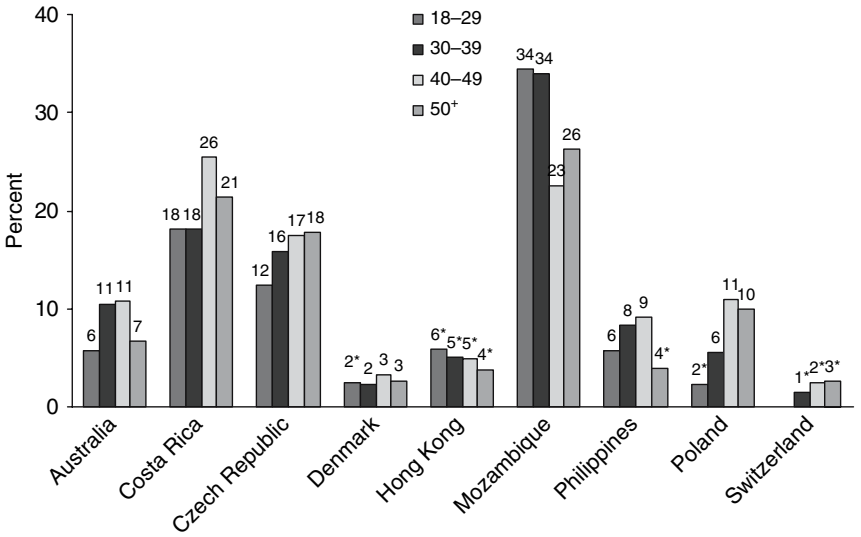


Fig. 5.2 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by age of victims

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts in Switzerland for age 18–29 is less than 5.

Table 5.1 One-year rates of non-partner violence by age of victims

	18–29	30–39	40–49	50+
Australia	14	5	5	2
Costa Rica	15	7	8*	–
Czech Republic	15	4	3*	3
Denmark	10	4	3	2
Hong Kong	6	4*	2*	–
Mozambique	11	4	3*	3*
Philippines	5	2*	2*	1*
Poland	8	2*	4*	1*
Switzerland	4	–	2*	1*

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
– Sample count is less than 5.

in public places thereby elevating their risk of sexual and physical assault. Research consistently shows that young males are the most violence-prone of any age-sex group (Hirschi & Gottfredson 1983) and so higher rates of violent victimisation among young women may be more a reflection of the age of their intimate partners and other men they encounter in their social sphere that it is an indication of their own personal attributes. One-year rates of sexual and physical violence by non-partners cannot be examined separately because of low sample counts in most countries.

Table 5.2 shows rates of non-partner violence since the age of 16. Although there are some exceptions, rates tend to be highest for the youngest age groups and decline with age for both physical and sexual violence. This is counter to expectations as it is assumed that rates of victimisation will increase as time at risk increases. A snapshot survey like the IVAWS cannot establish with certainty the extent to which these figures reflect a reluctance on the part of older women to disclose violence to survey interviewers, a reflection of forgetting events that happened in the past, or a reflection of higher rates for younger women currently as compared to the experience of older women in the past.

Marital Status

As shown in Chapter 3, rates of intimate partner violence are higher in previous relationships than in relationships that were current at the time of the interview. This section examines in some detail the association between relationship status and violence committed by intimate partners and other men. This study considers women to have been victims of intimate partner violence if they were physically or sexually assaulted by (1) men to whom they were legally married, (2) men with whom they were living in a co-habiting relationship, and (3) men with whom they were involved in a romantic relationship without living together. Rates are calcu-

Table 5.2 Adult lifetime rates of non-partner violence by age of victims

	Lifetime physical violence				Lifetime sexual violence				Total lifetime violence			
	18–29	30–39	40–49	50+	18–29	30–39	40–49	50+	18–29	30–39	40–49	50+
Australia	29	27	18	10	27	24	14	8	44	39	27	16
Costa Rica	27	24	23	15	35	35	28	19	48	45	40	27
Czech Republic	28	18	16	20	31	26	24	20	44	33	33	30
Denmark	30	24	24	17	26	22	25	21	47	39	39	31
Hong Kong	8	8	7	4*	8	11	10	7	13	15	16	9
Mozambique	16	10	8	10	15	9	7	6	26	16	12	13
Philippines	10	6	6	4	6	4	2*	3*	13	9	7	6
Poland	26	20	20	14	14	11	14	11	32	24	27	20
Switzerland	20	17	20	13	18	21	24	22	29	32	34	28

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

lated for the previous one-year period only in order to present a truer reflection of the risk associated with relationship status since relationship status may change over time and the woman's situation at the time of the interview may not accurately reflect her situation at the time of the assault if it happened some time in the past. Dating relationships can become co-habiting unions or marriages, and co-habitation can evolve into a legal marriage.

Several studies have shown rates of intimate partner violence to be higher in co-habiting relationships than in legal marriages (Brownridge & Halli 2001; Moffitt & Caspi 1999). There is some debate as to whether the difference in observed rates of violence for co-habitors and married couples is due to differences in "selection" – the characteristics of people who are attracted to co-habitation rather than marriage, such as being of younger age, earning a lower income, previously being married, and having previous experiences of violence–or differences in "relationship" factors related to the experience of co-habitation, such as social isolation, lack of security or commitment, and ambiguous norms governing co-habiting relationships (Brownridge & Halli 2001). One possibility is that these factors combine in co-habiting unions to lead male partners to exert control over females through the use of proprietary behaviour to restrict and limit the movement of their partners, to isolate them from others, and to use violence to assert dominance (Wilson et al. 1995). However, co-habitation as an alternative to marriage is becoming increasingly common and socially acceptable, especially in Northern Europe and North America; it therefore may eventually lose its association with partner violence.

Among IVAWS countries, women who were co-habiting with male partners at the time of the interview had higher rates of intimate partner violence by those partners compared with married women, in three countries only. In Australia, Costa Rica and the Philippines women who were co-habiting had higher rates of intimate partner violence than did married women, but the difference is greatest in Costa Rica where 17% of co-habiting women had been assaulted by their partners during the one-year period (Fig. 5.3). Women in legal marriages had the highest rates of intimate partner violence in Mozambique where 21% of married women had been assaulted in the previous 12 months. Women with dating partners had the lowest, or among the lowest rates of violence. These different patterns shown with respect to the risk associated with co-habitation may reflect cultural differences whereby co-habitation is less acceptable in some cultures or occurs under different circumstances that may be more or less risky for violence to occur unabated.

Violence perpetrated by men other than intimate partners is also examined within the most recent one-year period. As shown in Fig. 5.4, women who were dating at the time of the interview reported the highest rates of violence in the previous 12 months (this includes men other than partners only and does not include violence committed by dating partners). Rates of non-partner violence for co-habiting and dating women were more similar in the Czech Republic and Denmark than in other countries. It has been argued that vulnerability to violent victimisation by non-partners is associated with lifestyle factors that are connected to age, marital status and employment status. These lifestyle factors include time spent in public places and the types of activities undertaken, the proximity to potential offenders, and the ability to protect oneself against an attack (Cohen & Felson 1979). Young,

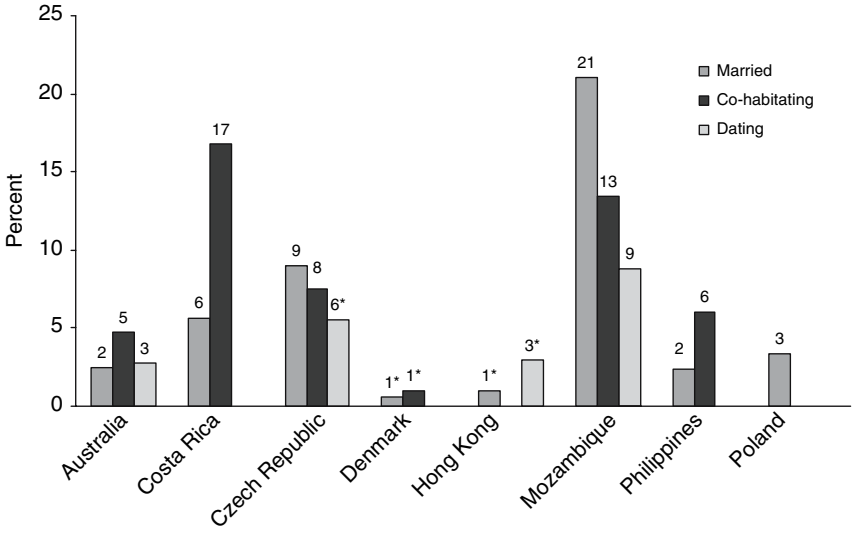


Fig. 5.3 One-year rates of current partner violence by marital status of victims
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts in Switzerland in all marital status categories, and in some categories in other countries are less than 5.

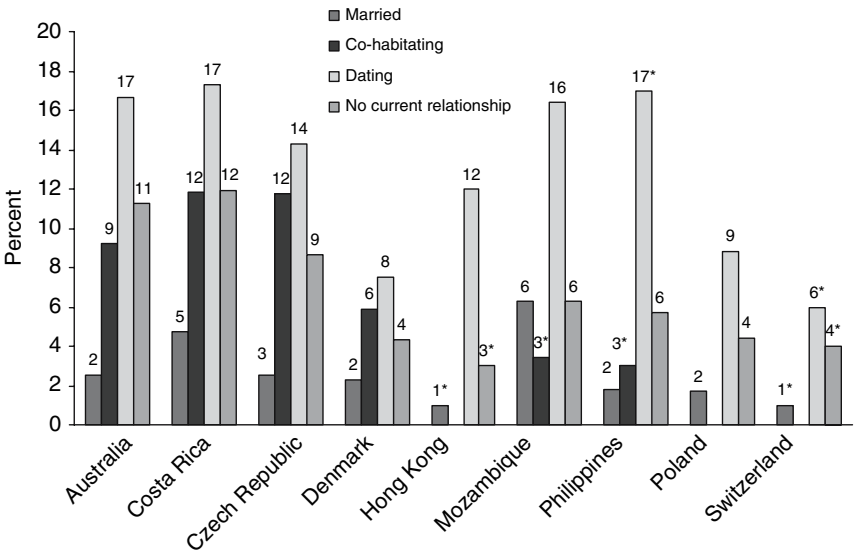


Fig. 5.4 One-year rates of non-partner violence by marital status of victims
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts for cohabiting in Hong Kong, Poland and Switzerland are less than 5.

unmarried people enjoy more unstructured leisure time than older married people with family responsibilities and are more likely to spend time in public places with other young people who are potential perpetrators of violence. Gender power imbalances in dating and other social situations which allow men to dominate decision making enhance the vulnerability of young women to violent victimisation by men known to them (Sacco & Kennedy 1994).

Legal marriage offers a certain protection against violence by men other than partners in all countries with the exception of Mozambique. In that country, married women had rates of non-partner violence similar to single women with no current relationship.

Socio-economic Status

Research findings on the effects of socio-economic status on risk of violence are mixed. Where a relationship between low socio-economic status and violence has been found there is often uncertainty about the direction of the relationship (Heise 1998). Lack of financial resources can lead to stress, frustration and conflict in relationships which can trigger aggression and violence toward intimate partners who are convenient targets. Alternatively, the direction of the relationship between income and violence may be the reverse: violence may affect the ability of female victims and male abusers to maintain employment because of injury, emotional distress or involvement with the criminal justice system which then results in a reduction in income. Violent victimisation may also lead to poverty when women separate from a violent partner.

Where a link between income and employment is found, a number of explanations for the relationship have been offered. Women's employment may protect them against violence because it reduces their isolation by connecting them to other people outside the home, others who may notice the signs of abuse and be willing to intervene and provide emotional and practical support. Female employment and income also raise the stakes for men in their decision to use violence against their wives as the woman's departure from the relationship entails a financial cost to the abuser. Not only do employment and earnings give women access to resources for leaving the relationship, but they raise the woman's power and status within the relationship, which may help deter violence against her. Kalmuss & Straus (1982) argue that traditional relationships where women are economically dependent on their male partners have higher rates of violence because women are less able to escape, have fewer options, and have lower status and power within the marriage with which to negotiate changes to their partner's behaviour. Levinson (1989) found that at the societal level, male control over economic resources in the family predicted male dominance in the family and societal restrictions on divorce, which were strong predictors of violence against female partners. A protective factor was membership in exclusively female economic groups, a factor which breaks down isolation of women and provides them with economic and social resources which might help deter male partners' use of violence.

In addition to being simply an economic resource, male employment can be considered a symbolic resource through which men acquire status and construct masculinity (Macmillan & Gartner 1999). Low income and male unemployment therefore may lead to male status inconsistency and the use of violence to re-establish power and a masculine identity (Jewkes 2002). Others argue that income and status disparity, where women have higher education that their partners, or where women make a greater financial contribution to the household, may be the important factors in raising the risk of wife abuse rather than lack of economic resources (Jewkes 2002; Kaukinen 2004). As a result of status disparity between male and female partners, unemployed males may use violence against their employed partners to re-establish authority in the relationship. Macmillan & Gartner (1999) suggest that because masculinity is constructed in relation to femininity, the meaning of employment for women can only be understood in relation to the employment status of their partners, and vice versa. They found in an analysis of the Canadian Violence Against Women Survey that the effect of women's employment on their risk of spousal violence is conditioned by the employment status of her partner. Women's employment had no direct effect on their risk of violence, but employed women had a higher risk of victimisation when their partners were unemployed and a lower risk when partners were employed.

Socio-economic status is difficult to compare cross-nationally because of the differences in income levels and cost of living in countries as disparate as Mozambique and Denmark. In order to facilitate comparisons, survey co-ordinators in each country were asked to calculate income quartiles, according to census or other source of economic statistics, and survey respondents were then asked into which category their household income falls. Income quartiles are four groups of equal size. In other words, one-quarter of households will fall into each group. This is a relative measure of income where rates of victimisation can be calculated and compared on the basis of where respondents' households stand in relation to others in their own country. However, this technique is not without limitations. In a country like Mozambique, the range between the first and fourth quartiles is very close due to the low GNP in that country compared to others. The lowest quartile was below approximately US$6 while the highest was above US$28. In addition, a substantial number of households in Mozambique live outside the cash economy, surviving on barter rather than cash income which makes it difficult to set an accurate value on actual household income.

Based on this method of calculating household income, the IVAWS found no clear pattern of risk of victimisation by income quartiles (Fig. 5.5). Only in the Czech Republic, Mozambique and Poland do women in the lowest income quartiles experience the highest rates of partner violence, but rates are equally high for women in Mozambique in the 2nd quartile. Women in the second income quartile in the Czech Republic experience the lowest rates, while in the Philippines it is women in the second and third income quartiles who experience the lowest rates. In Australia, Costa Rica, Denmark, Hong Kong and Switzerland, there were no statistically significant differences in lifetime rates of partner violence by income quartiles.

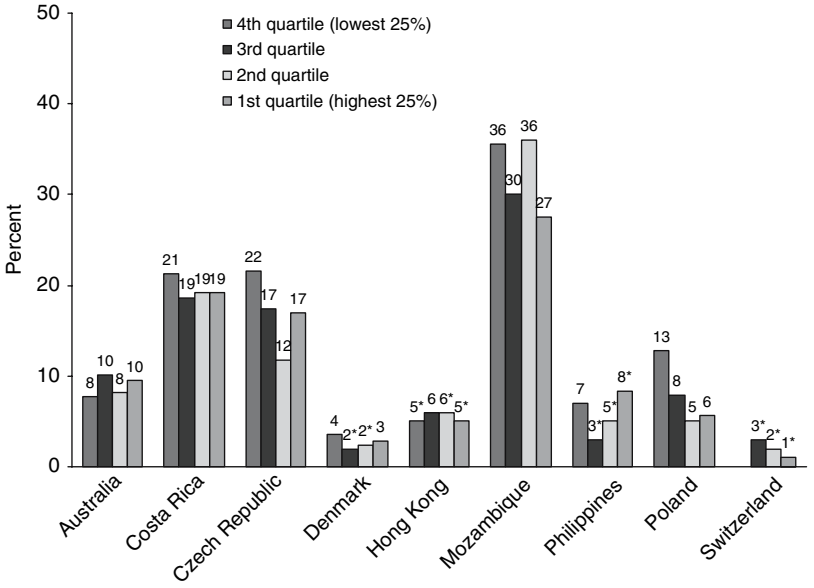


Fig. 5.5 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by household income quartiles
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts for the 4th quartile in Switzerland are less than 5.

It is possible that in some cases the violence occurred some time ago when the family's economic situation was different and that lifetime rates of partner violence do not reflect the current situation. Figure 5.6 illustrates the experience of women based on their current economic situation and shows that, although one-year rates of violence are lower, the patterns are similar to lifetime rates. In the Czech Republic, Mozambique and Poland, women in the lowest income quartile had the highest rates of intimate partner violence while in Costa Rica women in the third income quartile have the highest rates. There are no significant differences in rates of current partner violence by income quartile for women in Australia and Denmark.

Other economic indicators include the source of income for both the woman and her partner, that is, whether she or he had a source of income through employment, earned income through other sources (such as pension or government benefits), or did not have an income. A profile of survey respondents' source of income is located in Table 5.3 which shows that half of women in Costa Rica had no income source of their own compared to 10% or less in Denmark, Australia and the Czech Republic. Substantial proportions of women in Hong Kong, Mozambique, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland have no income of their own. Just one-third of women in Costa Rica earned an income through paid employment compared with 71% of women in Denmark. Other sources of income were least likely to be available to women in the Philippines (8%) and Switzerland (5%).

Partners' source of income also varied according to the country in which these women lived. Partners earned income through paid employment in 92% of current marriages or co-habiting relationships in the Philippines, but just 67% of relation-

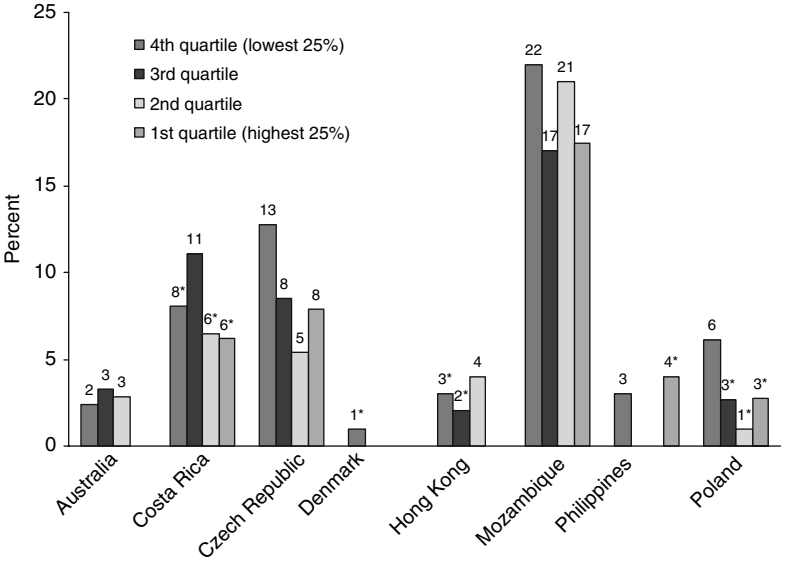


Fig. 5.6 One-year rates of current partner violence by household income quartiles
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50. Sample counts for some income categories in some countries are less than 5.
Sample counts in Switzerland are less than 5 in all income quartiles.

ships in Poland. Male partners in Mozambique were the group most likely to have no earned income (14%) and men in Poland were most likely to have income from other sources, which could be income from investments, pensions or government benefits.

For men in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, the Philippines and Poland, having no income was associated with increased risk of using violence against intimate partners (Fig. 5.7). There was little variation in risk of using violence by source of income for men in Australia while for men in Mozambique, earning an income

Table 5.3 Source of income for women and male partners (percentages)

	Woman's source of income			Male partner's source of income		
	Working	Other sources of income	No income	Working	Other sources of income	No income
Australia	68	24	8	85	13	2
Costa Rica	36	15	49	89	7	4
Czech Republic	60	29	10	82	14	4
Denmark	71	25	3	82	16	2
Hong Kong	55	12	33	90	5	5
Mozambique	48	13	39	77	9	14
Philippines	54	8	38	92	3	5
Poland	46	32	22	67	25	7
Switzerland	62	5	32	84	12	4

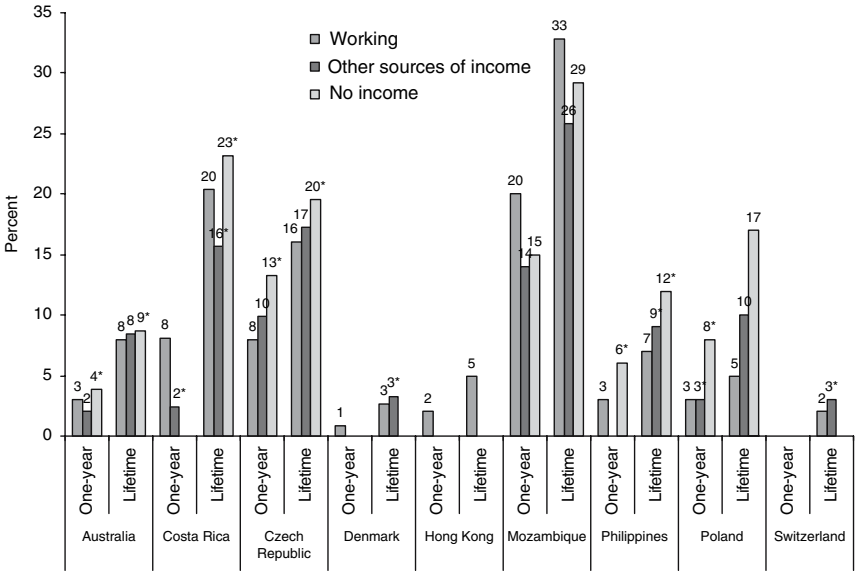


Fig. 5.7 One-year and lifetime rates of current partner violence by partner's source of income
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts for some source of income categories in Costa Rica, Denmark, Hong Kong, the Philippines and Switzerland are less than 5.

through paid employment was associated with a greater chance of using violence against partners.

Results are more mixed with respect to the relationship between intimate partner violence and women's earnings. In some countries, such as Australia, the Czech Republic and the Philippines, there were no statistically significant differences in rates of intimate partner violence according to sources of income for women (Fig. 5.8). In Mozambique, patterns of risk were very similar to those shown for male partners' source of income, where those with other sources of income had the lowest rates of violence. For women in Costa Rica, the Philippines and Poland, lifetime rates of violence were highest for those with other sources of income. In Denmark, women with no income reported a lifetime rate of violence by current intimate partners that was at least twice the rate for employed women or those with other sources of income.

Having an income is not a good indicator of independence or status in the relationship if one does not have any say in how that money (or partners' income) will be used. Being able to make decisions about one's own money is an indicator of power and status in the relationship and may make the difference between being isolated and trapped in a violent relationship or being able to connect with others outside the household or leave an abusive partner. The majority of women with an income earned from employment or other sources said they had a say in how their own money would be used, although this ranged from three-quarters of women in Mozambique and the Philippines to 99% of women in Australia (Table 5.4). The

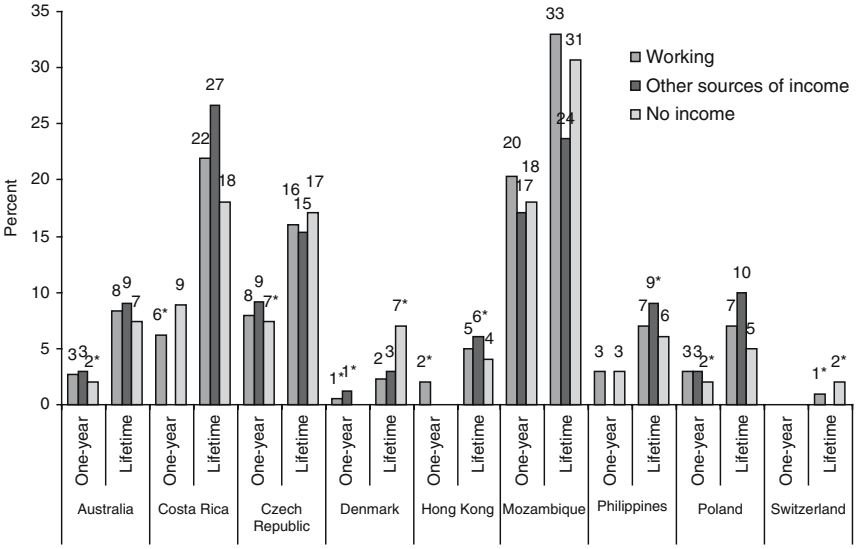


Fig. 5.8 One-year and lifetime rates of current partner violence by women's source of income
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts for some source of income categories in Costa Rica, Denmark, Hong Kong, the Philippines and Switzerland are less than 5.

percentage of women who said they have some decision-making authority over partners' income was lower by comparison in all countries with the exception of Hong Kong where women were equally likely to say they had a say over how their income and their partners' money would be used. The proportion of women who had a say over money earned or acquired by their partners ranged from just 51% in Mozambique to 87% in Poland.

One possible outcome of inequalities in decision-making authority over how the family income will be used is that males in these relationships dominate and therefore are at greater risk of using violence against their partners compared with men in more egalitarian relationships. However, the data show that having a say over the family income is not a clear predictor of intimate partner violence in all countries.

Table 5.4 Has a say in how money would be used

	Own money	Partners' money
Australia	99	84
Costa Rica	97	81
Czech Republic	85	77
Denmark	98	77
Hong Kong	87	86
Mozambique	76	51
Philippines	77	61
Poland	97	87
Switzerland	92	80

Includes respondents and partners with earned or other sources of income.

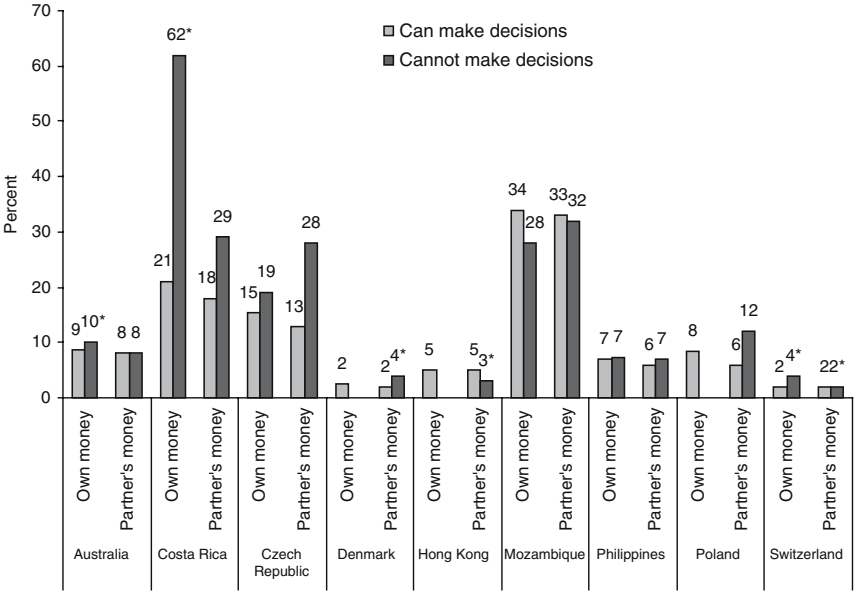


Fig. 5.9 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by woman's decision-making authority over family income

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts in Denmark, Hong Kong, and Poland are less than 5 in some categories.

Figure 5.9 illustrates that not being able to make decisions about their own money more than doubled victimisation rates for women in Costa Rica compared with those who have some decision-making authority over their money. Being able to influence decisions about their own income reduced the risk of violence but to a lesser extent in the Czech Republic. Having a say over partners' income was an important correlate of partner violence in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and Poland. The reverse effect is shown in Mozambique where those without decision-making authority over their own or partners' income had slightly higher rates of violence. As shown later in this chapter, other forms of controlling behaviour on the part of male partners correlate highly with their use of violence toward female partners.

An important aspect of socio-economic status or disadvantage that cannot be addressed in this study is the neighbourhood or community context, which may provide needed resources to female victims of violence and help mitigate against the effects of low household income, or alternatively may aggravate the woman's economic disadvantage or social isolation. An American study found that neighbourhood disadvantage was an important contextual variable for partner violence that exacerbates the effects of low income for women. In the United States, intimate partner violence is more prevalent in economically distressed households (those with male job instability, not making enough money to meet family needs, or worrying about money) and more prevalent and more severe in disadvantaged neighbourhoods. When economically distressed households are situated in a dis-

advantaged neighbourhood, the prevalence of intimate partner violence rises dramatically (Benson & Fox 2004). The authors suggest a number of mechanisms that might account for the higher risk of intimate partner violence in disadvantaged neighbourhoods, including a greater tolerance for violence among residents, lower levels of collective efficacy and social capital to respond effectively to criminal behaviour, and fewer role models for pro-social and anti-violent behaviour. Women in disadvantaged areas also have fewer resources in the local area to draw upon and may be more likely to isolate themselves from others as a coping mechanism.

Alcohol Abuse

Alcohol abuse has been found to be an important correlate of male violence against women, and men who are drinking at the time of the assaults have been found to inflict more severe violence on their partners, including sexual assaults (Browne 1997; Johnson 2001; White & Chen 2002). However, research has clarified that it is not the frequency of drinking that raises the risk of using violence but the frequency of problem or heavy drinking. Heavy drinking was measured on the IVAWS by asking respondents how often current partners drink so much that they get drunk and those who do so at least once a week were considered to be heavy drinkers. Levels of drinking to get drunk vary among the men in these countries (Fig. 5.10). Male partners who never drink to get drunk are most often found in Costa Rica, Hong Kong and Switzerland and least often found in Denmark. Male partners who are considered heavy drinkers because they get drunk at least once per week are most commonly found in the Philippines, Mozambique and the Czech Republic.

The relationship between alcohol abuse and violence is complex not directly causal. It is considered to be mediated by cultural or societal-level expectations that

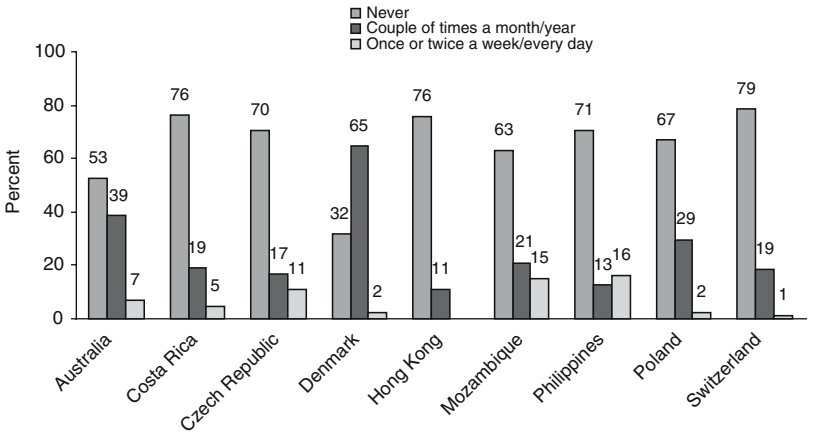


Fig. 5.10 Prevalence of current partners' heavy drinking
Sample count for once or twice a week/everyday in Hong Kong was less than 5.

certain behaviours will be tolerated when individuals are under the effects of alcohol (Johnson 2001). Individuals whose perceptions are impaired by alcohol also may have reduced inhibitions to using violence and may misinterpret social cues or be more likely to take offence to slights against them. Heavy drinking, especially within the context of male social groups, is often associated with negative attitudes toward women and male peer support for abusing female partners (Schwartz & Dekeseredy 1997). In countries participating in the IVAWS, heavy drinking by male partners had the effect of raising rates of violence against intimate partners substantially, especially in Costa Rica and Poland where frequent heavy drinkers had rates of violence several times higher than those who never drink heavily (Fig. 5.11). One exception is the Czech Republic where occasional heavy drinkers—those who drink to get drunk a couple of times per moth or per year—had the highest rates of violence.[9] Patterns of lifetime intimate partner violence were similar to patterns for one-year rates in most countries. In Poland, 73% of heavy drinking males and 63% in Costa Rica had ever been violent toward their female partners. In Poland, half of regular heavy drinkers had been violent in the previous year alone.

Figure 5.12 illustrates the extent to which violent partners were under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time of the violent incident. In Mozambique, for example, a full 86% of victims of partner violence said that, during the most recent incident, their partner add been drinking alcohol, even though 63% of partners were described in Fig. 5.10 as never drinking to get drunk. The smallest percentage of victims to say their partners were under the influence of alcohol was in Hong Kong

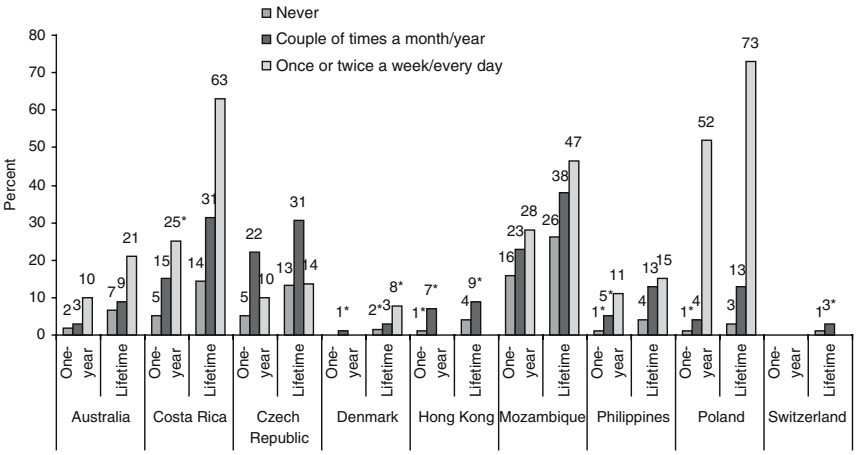


Fig. 5.11 One-year and lifetime rates of current partner violence by partners' heavy drinking
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts in Denmark, Hong Kong, and Switzerland are less than 5 in some categories

[9] This differs from the analysis published in Pikálková, S. (2004) in which rates of partner violence were compared for men who never drink and those who drink at least sometimes (which includes those who drink so much they get drunk). This method of analysis shows higher rates of violence for men who drink.

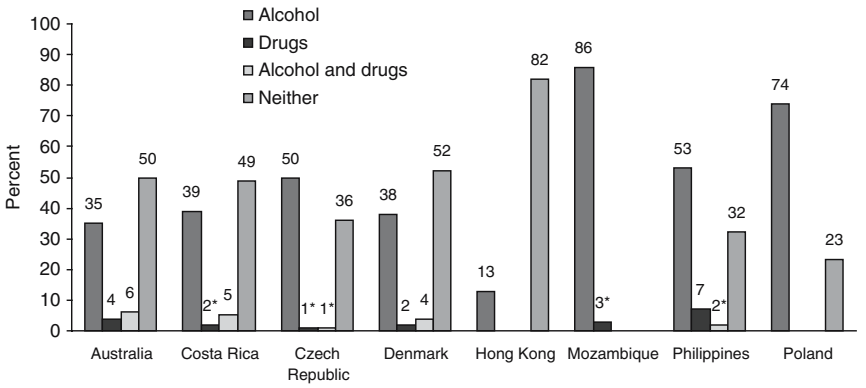


Fig. 5.12 Percentage of violent partners who were under the influence of alcohol or drugs at the time of the violent incident
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts in Hong Kong, Mozambique, Poland and Switzerland are less than 5 in some categories.

(13%). By contrast, alcohol was a factor in three-quarters of incidents in Poland and one-half of incidents in the Czech Republic and the Philippines. In all countries, drug use or combined alcohol and drug use was much less frequent by comparison.

Male Violence Outside the Family

The cultural "spill over" hypothesis suggests that societies that endorse the use of physical force to solve interpersonal problems and to achieve goals such as public order and fighting crime will have higher rates of violence in the family (Bowker 1983; Heise 1998; Levison 1989). Widespread use of violence outside the home predicts greater tolerance for and use of violence against intimate partners. Although data are not available from the IVAWS to describe levels of societal violence in the participating countries, the survey includes a proxy measure for societal violence that assesses male partners' use of violence toward others outside the home. This will also help establish the extent to which violence toward intimate partners is a pattern of general aggression, or whether the gendered nature of power relations within intimate relationships entails a special risk for female intimate partners.

In the Dunedin study, a longitudinal study in New Zealand, one of the strongest predictors of partner violence was a record of physically aggressive offending before the age of 15. At age 21, there were strong links between intimate partner violence and a history of violence against others. In the IVAWS, respondents with current marital, co-habiting or dating partners were asked if their partners were violent outside the home. The percentage of women who said their partners were violent outside the home ranged from 3% in Hong Kong to a high of 21% in Costa Rica (Fig. 5.13). When compared to the percentage of women who said their partners had ever been violent toward them, there is a relationship between violence outside

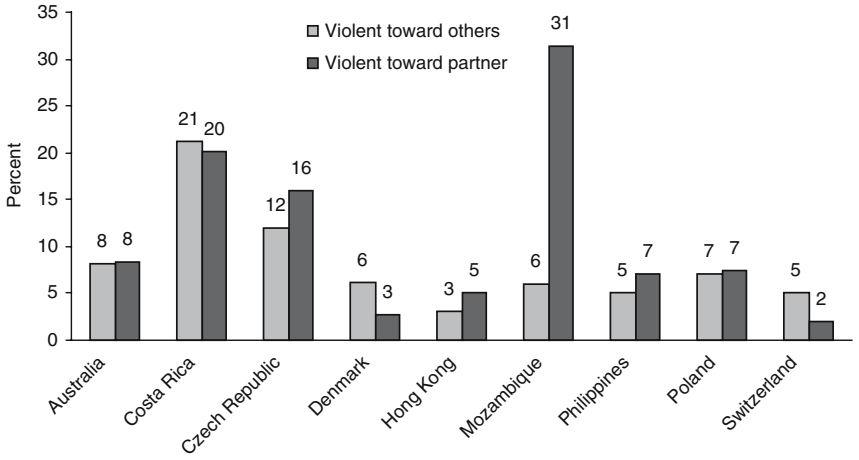


Fig. 5.13 Percentage of male partners who are violent toward current partners and who are violent toward others

and inside the home for some countries but not others. Almost one-third of women in Mozambique reported that their current partners were violent toward them, but the percentage who were violent toward others outside the family was just 6%, comparable to many other countries. In Australia, Costa Rica, the Philippines and Poland, women were almost equally likely to describe their partners as violent inside and outside the home. These findings lend support to the "spill over" hypothesis in some countries but not others. In all countries but Mozambique, men who are violent outside the home are also violent toward their female partners in large numbers. For men in the more traditional society of Mozambique, female partners are at far greater risk of violence than are others in men's social groups. Although rates are lower in Denmark and Switzerland, men in these countries were twice as likely to be violent toward others outside the home as they were to be violent toward their female partners.

In all countries, violent behaviour toward others outside the home was a risk factor for intimate partner violence. As shown in Fig. 5.14, men who were violent outside the home were more likely to assault their female partners than did men who were not violent outside the home. In the Czech Republic, Hong Kong and Poland, there was at least a fivefold difference in rates of intimate partner violence for these two groups of men. In the Czech Republic for example, just 11% of men who were not violent toward others outside the home had assaulted their partners, but almost 60% who were violent toward others were also violent toward their partners. In Switzerland, rates of partner violence were over ten times higher for men who were violent toward others outside the home. In Costa Rica, Australia and Denmark the difference was about fourfold, and in Mozambique it was double.

Previously in this chapter, heavy drinking on the part of male partners was found to be a risk factor for intimate partner violence in almost all countries. Heavy drinking is defined as those who drink so much they get drunk at least once a week. In almost all countries, heavy drinkers were also more likely to be violent toward others

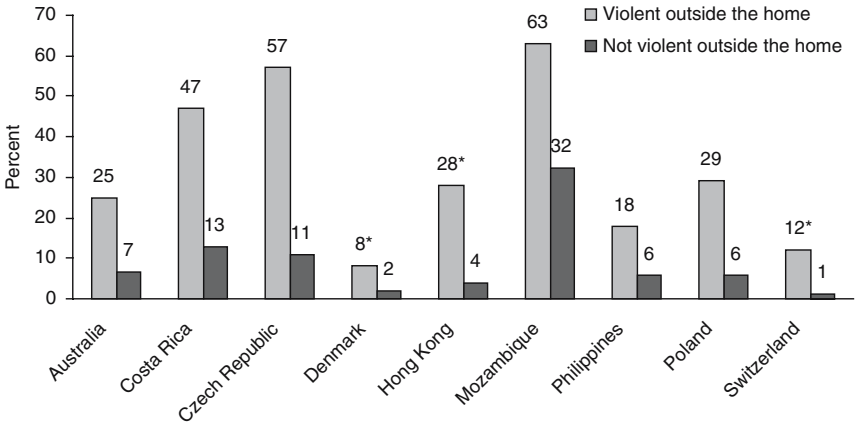


Fig. 5.14 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by partner violent outside the home
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

outside the family. As shown in Fig. 5.15, with the exception of the Czech Republic, male partners who were heavy drinkers were between two and nine time more likely to be violent outside the home compared with partners who were not heavy drinkers. Two-thirds of heavy drinkers in Costa Rica, almost one-half in Switzerland, more than one-third in Poland and more than one-quarter in Australia were violent toward other people outside the home. When compared to Fig. 5.11, this suggests that in certain countries, such as Mozambique and Poland, female partners are at greater risk of violence from heavy drinkers than are other people outside the home.

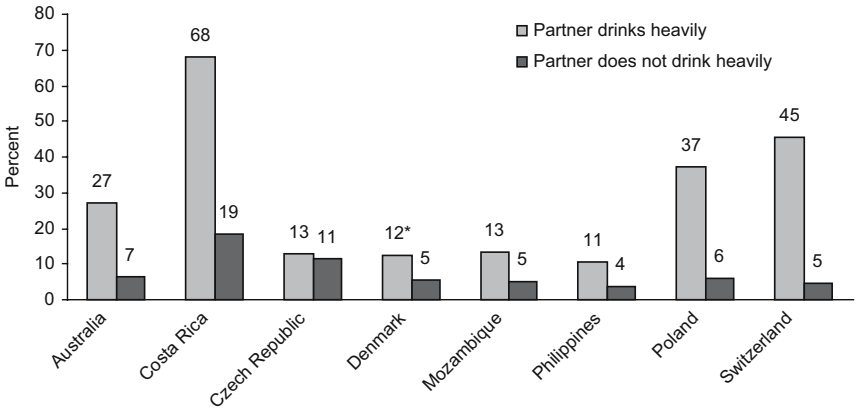


Fig. 5.15 Percentage of current partners who are violent outside the home by level of heavy drinking
Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts in Hong Kong were less than 5.

Dominance and Control by Male Partners

Historically, the relationship between men and women in marriage in the majority of societies has been hierarchical in which men have had social status, power and control over their wives. A man's right to use physical force to correct his wife has been supported over time by legal, religious, cultural, political and economic structures of the majority of societies. Roman law, for example, and later English common-law, considered wives legally subordinate to husbands and control of wives was the responsibility of husbands. The stability of marriage and family life depended on the authority of husbands and the obedience and loyalty of wives. Even in societies where women are no longer legally considered the property of their husbands, and men do not have the explicit right in law to beat their wives, many of the conditions that permit wife beating continue to exist (Dobash & Dobash 1979).

Both qualitative and quantitative studies of the dynamics of intimate partner violence find that, in a high proportion of cases, physical and sexual abuse is accompanied by attempts on the part of male partners to restrict the woman's movements outside the home, isolate her from family and friends, jealously guard her contacts with other men, and undermine her independence (Dobash & Dobash 1984; Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005; Kishor & Johnson 2004). Isolation is often used by abusive men as a deliberate strategy to separate their partners from information, advice and support that might challenge his use of violence against her and to keep her dependent on him (Kelly 1996). Although it is treated as a risk factor for violence in this study, efforts to control and isolate female partners are arguably such in integral part of the pattern of abuse and violence that it constitutes abuse in its own right (Johnson & Ferraro 2000). Both violence and coercive control are mechanisms through which men can re-assert gendered power relations in the family when other routes, such as being the dominant breadwinner, fail.

At the societal level, this suggests that in societies that award men greater social and economic power and status than women, violence against female partners will also be higher. At the individual level, this suggests that violence will be more prevalent in relationships where men have a sense of entitlement over their female partners. Ideologies of male dominance have effects at many levels of society. They affect the autonomy of women, their access to political influence and the economy, as well as influence over laws, police and the criminal justice system (Jewkes 2002).

Cross-cultural studies have identified male authority over decision-making in the household to be one of the strongest predictors of violence against women in societies (Kishor & Johnson 2004; Levinson 1989). Counts et al. (1992) examined 14 societies for the circumstances in which men beat their female partners and found that one of the most important predictors of gender-based violence is societal-level definitions of masculinity that are equated with dominance, toughness and male honour. Sanday (1981, 1996) came to a similar conclusion concerning rape. She found that the prevalence of rape varied across tribal societies, and that a high tolerance for interpersonal violence, male dominance, an ideology of male toughness and aggression, and sex segregation were characteristics of "rape prone" cultures. These are societies in which the incidence of rape is moderate or high, rape is a ceremonial

expression of masculinity, or rape is used to threaten or punish women. The main feature of societies where rape occurs with low frequency is gender equality manifested by the importance and respect paid to women's social roles and contributions.

Levinson (1989) developed a typology of wife beating based on the primary reason members of a society believe it occurs. Three primary reasons were given by people in his 90 country sample: (1) due to sexual jealousy—as punishment for adultery or suspected adultery; (2) for failure to properly perform culturally agreed upon female roles; and (3) as a male prerogative to beat wives for any reason at all. Sexual jealousy beatings tended to be more severe and beatings at will occurred more frequently and were less subject to outside intervention.

The IVAWS contained a series of questions designed to assess whether intimate partner violence occurs within a context of male dominance and control over women. The questionnaire contained a short module of questions that was mandatory for all participating countries, as well as a longer optional set of questions, that were designed to examine controlling and emotionally abusive tactics by current intimate partners. All countries, with the exception of Australia, included the longer version. The following is the list of controlling behaviours in the longer set of questions; those marked by an asterisk were contained in the shorter version:

- he gets angry if she speaks to other men*
- he tries to limit her contact with family and friends*
- he follows her or keeps track of her whereabouts*
- he is constantly suspicious that she is unfaithful
- he insists on knowing where she is and with whom at all times

In order to improve precision and to achieve a greater understanding of male partners' use of these controlling tactics and how they related to the use of violence, women were asked to indicate whether their partner uses these behaviours all the time, frequently, sometimes or never. Table 5.5 shows the percentages of males who exhibit controlling behaviours over their female partners. For example, the percentages of partnered women who say their male partners exhibit sexual jealousy (they get angry if she speaks to other men) at least some of the time is 54% in Mozambique, 44% in the Czech Republic, and 33% in Costa Rica and Poland, compared with smaller percentages in Australia, Denmark and Switzerland. Women in Cost Rica, the Czech Republic and Mozambique are most likely than women in other countries to say their male partners are constantly suspicious that the women have been unfaithful. Male partners in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and Mozambique are more likely to try to isolate the women through limiting their contact with family and friends, while men in the Czech Republic and Poland are most likely to insist on knowing who she is with and where she is at all times. Higher percentages of men in Costa Rica, Mozambique and the Philippines follow their female partners or keep track of their whereabouts in a way that she finds controlling or frightening.

Table 5.6 displays lifetime rates of violence by current intimate partners according to how frequently partners used these controlling behaviours. With a few exceptions, these results show that an increase in the frequency of exhibiting these behaviours results in an increase in violence by intimate partners. Men who are angry if their female partners speak with other men "all the time" or "frequently"

Table 5.5 Controlling behaviours by current partners (percentages who exhibit these behaviours at least sometimes)

	Australia	Costa Rica	Czech Republic	Denmark	Hong Kong	Mozambique	Philippines	Poland	Switzerland
Angry if she speaks with other men	13	33	44	6	27	54	25	33	7
Tries to limit contact with family and friends	8	19	17	2	12	22	12	7	5
Follows or keeps track of her whereabouts	7	14	7	1	6	18	13	5	3
Suspicious that unfaithful	–	19	19	3	5	14	10	9	3
Insists on knowing where she is, with whom at all times	–	29	36	3	29	17	15	34	12

The Australian IVAWS did not include the optional questions on controlling behaviours.

Table 5.6 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by frequency of controlling behaviours

	Angry if she speaks with other men				Limits contact with family/friends			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	43	37	15	7	51	45	23	7
Costa Rica	46	41	31	12	62	51	35	14
Czech Republic	48	50	18	9	69	56	33	11
Denmark	––	––	11	2	––	––	21*	2
Hong Kong	25	––	5*	4	––	––	15	3
Mozambique	40	45	32	26	41	46	45	29
Philippines	25	21	9	4	11*	17*	18	6
Poland	44	30	8	4	76	58	30	5
Switzerland	–	–	7*	2	–	–	10*	2
	Follows her or keeps tracks of her whereabouts				Suspicious she had been unfaithful			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	53	37	23	7	–	–	–	–
Costa Rica	60	69	49	14	70	60	50	11
Czech Republic	73	57	51	12	73	34	38	10
Denmark	––	––	25*	2	––	55*	8*	2
Hong Kong	––	––	13*	4	––	––	18*	4
Mozambique	46	49	41	30	44	45	47	29
Philippines	9*	19*	16	6	57	60	13	5
Poland	100	48*	34	6	88	47	28	4
Switzerland	–	–	23*	1	–	–	15*	2

	Insists on knowing who she is with, where she is			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	–	–	–	–
Costa Rica	46	44	29	13
Czech Republic	62	37	18	11
Denmark	46*	––	––	2
Hong Kong	22*	––	5*	4
Mozambique	60	50	36	29
Philippines	19*	39	14	5
Poland	25	14	8	5
Switzerland	–	–	6*	1

The Australian IVAWS did not include the optional questions on controlling behaviours. In Switzerland, the questionnaire was modified to capture only where the controlling behaviours occurred or did not.

* Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

–– Sample count is less than 5.

were more likely to be violent toward their partners than men who "sometimes" or "never" behaved this way. Similarly, rates of violence toward female partners were higher for men who exhibited other controlling behaviours either "all the time" or "frequently". Mozambique is somewhat unusual in that relatively high percentages of men were violent toward their female partners even when they were never controlling in these ways. For each of these behaviours, about 30% of male partners who never behaved in these ways were violent toward their partners, a much higher percentage than in any other country.

Emotional Abuse by Male Partners

Emotionally and psychologically abusive behaviours frequently form part of the pattern of domination, control and violence toward intimate partners. The following is the list of emotionally abusive behaviours in the longer set of questions; those marked by an asterisk were those contained in the shorter version which was mandatory for all countries:

- he calls her names or insults her*
- he intentionally damages or destroys her possessions or property*
- he harms or threatens to harm her children
- he harms or threatens to harm someone else close to her
- he threatens to kill her
- he threatens to kill himself
- he threatens to hurt her or her children if she leaves

Table 5.7 lists these emotionally abusive behaviours and the percentages of current male partners in each country who display each one at least sometimes. Insults and name-calling was the most common form of emotional abuse measured on this survey, and it was most prevalent in Australia and the Czech Republic. Other types of emotionally abusive behaviours were relatively uncommon in all countries.

Table 5.8 displays lifetime rates of violence by current intimate partners by the frequency of emotionally abusive behaviours. A pattern similar to controlling behaviours is shown: men who exhibit these emotionally abusive behaviours are more likely to be violent toward their female partners and rates of violence increase with the frequency of these acts. For example, men who engage in name-calling or insulting their partners "all the time" or "frequently" are more likely to be violent toward their partners than men who never do so. Men who damage or destroy their partners' possessions or property, which is a display of aggression, are more likely to assault their partners than men who do so sometimes or never. Harming or threatening to harm the woman's children or someone else close to her, threatening to kill her or to kill himself, and threatening to hurt her or her children if she leaves are associated with a higher risk of violence directed at female partners. One positive item was also included on the survey—he is supportive toward her work or studies or other activities taking place outside the home—and was found to be a protective factor against violence. Men who were frequently or always supportive

Table 5.7 Emotional abuse by current partners (percentages who exhibit these behaviours at least sometimes)

	Australia	Costa Rica	Czech Republic	Denmark	Hong Kong	Mozambique	Philippines	Poland	Switzerland
Calls names, insults	29	17	29	9	20	14	15	15	8
Damages or destroys property	3	7	9	1	4	4	8	3	2
Harms or threatens to harm children	–	7	3	0*	1*	3	4	2	1*
Harms or threatens to harm someone else	–	3	3	0*	1*	2	1	3	1*
Threatens to kill her	–	6	4	––	1*	2	1	3	1*
Threatens to kill himself	–	5	3	1	3	2	1	2	3
Threatens to hurt her if she leaves	–	4	3	0*	2	2	1	2	1*

The Australian IVAWS did not include the optional questions on emotionally abusive behaviours.
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
–– Sample count is less than 5.

Table 5.8 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by frequency of emotionally abusive behaviours

	Calls her names, insults her				Damages property			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	90	55	17	3	––	75	44	7
Costa Rica	78	77	39	13	100	81	69	16
Czech Republic	92	81	29	5	93	78	62	11
Denmark	––	48*	10	2	––	––	43	2
Hong Kong	––	53*	12	3	––	––	22*	4
Mozambique	54	48	47	29	43*	60*	45	31
Philippines	40*	55	11	5	72	50	17	5
Poland	92	71	27	1	83	100	70	5
Switzerland	–	–	1	13	–	–	25*	2
	Harms or threatens to harm her children				Harms or threatens to harm someone close to her			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Costa Rica	––	––	78	16	––	––	78	18
Czech Republic	100	79	82	15	100	––	92	14
Denmark	––	––	––	3	––	––	––	3
Hong Kong	––	––	––	4	––	––	––	5
Mozambique	––	––	65	31	––	––	66	32
Philippines	––	60*	18*	6	––	70*	37*	6
Poland	100	90	77	6	100	85	75	5
Switzerland	–	–	––	2	–	–	––	2

	Threatens to kill her				Threatens to kill himself			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Costa Rica	100	––	95	16	––	––	70	17
Czech Republic	100	94	92	13	100	100	77	15
Denmark	––	––	––	3	––	––	27*	2
Hong Kong	––	––	––	4			31*	4
Mozambique	––	––	69*	31	––	––	72	32
Philippines	––	––	29*	7	––	––	61*	6
Poland	100	92	54	5	100	100	80	7
Switzerland	–	–	––	2	–	–	21*	1

	Threatens to hurt her or her children if she leaves			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	–	–	–	–
Costa Rica	100	––	83	18
Czech Republic	100	87	82	14
Denmark	––	––	72*	3
Hong Kong	––	––	45*	4
Mozambique	––	––	69	32
Philippines	––	––	46*	7
Poland	100	100	58	7
Switzerland	–	–	––	2

	Supportive towards work/studies			
	All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Australia	5	11	23	33
Costa Rica	14	29	26	45
Czech Republic	–	–	–	–
Denmark	2	5*	7*	9*
Hong Kong	3*	4	6*	15*
Mozambique	27	31	35	38
Philippines	5	9	15	12
Poland	2	3*	12	27
Switzerland	–	–	1	5*

The Australian IVAWS did not include the optional questions on emotionally abusive behaviours. In Switzerland, the questionnaire was modified to capture only where emotional abuse occurred or did not.
The Czech Republic did not include the question "supportive towards her work or studies".
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
−− Sample count is less than 5.

of their partners' activities outside the home were less likely to be violent toward them compared with men who never behaved this way. Once again, Mozambique was unique in that relatively high percentages of men were violent in the absence of these emotionally abusive behaviours and in the presence of supportive attitudes toward their partners' outside activities.

Figure 5.16 shows one-year and lifetime rates of current partner violence when at last one of the core set of emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours were stated to have occurred "frequently" or "all the time". These items include:

- he gets angry if she speaks to other men
- he tries to limit her contact with family and friends
- he follows her or keeps track of her whereabouts
- he calls her names or insults her
- he intentionally damages or destroys her possessions or property

The one positive item—he is supportive toward her work or studies or other activities taking place outside the home—was also mandatory for all countries. The sums calculated in Fig. 5.16 were constructed so that, in case of negative statements, they are counted as emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours if they take place sometimes, frequently or all the time. The positive statement translates into controlling behaviour if the partner is never supportive towards her work or studies.

For both one-year and lifetime rates of violence, current partners who were frequently emotionally abusive or controlling in at least one of these ways had much higher rates of violence against their female partners than men who did not use these tactics. Frequent controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours were associated with higher rates of partner violence in Mozambique, but the effect was not as strong as for other countries: rates of violence were higher compared with other countries for men in Mozambique who *did not* exhibit these behaviours. For example, 27% of

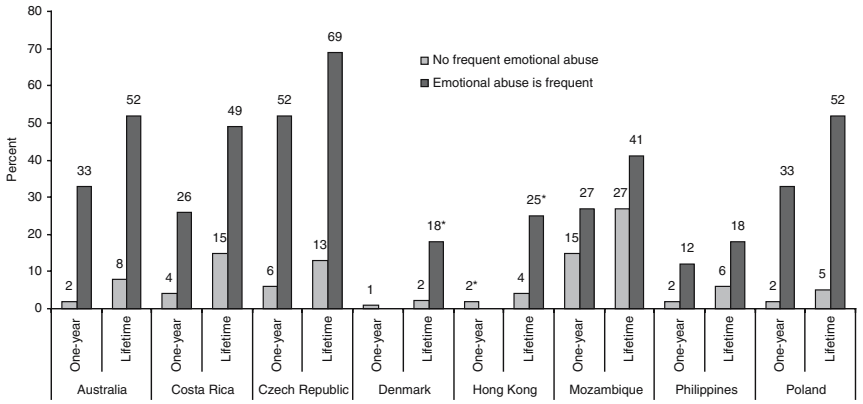


Fig. 5.16 One-year and lifetime rates of current partner violence if at least one emotionally abusive or controlling act occurred frequently

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts were less than 5 for one-year rates by frequent emotional abuse in Denmark and Hong Kong. Comparable rates could not be calculated for Switzerland.

men in Mozambique who exhibited no controlling or emotional abusive acts were violent toward their current partners compare with 18% of men in the Philippines and 25% of men in Hong Kong who *did* exhibit these behaviours. These differences may reflect cultural variations in the way these questions were perceived and understood, or differences in the willingness of women to describe the behaviours of male partners in a negative light. An interesting finding throughout this analysis is that the presence of risk factors raise the chances a woman in Mozambique will experience violence; however, for many risk factors, women in Mozambique experience higher rates of intimate partner violence than women in some other countries even when the risk factor is *not present*.

In addition, the risk of intimate partner violence increases with the number of emotionally abusive or controlling tactics that male partners initiate. In all countries, women who reported male partners using four or more emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours, at least some of the time, were many times more likely to be assaulted by their partners compared with women subjected to fewer of these behaviours or none (Fig. 5.17). This graph includes just the six mandatory items of emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours. Again, in Mozambique almost one-quarter of partnered women whose male partners were not emotionally abusive or controlling in the ways described in this survey nonetheless were physically or sexually abused by them. In all countries, rates of violence inflicted by male partners who used 4 to 6 types of emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours were many times higher than among those who used fewer or none. These data help demonstrate that controlling tactics and emotional abuse, and the diverse ways in which they are used against female partners, are strong risk factors for intimate partner violence.

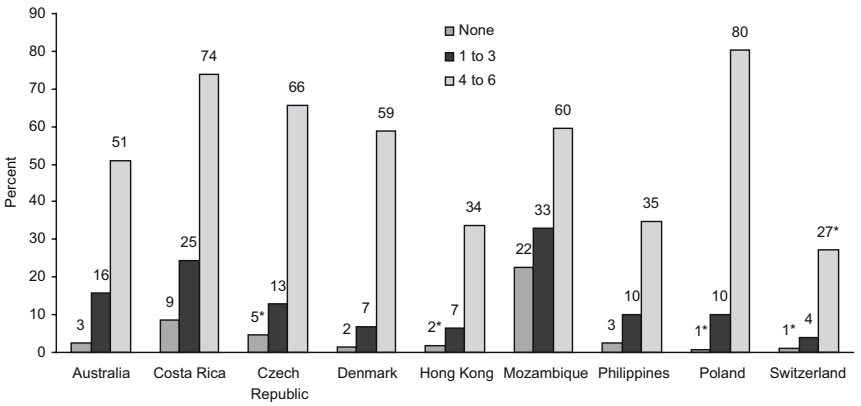


Fig. 5.17 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by number of emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Attitudes and Beliefs About Male Violence Against Women

Although the IVAWS did not ask respondents about their own or their partners' attitudes or beliefs about the rights of men to chastise or abuse their wives, a number of studies have found a correlation between male partners' attitudes and beliefs and the perpetration of gender-based violence. These conclusions tend to be drawn on surveys that interview women about the behaviour and attitudes of male partners due to the ethical difficulties in interviewing violent men, including risking the safety of female partners. These studies show that men who subscribe to beliefs about the natural superiority and dominant position of men, and who hold attitudes approving of wife beating, have higher rates of violence against female partners (Smith 1990). Rates of violence are higher in societies where the behaviour is normative and men are considered to have a right to physically punish female partners for transgressions. For example, across cultures, rates of partner violence are higher in countries where women agree that there are circumstances under which it is acceptable for a husband to hit his wife (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005; Kishor & Johnson 2004). Other ethnographic studies conclude that community sanctions against violent husbands and supportive responses for female victims, in the form of active community or kin intervention, are extremely important for keeping acts of violence against wives from escalating (Baumgartner 1993; Counts et al. 1992).

Sexual violence also thrives under certain attitudes and beliefs toward women. "Rape myths" refer to commonly accepted negative stereotypes of rape and rape victims that provide a climate in which certain types of sexual aggression are acceptable. For example, rape myths support the attitude that only certain situations, such as rape by a stranger, are considered real rape and the victims worthy of support and assistance. Rape occurring in other situations, such as an intoxicated woman raped by a man known to her, does not merit the definition of rape since victims are considered to be blameworthy. Research has established a connection between belief in rape myths and male involvement in sexually aggressive acts toward women (Koss et al. 1985).

The important influence of male peers in condoning or supporting rape and other forms of violence against women has been documented. Peers provide support, guidance and advice in dealing with the opposite sex, which can include the use of psychological, physical or sexual abuse (DeKeseredy & Kelly 1995; Schwartz & DeKeseredy 1997). Embeddedness in groups of male peers has been found to be related to more frequent and more severe wife beating and longer duration of violence in relationships (Bowker 1983). Studies of college and university students in Canada and the United States have established links between belief in rape myths, male acceptance of sexual coercion, peer support of these attitudes and beliefs, and abuse toward women (Sanday 1990; Schwartz & DeKeseredy 1997; Schwartz & Nogrady 1996). Cross-culturally, a woman who is most vulnerable to male violence is one who stands alone against a husband who has extensive support from others in the social network (Baumgartner 1993).

According to the subculture of violence thesis, violence against intimate partners is the result of a male subculture of peers whose value system justifies or condones

male dominance and violence against intimate partners (Bowker 1983). Alternatively, while violence may not be openly endorsed, cultural values that seem to be unrelated to violence may, in fact, be linked to norms governing gender relations that increase the possibility that violence will occur or that women will be unable to escape a violent partner. For example, a value system that emphasises male dominance over family members, male control over economic resources, and restrictions on divorce create conditions conducive to male violence and restrict the range of options open to women to escape or prevent male violence against them (Bowker 1983; Levinson 1989).

Childhood Experiences of Abuse

The module of questions on the IVAWS pertaining to childhood experiences of physical and sexual violence was optional. Countries that included these questions were Australia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland. Experiences of violence in childhood and adolescence have been identified as important risk factors for victimisation as an adult (Neumann et al. 1996; Roodman & Clum 2001; Tjaden & Thoennes 1998a, 2006). This heightened risk of adult victimisation for child and adolescent victims has been attributed to the negative impacts of early forced sexual experiences that can leave women less able to protect themselves against further abuse because of poor self-esteem and an acceptance of victimisation as part of being female (Koss 1990). High rates of childhood abuse may also be indicative of norms about violence such that countries with relatively high rates of child abuse will also have high rates of partner violence and other types of violence involving adults.

The results of the IVAWS confirm previous studies that have found rates of intimate partner violence to be higher among women who had experienced physical violence by parents during childhood and among those who had an unwanted sexual experience before age 16 (see Box 2.2 for questions used to measure childhood abuse). As shown in Fig. 5.18, women who were not physically abused by parents in childhood and those who did not have experiences of forced sexual activity prior to age 16 had relatively low rates of intimate partner violence compared with women who had these early life experiences. In some countries, such as Australia, Poland and Switzerland, rates of intimate partner violence were similar for women who were physically abused by parents and those who had experiences of forced sex. In other countries, such as Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and the Philippines, forced sexual experiences before the age of 16 were associated with higher rates of intimate partner violence compared with physical abuse by parents.

Physical abuse by parents and unwanted sexual experiences before age 16 was also a risk factor for violent victimisation by strangers and known men in adulthood (Table 5.9). Women who were victims of physical or sexual assault in childhood had higher rates of both physical and sexual assault by strangers and known men after the age of 16 compared with women not victimised in childhood. For example, 36% of women in Australia who were physically abused by their parents while they

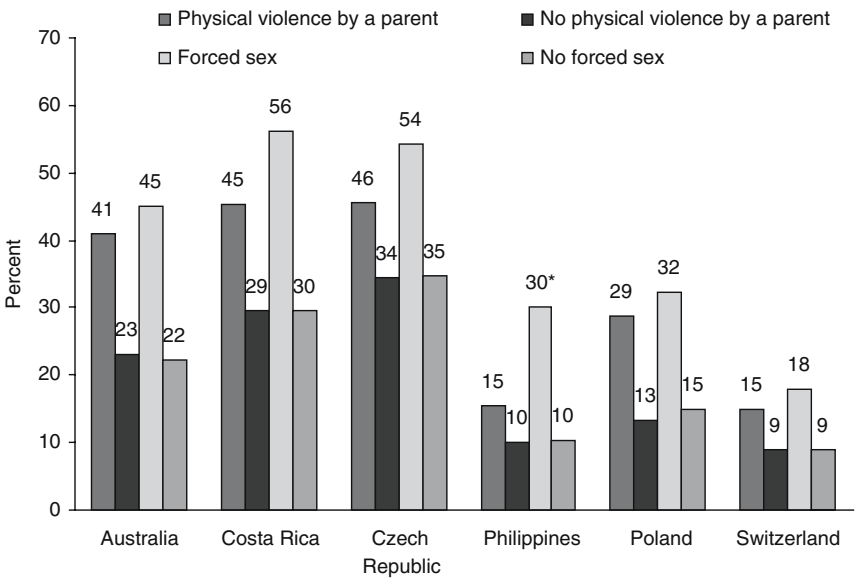


Fig. 5.18 Lifetime rates of partner violence by women's experiences of physical and sexual abuse in childhood

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

were under the age of 16, and 32% who experienced unwanted sexual activity by anyone, were victims of physical assault by a stranger or known man as an adult. This compares with 18% of those who were not physically or sexually abused in childhood. Experiencing physical or sexual abuse in childhood also doubles the risk of being sexually assaulted by a non-partner as an adult. Childhood victimisation is likewise a risk factor for victimisation as an adult in other countries.

Physical abuse in childhood is also a risk factor for the perpetration of violence by men against their female partners later on in life. As shown in Fig. 5.19, rates of intimate partner violence were twice as high in Costa Rica among men whose fathers were physically violent toward them in childhood compared with men who were not abused. In total, over one-third of men in Costa Rica and the Czech Republic who were physically abused by their fathers in childhood went on to use violence against their female partners as adults. Rates of partner violence are three times higher in the Czech Republic and about four times higher in the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland for men who were abused compared with those who were not abused.

Witnessing Intimate Partner Violence

Many of the negative consequences of witnessing parental violence in childhood may continue into adulthood and raise the risk of using violence against female partners (see Box 5.4) (Berman et al. 2004). Witnessing violence against one's mother is a consistent risk marker for the commission of intimate partner violence

Table 5.9 Lifetime rates of non-partner violence by type of childhood abuse

	Physical violence by parents		Unwanted sexual experiences	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
Australia				
Physical violence	18	36	18	32
Sexual violence	15	31	15	32
Physical or sexual violence	27	49	27	47
Costa Rica				
Physical violence	18	30	20	34
Sexual violence	26	38	28	43
Physical or sexual violence	35	51	38	55
Czech Republic				
Physical violence	16	40	19	39
Sexual violence	22	36	21	56
Physical or sexual violence	29	55	31	65
Philippines				
Physical violence	6	18	7	35*
Sexual violence	4	9	4	24*
Physical or sexual violence	9	22	9	38*
Poland				
Physical violence	16	37	18	52
Sexual violence	11	23	11	39
Physical or sexual violence	22	47	24	62
Switzerland				
Physical violence	14	30	15	32
Sexual violence	18	36	19	42
Physical or sexual violence	26	51	28	56

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

(Heise 1998). Some studies have also determined that women who witness parental violence in childhood have an increased risk of being a victim of partner violence in their own relationships (Johnson 1996). Witnessing violence in childhood

Box 5.4 Children who witness intimate partner violence Growing up in a family where problems and conflicts are solved with violence can have major impacts on children. The poor functioning of violent families entails major stressors for children including ongoing marital conflict, reduced parental support and nurturance, secrecy surrounding the violence, the disruption of moving house and possibly spending time in emergency shelters, economic disadvantage if the parental relationship breaks up, interactions with the police and courts, and violence directed at the child (Campbell & Lewandowski 1997). Negative mental health consequences include depressive symptoms, anxiety, frustration, low self-esteem, stress-related disorders, and post-traumatic stress disorder (Berman et al. 2004; Campbell & Lewandowski 1997). Witnessing parental violence can also result in low levels of social competence and pro-social behaviour, aggression and other behavioural problems,

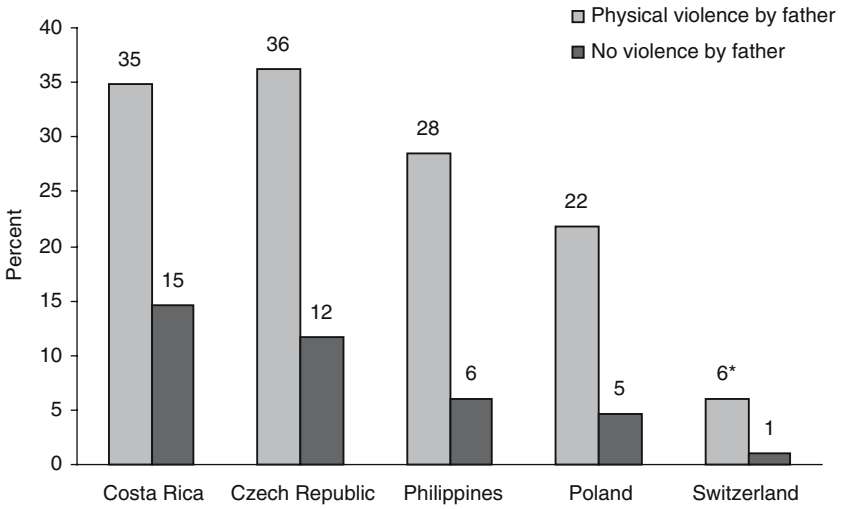


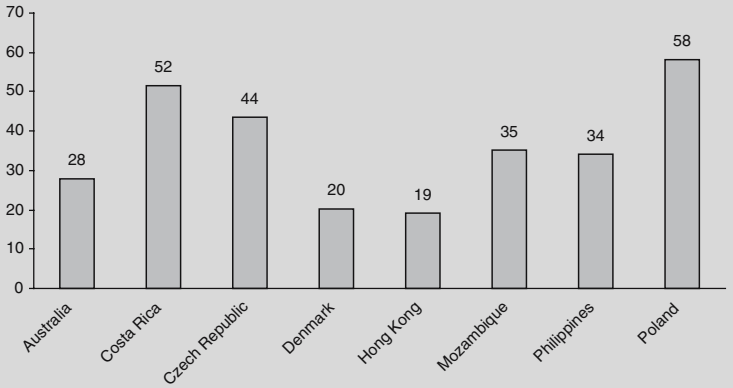
Fig. 5.19 Adult lifetime rates of partner violence according to whether partners were physically abused by their fathers in childhood

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

difficulty developing empathy, as well as difficulty establishing close interpersonal relationships (Berman et al. 2004; Dauvergne & Johnson 2001). Child witnesses also tend to have lower general health and more health problems than children who are not exposed to domestic violence (Onyskiw 2002).

As shown below, the percentage of women in the IVAWS who were victims of physical or sexual violence by intimate partners and said their children had witnessed the violence against them ranged from one-fifth in Denmark and Hong Kong to 58% in Poland. Danish women were most likely to say there were no children in the relationship (53%). These figures undercount the rate at which children witness intimate partner violence since this refers to just the most recent incident. The figures are also based on all victims of intimate partner violence and not just the "at risk" population who had ever had children.

Percentage of intimate partner violence victims with children who witnessed the violence



has also been identified as a factor that increases young men's use of physical and sexual violence against female friends and dating partners (White & Smith 2001).

Questions about women and their partners witnessing violence by their fathers in childhood were optional in the IVAWS. Countries that included these questions were Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland. In these countries, women were more likely to say they had witnessed their fathers behaving violently toward their mothers than to say their partners had witnessed violence. However, respondents were far more likely to reply "don't know" to the question about partners witnessing violence, up to 15% in some countries. The percentage of women and their partners who witnessed violence by their fathers was highest in Costa Rica, and these percentages were at least double those in other countries. Fathers who use violence against their female partners can serve as a model for their male children who then are at greater risk of using the same tactics in their own relationships. The patterns shown in Fig. 5.20 below help explain, in part, the relatively high rates of intimate partner violence against women in Costa Rica as compared with other countries such as the Philippines where smaller percentage of women and their partners witnessed violence and their own rates of intimate partner violence were lower.

Results of the IVAWS lend support to the social learning theory that maintains that violence can be learned by witnessing parental violence in childhood and that child witnesses have an increased likelihood of perpetrating violence against intimate partners later in life. Among these countries, men who witnessed their fathers using violence against their mothers were at least three times as likely to be violent toward their own partners compared with men from violence-free homes. Rates are highest in the Czech Republic where 42% of currently partnered men who witnessed violence by their fathers were violent at least once toward their own female partners (Fig. 5.21). This compares with just 13% of men who did not witness violence by their fathers in childhood. Although witnessing violence by fathers is also

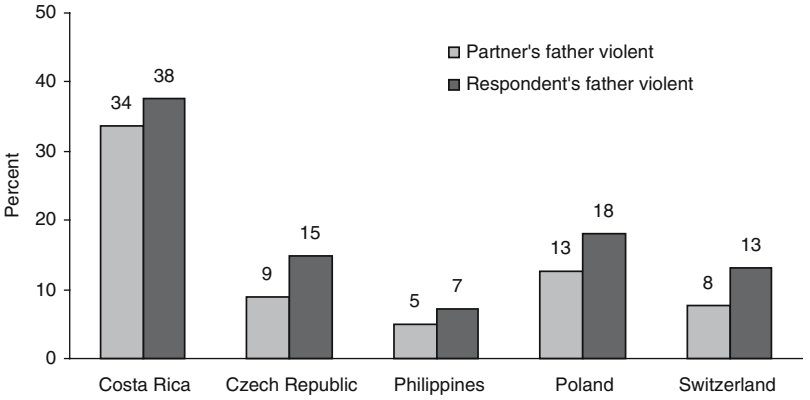


Fig. 5.20 Percentage of respondents and male partners who witnessed fathers' violence toward mothers

increases women's vulnerability to partner violence later in life, the contrast is not as strong: women in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and Poland who witnessed their fathers' violence were twice as likely as women with non-violent fathers to say they were victims of violence by their own partners. For women in the Philippines and Switzerland there was no difference at all. Women in those countries who witnessed violence against their mothers were no more likely than other women to have experienced intimate partner violence themselves.

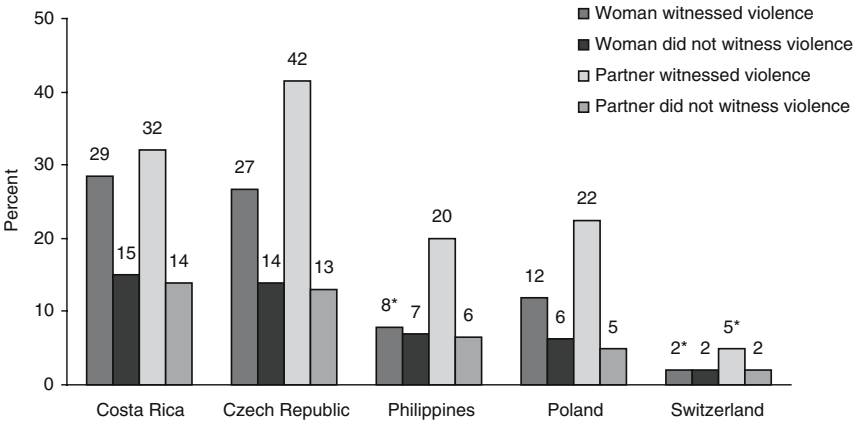


Fig. 5.21 Lifetime rates of current partner violence by respondents and partners witnessed fathers being violent toward their mothers

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Logistic Regression Analysis

The preceding analyses provide evidence that gender-based violence is widespread and crosses socio-economic boundaries. However, it also shows that all women do not share the same risk for violence and that certain characteristics of the man, the woman and the relationship are associated with higher rates of violence. Yet, many of these factors are themselves inter-related. Other research has shown, for example, that low occupational status is linked to both alcohol abuse and attitudes approving of violence toward female partners (Kantor & Straus 1990). In analysis of the 1993 Canadian Violence Against Women Survey, Johnson (2001) found that age, co-habitation, alcohol abuse by male partners and socio-economic variables were important correlates of intimate partner violence, but that controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours by male partners made the most important statistical contribution while controlling for the effects of other variables.

It is therefore important to control for the effects of each of these variables in order to identify which are the most important predictors of male partner violence against women. Logistic regression analysis was conducted with selected variables entered together in a model in order to control for the effects of each of these factors. Separate models were conducted to assess the risk factors for countries combined and individually for lifetime violence by current intimate partners. Countries that did not include optional questions about childhood experiences of violence or witnessing violence by fathers were not included in the combined model. Five countries–Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland–included all questions concerning respondents' childhood experiences of violence and witnessing violence by fathers, as well as male partners' experiences of violence and witnessing violence. Australia included respondents' experiences of physical violence by parents only among these optional questions. In order to include as many countries as possible, Australia was included in the model and the other questions left out. This brings the number of countries available for analysis to six. The independent variables selected for inclusion in the model were:

- age of respondent
- heavy drinking by male partners
- partners' use of violence outside the home
- partners' use of controlling or emotionally abusive behaviours frequently or all of the time
- physical abuse by parents against female respondents
- household income

Controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours were limited to the five that were mandatory for all countries.

Table 5.10 shows the adjusted odds ratios for each variable holding constant the effects of all others in the model. The adjusted odds ratios that make a statistically significant contribution ($p > .05$) to the model are marked with an asterisk. The results are consistent with other studies that show that controlling and emotionally abusive tactics on the part of male partners is the most important predictor

Table 5.10 Logistic regression predicting lifetime current partner violence, six countries combined (Australia, Costa Rica, Czech Republic, Philippines, Poland, Switzerland)

				95% C.I.	
	B	S.E.	AOR	Lower	Upper
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	0.631	0.114	1.879*	1.504	2.348
40–49	0.887	0.113	2.427*	1.943	3.032
50+	0.559	0.116	1.748*	1.391	2.196
Heavy drinking	0.806	0.110	2.239*	1.803	2.780
Partner violent outside the home	1.478	0.094	4.385*	3.647	5.273
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	1.811	0.082	6.119*	5.205	7.192
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	0.361	0.087	1.435*	1.209	1.704
Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	−0.218	0.124	0.804	0.630	1.026
2nd quartile	−0.190	0.107	0.827	0.670	1.020
3rd quartile	0.090	0.092	1.095	0.913	1.312
Constant	−3.690	0.107	0.025*		
–2 Log likelihood 5242.4					
Model χ^2 1069.0 (df=10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.21					

of intimate partner violence. Partners' use of controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours frequently or all of the time raises the odds of partner violence by a factor of 6 while controlling for the effects of other variables. Partners' use of violence toward others outside the home is the second most important predictor, raising the odds of partner violence by a factor of 4 while controlling for the effects of other variables in the model. Heavy drinking by male partners is also associated with partner violence, independent of the effects of other variables. Age is also significant: the adjusted odds of lifetime partner violence are about 2 for age groups over 30 years of age compared with younger women. Physical assault victimisation of female respondents in childhood also predicts victimisation by an intimate partner. Household income is not a significant predictor of partner violence when the effects of other variables are controlled.

Results for each country are shown separately in Table 5.11. Predictors of current partner violence are the same for Australia as the full model. In Costa Rica, neither respondent age, nor household income, nor childhood experiences of physical abuse are statistically significant. Controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours by male partners, heavy drinking and partners' use of violence outside the home are significant predictors of intimate partner violence in Costa Rica. Results for the Czech Republic differ from most other countries in that heavy drinking is not a significant predictor of partner violence when the effects of other variables are taken into account.[10] Controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours, violence outside the home and income are significant predictors. In the Philippines, all variables, with the exception of household income, are associated with partner violence. In Poland, age, heavy drinking, partners' use of violence outside the home, and controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours all make very strong contributions to predicting partner violence. In Switzerland, only male partner violence outside the home and frequent use of controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours are significant predictors of intimate partner violence.

Table 5.12 shows the results of the logistic regression including six countries, but controlling for the effects of each country. Similar to Table 5.9 which predicted intimate partner violence in all six countries collectively, respondents' age, partners' heavy drinking, partners' use of violence outside the home, controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours, and physical abuse in childhood against the respondent are all significant predictors of partner violence. With Switzerland as the reference category, all countries had an independent effect on predicting partner violence. The adjusted odds of partner violence was 8 in Costa Rica and 11 in the Czech Republic compared with Switzerland. This suggests that there are important conditions in each of these countries, or characteristics of women or men or marital relationships, that are associated with partner violence but are not accounted for in this analysis. This is an important area for future research.

The effect of the current male partners' childhood experiences of violence could not be included in this six-country analysis because Australia omitted questions

[10] This differs from the analysis published in Pikálková, S. (2004) in which rates of partner violence were compared for men who never drink and those who drink at least sometimes (which includes those who drink so much they get drunk). When this method of analysis is used in a logistic regression, drinking is a positive predictor of intimate partner violence.

Table 5.11 Logistic regression predicting lifetime current partner violence, five countries

				95% C.I.	
	B	S.E.	AOR	Lower	Upper
Australia					
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	0.937	0.185	2.553*	1.775	3.672
40–49	1.028	0.189	2.796*	1.932	4.045
50+	0.491	0.202	1.634*	1.099	2.430
Heavy drinking	0.882	0.171	2.415*	1.727	3.378
Partner violent outside the home	1.132	0.155	3.103*	2.290	4.204
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	2.052	0.162	7.784*	5.667	10.693
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	0.546	0.131	1.726*	1.336	2.231
Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	−0.026	0.338	0.974	0.502	1.891
2nd quartile	0.131	0.178	1.140	0.805	1.615
3rd quartile	0.238	0.129	1.269	0.985	1.635
Constant	−3.773	0.181	0.023*		
−2 Log likelihood 2249.5					
Model χ^2 352.7 (df = 10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.17					
Costa Rica					
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	−0.022	0.356	0.979	0.487	1.967
40–49	0.686	0.373	1.985	0.955	4.126
50+	0.116	0.408	1.123	0.505	2.497
Heavy drinking	1.134	0.534	3.110*	1.092	8.856
Partner violent outside the home	1.607	0.281	4.987*	2.874	8.655
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	1.671	0.292	5.317*	2.999	9.426
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	0.322	0.280	1.380	0.798	2.388

Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	0.256	0.396	1.292	0.594	2.811
2nd quartile	−0.235	0.406	0.791	0.357	1.751
3rd quartile	0.152	0.400	1.164	0.532	2.547
Constant	−3.063	0.422	0.047*		
−2 Log likelihood 365.9					
Model χ^2 122.2 (df = 10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.35					
Czech Republic					
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	0.067	0.291	1.069	0.604	1.893
40–49	0.518	0.268	1.678	0.993	2.838
50+	0.328	0.251	1.388	0.849	2.269
Heavy drinking	−0.271	0.326	0.763	0.402	1.446
Partner violent outside the home	1.524	0.230	4.592*	2.928	7.203
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	2.108	0.207	8.231*	5.490	12.340
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	0.306	0.211	1.357	0.898	2.052
Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	−0.029	0.289	0.971	0.552	1.710
2nd quartile	−0.707	0.253	0.493*	0.300	0.809
3rd quartile	−0.244	0.252	0.784	0.478	1.285
Constant	−2.452	0.270	0.086*		
−2 Log likelihood 818.8					
Model χ^2 261.8 (df = 10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.33					

(continued)

Table 5.11 (continued)

	B	S.E.	AOR	95% C.I. Lower	95% C.I. Upper
Philippines					
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	0.685	0.251	1.984*	1.213	3.244
40–49	0.761	0.270	2.140*	1.259	3.635
50+	−0.200	0.392	0.819	0.380	1.765
Heavy drinking	0.853	0.223	2.347*	1.517	3.631
Partner violent outside the home	0.840	0.321	2.317*	1.234	4.349
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	1.730	0.203	5.641*	3.786	8.406
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	−1.075	0.463	0.341*	0.138	0.846
Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	0.231	0.338	1.260	0.649	2.444
2nd quartile	−0.270	0.469	0.763	0.305	1.911
3rd quartile	−0.872	0.510	0.418	0.154	1.137
Constant	−3.703	0.231	0.025*		
−2 Log likelihood 769.8					
Model χ^2 125.5 (df = 10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.17					
Poland					
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	1.225	0.504	3.404*	1.268	9.132
40–49	1.627	0.480	5.088*	1.984	13.046
50+	1.432	0.467	4.186*	1.675	10.462
Heavy drinking	2.236	0.560	9.356*	3.121	28.045
Partner violent outside the home	1.388	0.349	4.009*	2.021	7.950
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	2.588	0.270	13.297*	7.830	22.581
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	0.161	0.317	1.174	0.631	2.187

Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	0.118	0.401	1.125	0.513	2.470
2nd quartile	0.075	0.375	1.078	0.517	2.246
3rd quartile	0.260	0.339	1.297	0.667	2.521
Constant	−5.012	0.523	0.007*		
−2 Log likelihood 492.2					
Model χ^2 222.1 (df = 10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.37					
Switzerland					
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	0.540	0.746	1.717	0.398	7.409
40–49	0.901	0.756	2.461	0.560	10.822
50+	1.263	0.682	3.538	0.929	13.478
Heavy drinking	0.989	0.759	2.690	0.607	11.909
Partner violent outside the home	1.909	0.484	6.747*	2.614	17.418
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	1.794	0.415	6.013*	2.668	13.552
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	−0.354	0.490	0.702	0.269	1.832
Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
1st quartile (highest 25%)	−0.762	0.813	0.467	0.095	2.299
2nd quartile	−0.671	0.797	0.511	0.107	2.438
3rd quartile	−0.240	0.769	0.787	0.174	3.554
Constant	−5.069	0.917	0.006*		
−2 Log likelihood 228.6					
Model χ^2 55.1 (df = 10)					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.21					

Table 5.12 Logistic regression predicting lifetime current partner violence, controlling for country

				95% C.I.	
	B	S.E.	AOR	Lower	Upper
Country					
Switzerland (reference category)					
Australia	1.926	0.213	6.865*	4.524	10.419
Costa Rica	2.140	0.239	8.496*	5.323	13.563
Czech Republic	2.411	0.217	11.149*	7.281	17.072
Philippines	1.294	0.231	3.647*	2.320	5.732
Poland	1.533	0.228	4.633*	2.963	7.245
Respondent age (18–29 reference category)					
30–39	0.671	0.116	1.956*	1.559	2.454
40–49	0.892	0.116	2.441*	1.945	3.063
50+	0.536	0.120	1.709*	1.352	2.161
Heavy drinking	0.781	0.112	2.183*	1.753	2.718
Partner violent outside the home	1.320	0.098	3.744*	3.087	4.541
Partner frequently controlling/emotionally abusive	2.034	0.090	7.641*	6.405	9.117
Respondent victim of physical abuse by parents	0.292	0.091	1.340*	1.120	1.603
Household income (4th quartile (lowest 25%) reference category)					
3rd quartile	0.045	0.137	1.046	0.800	1.368
2nd quartile	−0.215	0.117	0.807	0.642	1.014
1st quartile (highest 25%)	0.090	0.098	1.095	0.904	1.325
Constant	−5.452	0.239	0.004*		
−2 Log likelihood 5029.7					
Model χ^2 1281.7					
Nagelkerke R^2 0.25					

about male partners' experiences of physical abuse and witnessing violence in childhood. A model which includes these additional variables was fitted to a data set of five countries (Costa Rica, Czech Republic, the Philippines, Poland and Switzerland) which included all optional questions about childhood experiences. When added to the models, partners' direct experiences of physical violence in childhood, partners' experiences of witnessing their fathers' violence, and respondents' experiences of witnessing their fathers' violence all had significant independent effects on the risk of intimate partner violence, net of the effects of the other variables in the model. The effects of respondents' direct experiences of physical abuse in childhood became non-significant when these other variables concerning male partners' childhood experiences were included. This suggests that the early life experiences of male partners in terms of witnessing or experiencing violence are more important predictors of male partner violence than are the early life experiences of women.

Summary

This analysis of the correlates of violence against women in the IVAWS countries illustrates that violence crosses cultural, economic and social boundaries. Some differences were highlighted among countries in the factors that predict intimate part-

ner violence and violence perpetrated by other men, but many common correlates emerged. Controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours on the part of male partners elevate the risk of violence toward women significantly. Alcohol abuse is a risk marker for intimate partner violence and partners behaving violently outside the home. Early childhood experiences of male partners, such as direct experiences of physical abuse by parents and witnessing spousal violence by fathers, are associated with violent behaviour toward female partners later in life.

The results of the IVAWS indicate that actions to end violence against women must address a range of issues, from women's unequal status and subjugation in the family to societal norms governing concepts of masculinity and femininity. Interventions at an early age to prevent child abuse may have the effect of reducing violence against women over the life course. Reducing intimate partner violence should have inter-generational benefits by reducing the number of children who are witnesses to violence and who learn violent techniques of problem solving in intimate relationships. Reducing public violence by men may have spillover benefits by also reducing violence against their female partners, and vice versa.

Gender-based violence has been characterised as an extreme manifestation of social relations that perpetuate the domination of men over women both inside and outside the family (Dobash & Dobash 1979; Velzeboer et al. 2003). Cross-national differences in the prevalence of male violence against women may result from differences in cultural ideas of what constitutes successful masculinity (Jewkes 2002). The results of the IVAWS, together with the results of other studies on women's victimisation, underscore the complexity of the relationship between gender, culture and socio-economic factors. They also draw attention to the very high numbers of women experiencing violence, very often in relationships that are ongoing. Chapter 6 will explore the extent to which women disclose the violence to others and receive support, or otherwise remain silent and their experiences hidden.

Chapter 6
Disclosing Violence to Police and Other Supports

As previous chapters have shown, women in different parts of the world experience substantial levels of violence. Many women have experienced, and will yet experience, some form of male-perpetrated violence in their lifetime. This violence takes many forms. The intensity, severity and frequency of the violence vary as do the settings in which it occurs. The aim of this chapter is to examine the extent to which women seek help from others, including police and other professionals, as well as informal supports such as family members, friends and neighbours.

In the IVAWS, respondents were asked whether they themselves or someone else reported the most recent experience of male-perpetrated violence to the police or to some other justice authority (this question was asked separately for the most recent experience of partner and non-partner violence). Respondents were then asked whether the reporting led to a prosecution and a conviction. Satisfaction with the police was also addressed, as well as victims' opinions on what the police should have done to help them. In cases where the respondent had not reported to the police, a follow-up question regarding the reasons for not reporting was asked. As mentioned previously, the IVAWS was constructed in such a way so as to collect information only on the most recent incident of violence. This approach was undertaken in order to minimize the burden on respondents who experienced a series of violent events; rather than asking about the outcome and consequences of each incident, respondents were asked to describe the most recent. The most recent may or may not be typical of all incidents, but was considered likely to be more representative than asking respondents to comment on the most serious, and is less likely to be affected by problems with memory recall.

Research consistently shows that violence against women constitutes a severely underreported crime. There are several reasons influencing victims' decisions to disclose experiences of violence, either to informal supports such as friends or family, or to formally report the violence to police or other officials. These reasons are influenced by the circumstances and context in which the violent act takes place, including the relationship to the perpetrator, location, type of incident, seriousness of the incident, injuries sustained, and whether the violence is a single, one-off incident or part of a continuation or pattern of violence.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the experience of violent victimisation can be highly traumatizing. Especially when it is perpetrated by someone close to the

victim–someone the victim trusts and shares her life with such as a husband or partner – the violence can be particularly damaging. The manifestations and symptoms of trauma differ according to the individual circumstances of each woman, but common impacts can be described as a series of losses, including loss of safety, loss of autonomy, loss of confidence and self-esteem, memory loss, loss of trust, loss of a positive attitude to sexuality, loss of home, property, education and work, loss of children, loss of support networks such as friends and relatives, loss of health and even loss of life (Kelly 1988; Lievore 2005). The trauma and its effects depend on the experience of violence, the victim's responses and coping options, as well as on the support she receives from others (Kelly 1988; Lievore 2005; Ullman et al. 2007). The type of support women receive from others has been shown to be a critical determinant of the coping strategies and recovery processes women adopt in the aftermath of physical or sexual violence. Social supports are important for helping the woman interpret the abuse as the responsibility of the abuser and not herself, helping alter the situation by providing her shelter, money and other practical assistance, helping her deal with emotional impacts such as depression or anxiety, helping her develop alternate coping strategies, and helping her seek and use accurate information about the abuse and the abuser (Rose et al. 2000).

The reaction of others can influence the woman's definition of the situation, her decision to report to the police, her disclosure to others (who might be in a position to provide support), and her long-term mental and physical health (Lievore 2005). Rape survivors have been shown to internalize blame if others suggest the victim herself is at fault. Victim-blaming and self-blame that typically follows not only increase trauma, but also prevent victims from seeking help and reporting to the police (Pitts & Schwartz 1997). Victims who seek help and instead of support are offered disbelief or judgmental blaming attitudes are at risk of coping through denial or silence (Kelly 1988). While informal sources of help, such as family or friends, tend to be perceived as more helpful and less negative than formal sources (Ullman & Filipas 2001), many women continue to face complex barriers to seeking and obtaining help to deal with the trauma of the assault.

Interviews with female survivors of violence have identified a number of constraints to seeking support, including (Rose et al. 2000; Sagot 2005):

- cultural and societal pressures to keep the relationship together and not talk about family problems to outsiders
- negative attitudes of others, including that gender-based violence is warranted or the woman is to blame
- lack of services, or lack of awareness of supports that are available
- lack of gender-sensitive training and protocols among service providers
- lack of awareness of their legal rights
- lack of financial resources to live independently
- perception of limited options or societal support to changing the situation
- isolation imposed by the abuser
- self-imposed isolation resulting from negative or humiliating treatment from others

- low self-esteem and negative sense of self
- mistrust or fear of others
- intimidation by the abuser

In sum, the decision to disclose violence to others depends primarily on the availability, accessibility, quality and coordination of services in the community, public attitudes toward women and violence, and the response victims receive from formal and informal sources of support to whom they turn for help (Lievore 2005; Sagot 2005).

The Criminal Justice System and Women's Experiences of Violence

The law defines and produces societal understandings of crime. In many instances, legislation has been gender-neutral or gender-blind, thus failing to define certain forms of women's experiences as violence. Historically, acts of violence against women, such as domestic battery or marital rape, were not considered criminal acts. Violence in the private sphere, most notably in the home, was largely omitted from official recognition until very recently (see Nousiainen & Pylkkänen 2001).

Relational distance between the victim and the perpetrator is one of the strongest factors determining whether women report violence to the police or other authorities. Violence by known offenders is less likely to be reported than violence committed by strangers (Gartner & Macmillan 1995; Rasool et al. 2002) and violence by a husband is least likely to be reported (Mahoney 1999). Thus, the closer the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, the less likely the victim will report the crime to the police or seek other help (for rape, see Coulter et al. 1999; Mahoney 1999; Kelly et al. 2005; Williams 1984) and the longer the time taken to report (Lea et al. 2003).

A main purpose of crime victimisation surveys has been to estimate the "dark figure" of crime, the proportion of crimes that are not reported to police and therefore not included in official police statistics. These surveys routinely ask crime victims if they reported the incident to the police and, if not, what was the reason for not reporting. Reasons may be personal or may relate to the workings of the criminal justice system. In a review of the literature, Lievore (2003) summarises the personal barriers for not reporting crimes of sexual violence to the police:

- the victim feels the incident is not serious enough or that it is inappropriate to involve the criminal justice system
- the victim does not perceive the incident to be a real crime
- the victim is unsure whether the perpetrator intended to harm her
- the victim deals with it herself
- the victim regards it as a private matter
- the victim is too ashamed or embarrassed to report it

- the victim does not want others to know about the incident
- the victim is fearful of possible retaliation by the perpetrator
- self-blame or blame by others for the violence
- the victim wants to protect the offender, the relationship or her children

In a study of help-seeking behaviour in Chicago, the belief that help was not needed or not useful was the most common reason for not seeking help through formal channels. Among those women who did not call the police after the incident, 39% stated that help was not needed or would not be useful, or the incident was not serious enough to involve the criminal justice system (Fugate et al. 2005). The same study identified other factors that deter women from reporting, including external and logistical barriers, the desire to protect the partner and the relationship, the wish for privacy and confidentiality, and fear of retaliation by the perpetrator. The external barriers include, for instance, lack of money, transport, telephone, time, or lack of knowledge regarding whom to contact (Fugate et al. 2005). These external and logistical barriers may be especially important for women in rural areas or in less developed areas. In South African studies on violence against women and women's access to justice, practical barriers such as lack of telephone services, lack of transport, and the distance to the police station and to victim assistance services, were found to be major factors hindering victimised women from seeking help (Artz 1998; Rasool et al. 2002).

Fear of revictimisation or secondary victimisation by the criminal justice system, for example fear of a derogatory or insensitive response, is also a deterrent to reporting. For some victims, lack of faith in the criminal justice system is a major deterrent (Kelly et al. 2005). Secondary victimisation by the criminal justice system is a function of (Fedler et al. 2000):

> the combined effects of legal illiteracy of women, their lack of representation in a trial, their misunderstanding of the impact of certain information or impressions on the court, gender biases of the part of presiding officers, the woman's fear of the unknown, her lack of control over the process, her subjection to harsh and sometimes humiliating cross-examination, and having her assailant acquitted due to insufficient evidence being put before the court.

Many victims thus chose not to report even very traumatic events as they are afraid of the negative attitudes of employees of the justice system. These concerns are shared by other service providers. Eight-out-of-ten mental health professionals interviewed in a Chicago study believed that contact with the legal system is psychologically detrimental to rape survivors (Campbell & Raja 1999). Victims' negative expectations about the police and other justice authorities are based on the following concerns (Lievore 2003):

- the police will not be able to do anything
- the police will not think the incident was serious enough
- the police will not believe the victim
- fear of being treated in a hostile way
- fear or dislike of the police
- fear of the legal process

- lack of proof that can be presented in court
- not knowing how to report

In an early study on reporting of rape, Williams (1984) found that women are more likely to report to the police if the circumstances of the rape correspond with a "classic rape" scenario, for example if the perpetrator was a stranger, the victim was threatened with or subjected to physical violence, the victim was seriously injured, the victim resisted the attack, and the incident took place in public or in her home where the assailant had entered by force. Williams' study found that the "classic rape" provides the victim with the evidence both she and others need to be convinced that she is indeed a true victim of rape. These ideas seem to persist among both victims and service providers. Ullman & Filipis (2001) find that stranger rape and physical injuries seem to give victims the justification they need to legitimize their ordeal and seek formal help. Widespread social understanding of what constitute real rape thus influence victims' reporting behaviour as well as their own understanding of their experience (see Lievore 2003).

While fear of reprisal by the male partner can be a deterrent to reporting, the desire for protection from the offender has been found in some cases to encourage those who are fearful to report (Felson et al. 2002). Other reasons to approach the police include (Lievore 2003, 2005):

- a belief that it is a serious offence and should be reported
- to ensure safety and future protection from the offender
- to prevent the offender from repeating the offence to her or others
- to hold the offender responsible for his/her actions
- retribution
- to get help
- to regain a sense of control
- to gain compensation

Results of the IVAWS: Reporting Violent Victimisation to the Police

The results of the IVAWS confirm that only a minority of cases of violence against women are reported to the police. In all countries less than one-third of women reported to police, regardless of the victim's relationship to the perpetrator. The highest reporting rate is among Polish women victimised by a previous partner where one-third reported the most recent incident to the police (Fig. 6.1). The reporting rate for current partner violence is also higher in Poland (28%) than in other countries. Only in Poland did more than 20% of victims of intimate partner violence report the incident to the police.

Secondly, the findings show that in most of the surveyed countries, women are more likely to report stranger violence than partner violence to the police.

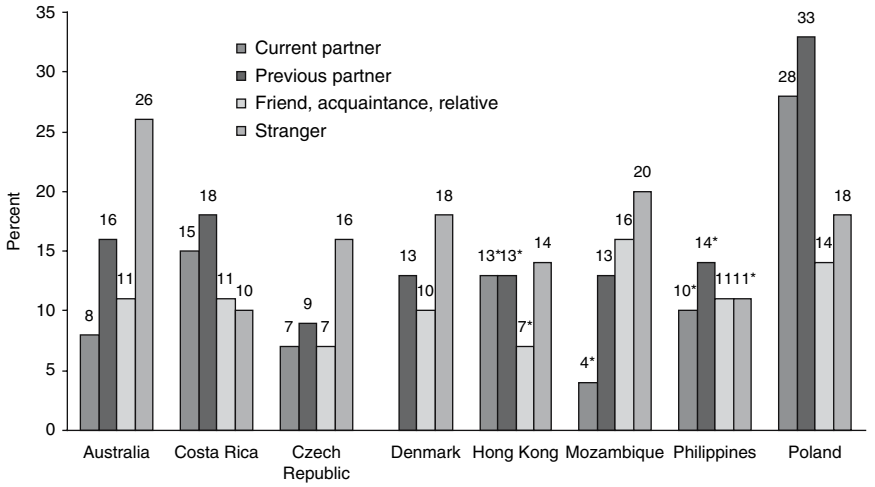


Fig. 6.1 Percentage of victims who reported to the police by perpetrators' relationship to the victim
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample count for current partners in Denmark was less than 5.

One-quarter of victims of stranger violence in Australia and one-fifth of those in Mozambique reported to the police. However, in Costa Rica, the Philippines and Poland the reverse is true: women are most likely to have reported violence by a previous partner. There is no clear pattern for which type of perpetrator is least likely to be reported. Violence least likely to be reported in Australia, Denmark, Mozambique and the Philippines is that perpetrated by current partners, while Costa Rican women are least likely to report violence by a stranger or man known to them. (See Appendix III for percentages reported for all partner violence and all non-partner violence).

The IVAWS supports the results of other studies that show that victims of intimate partner violence are more likely to report incidents committed in previous relationships than those involving current partners. This may reflect the greater seriousness of violence that occurs in relationships that have ended, or the fact that reporting to the police can be the precursor to leaving a violent relationship, or a combination of these factors.

When looking at the difference between reporting physical and sexual violence, generally speaking, women are more likely to report physical assaults and more likely to report physical assaults by non-partners. In all but one country, physical assaults involving non-partners were reported more often than sexual assaults or physical violence involving partners (Fig. 6.2). The exception is Poland where victims of sexual violence perpetrated by a partner had the highest reporting rate, higher than any other country and any other type of assault. Women in Costa Rica and Demark were also more likely to report sexual assault by partners compared to sexual assaults perpetrated by other men. Readers should recall that in the questionnaire, victims are asked to comment on the most recent incident regarding details about reporting to police, and this may be one of many incidents in an ongoing

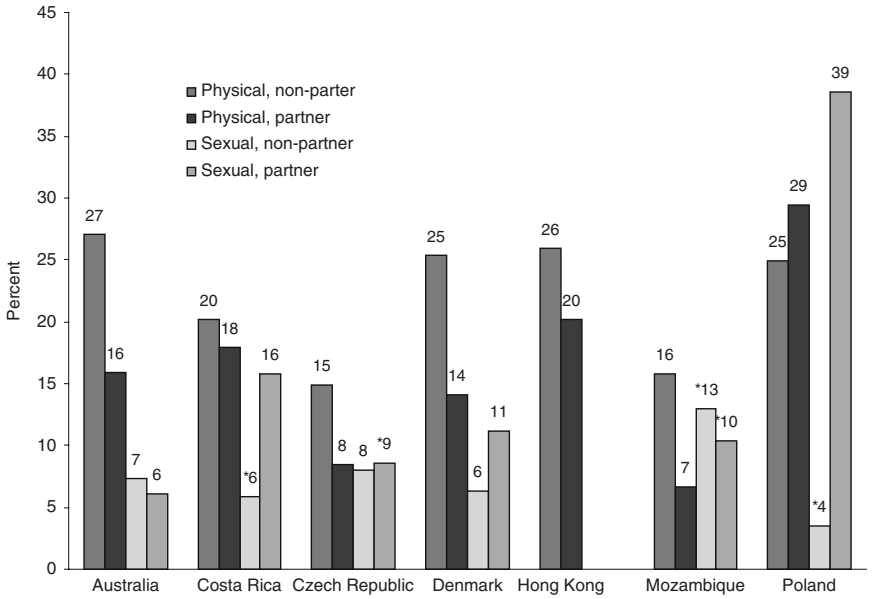


Fig. 6.2 Percentage of victims who reported to the police by type of violence and relationship
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts for sexual assault by partners and non-partners in Hong Kong and for all categories in the Philippines were less than 5.

violent relationship, compared with the situation for non-partner violence which more often involves discrete incidents.

Women's perceptions that the assault was "serious" for them are not always followed by a decision to report the incident to the police. Even though a woman may consider that the incident and its impact on her and others in her life are serious, other factors may influence her to look in directions other than the police for help with what she needs to cope with the situation. The vast majority of victims who considered the incident of partner violence to be serious did not report to the police. Only between 9% (in Mozambique) and 35% of victims (in Poland) who thought their experience of violence had been serious sought help from the police (Fig. 6.3). Thus the vast majority of victims who had serious consequences resulting from violence nonetheless did not seek help from the police.

Similar results are shown in the case of violence perpetrated by men other than intimate partners whereby very small percentages of women who considered the assault to be serious sought assistance from the police. For victims of non-partner violence, between 12% in Costa Rica and one-in-five in other countries who considered the incident to be serious approached the police for help (Fig. 6.4). Comparing victims of partner and non-partner violence, reporting of an incident of partner violence that the victim considered serious for her is higher in Costa Rica, Hong Kong and Poland while in the remaining countries reporting is higher for non-partner violence.

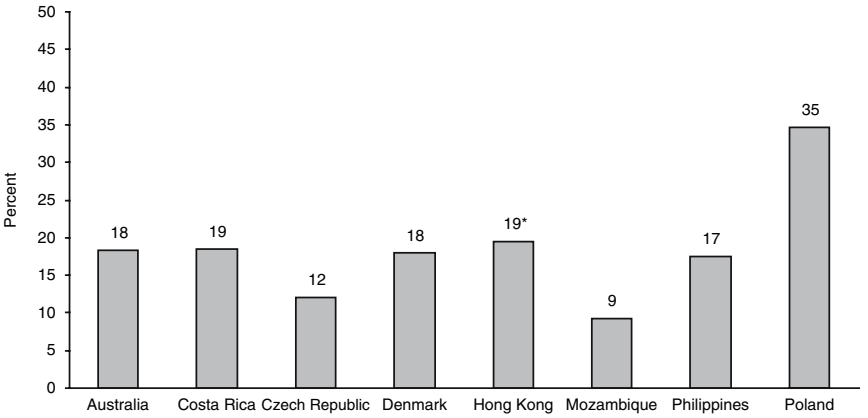


Fig. 6.3 Percentage of victims who perceived the incident to be serious who reported partner violence to the police

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

It was shown in Chapter 3 that female victims of male violence are often unsure about whether to label their experience as a crime. This confusion contributes to their reluctance to seek help from the police (Lievore 2003, 2005). It might be expected, therefore, that women who label the incident a crime would be very likely to bring it forward to the criminal justice system to have it dealt with there. Results of the IVAWS show that women who considered assaults committed by intimate partners to be criminal acts reported to the police in higher proportions compared with women who considered these acts to be wrong but not a crime, or just something that happens (Fig. 6.5). However, even among those who considered their experience of intimate partner violence to constitute a crime, only between 23%

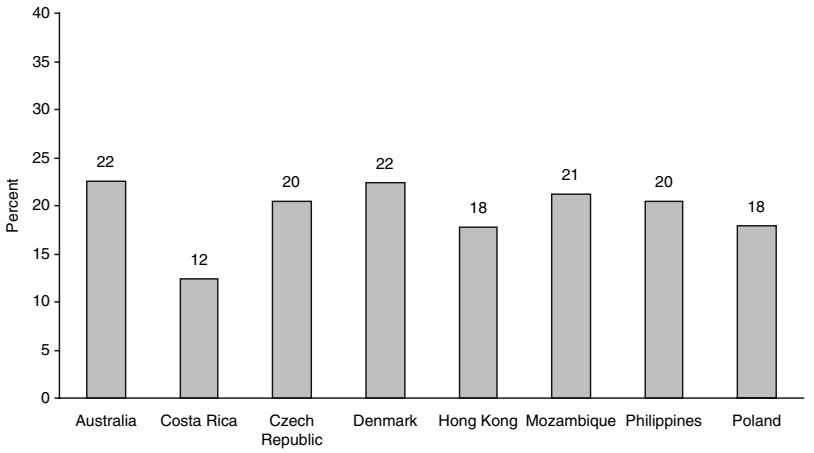


Fig. 6.4 Percentage of victims who perceived the incident to be serious who reported non-partner violence to the police

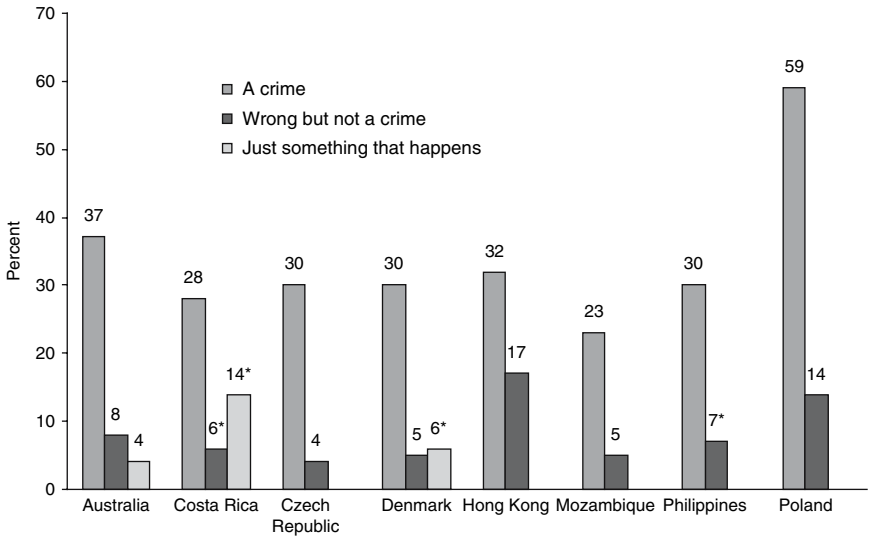


Fig. 6.5 Percentage of victims who reported partner violence according to perceptions of whether the incident constituted a crime

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for 'something that just happens' in the Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland were less than 5.

and 37% sought help from the police in most of the surveyed countries. Poland is the exception, where more than half of those who considered it a crime reported the incident to the police.

A similar pattern is shown for reporting of assaults perpetrated by men other than intimate partners. In these instances, the majority of women in all countries did not seek help from the police, including those who considered the assault to fall within the legal definition of a crime (Fig. 6.6). In all countries with the exception of Costa Rica, Hong Kong and Poland, reporting of non-partner violence in instances where the woman considered her experience a crime is higher than for partner violence.

Sustaining injuries during an assault by an intimate partner raises the likelihood that the victim will seek help from the police; however, a majority of injured women did not report to the police. In all countries, less than one-half of injured women sought help from the police and in most countries the figure was one-quarter or less (Fig. 6.7). In all countries, with the exception of Costa Rica and Poland, injured women approached the police in cases of non-partner violence more often than was the case for partner violence (Fig. 6.8). Between 21% (in the Philippines) and 49% (in Mozambique) of women injured in an incident of non-partner violence reported to the police. Most assaulted women, even those who suffer physical injuries, don't see the criminal justice system as able to offer a resolution or an effective response to the violence.

One of the most important reasons women have for reporting intimate partner violence to the police is to stop the violence and receive protection, rather than to have their partners arrested or punished (Johnson 2006; Lahti 2001). Despite the

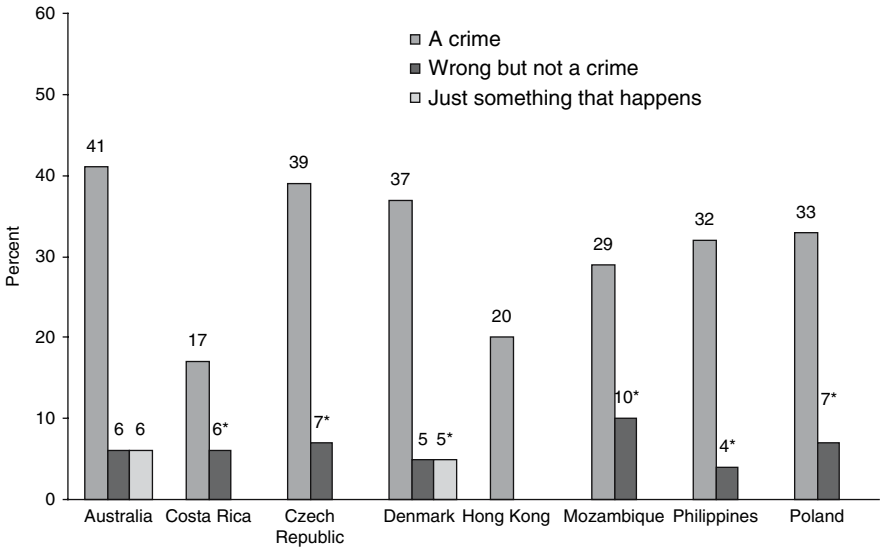


Fig. 6.6 Percentage of victims who reported non-partner violence according to perceptions of whether the incident constituted a crime

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for 'something that just happens' in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland, and for 'wrong but not a crime' in Hong Kong were less than 5.

fear of death or serious bodily harm, among those women who considered their life was in danger during an assault by an intimate partner, only one-third or fewer sought protection from the police (Fig. 6.9). The exception again was Poland, where the figure who reported to the police was 42%. Clearly, other factors—personal circumstances, perceptions of the effectiveness of the police in stopping partner violence, access to the police, fear of engagement with the criminal justice system,

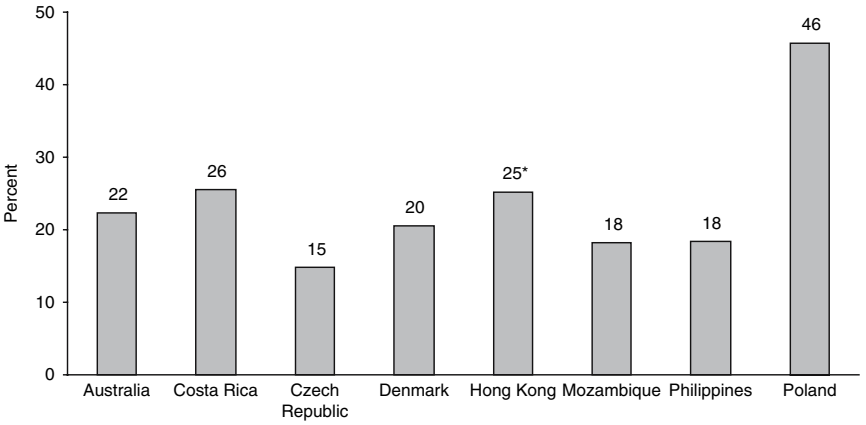


Fig. 6.7 Percentage of injured victims who reported partner violence to the police

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

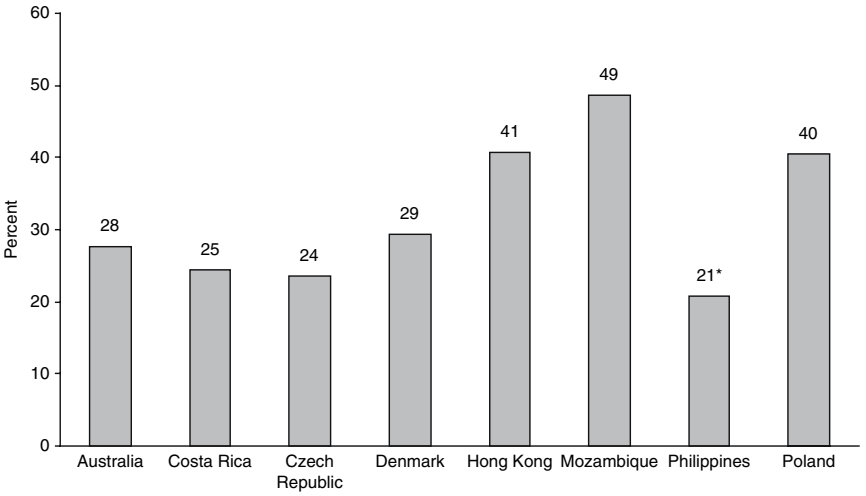


Fig. 6.8 Percentage of injured victims who reported non-partner violence to the police
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

not wanting the partner to be charged and possibly convicted—override women's needs for immediate protection and safety in a majority if cases of potentially life-threatening violence.

In cases of non-partner violence, higher percentages of women reported to the police if they feared for their lives compared with women who did not have this perception, but as with victims of partner violence, this was a minority of cases

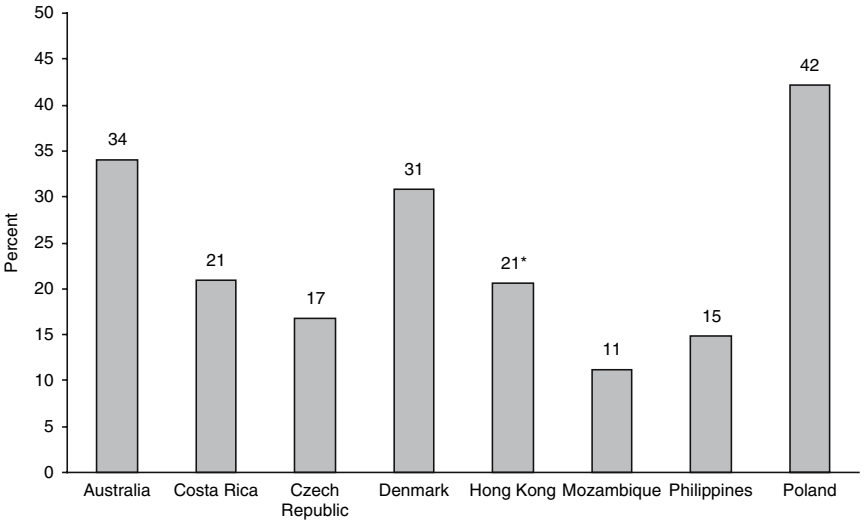


Fig. 6.9 Percentage of victims who feared their lives were in danger who reported partner violence to the police
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

in all countries. Between 16% of women (in Costa Rica) and 44% (in Australia) who considered their life in danger during the incident sought help from the police (Fig. 6.10). Others sought help from elsewhere or received no assistance at all for reasons personal to themselves. With the exception of Costa Rica and Poland, women who feared their lives were in danger in a situation of violence were less likely to report when the situation involved an intimate partner compared to when the incident involved a man other than a partner.

The findings of the IVAWS suggest that for both intimate partner violence and violence perpetrated by other men, the perceived severity of the assault, the consequences for victims in terms of physical injury and victims' perceptions that the incident constituted a crime, all influence victims' decisions to seek help from the police. Fugate et al. (2005) propose that in intimate partner situations there is a threshold of violence, after which either the injuries or the situation itself become so serious that the victim seeks formal help. However, this threshold varies among individuals and is personally determined. One victim may reach her threshold sooner than someone else due to other circumstances or experiences in her life. Societal attitudes regarding what constitutes a crime worthy of police intervention also influence this threshold: one study shows that women who are assaulted by strangers and those who are injured are more likely to approach formal help than women who are assaulted by an intimate partner and those who do not have signs of injury (Ullman & Filipas 2001). The IVAWS findings suggest that women are generally more likely to report stranger violence, physical violence by men other than partners, and incidents that have a serious impact on them or that they consider to constitute a criminal act.

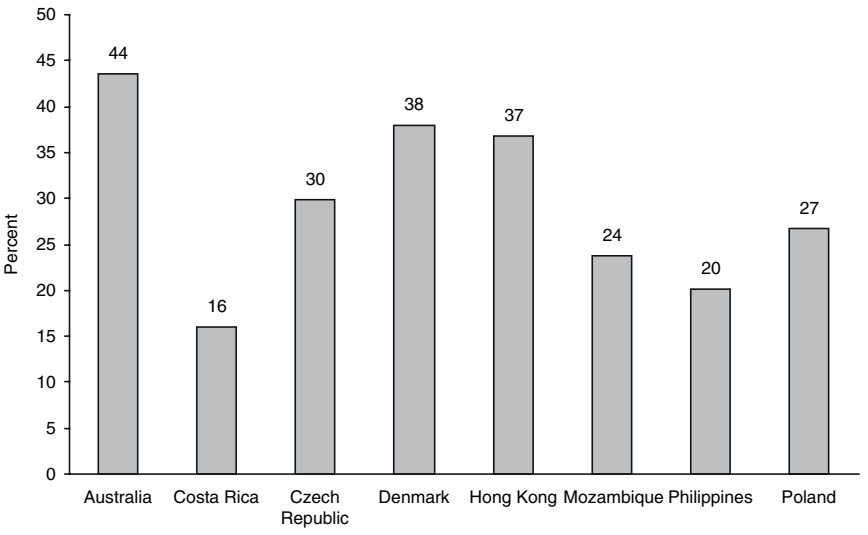


Fig. 6.10 Percentage of victims who feared their lives were in danger who reported non-partner violence to the police

Attrition Through the Criminal Justice System

Once a victim reports her experiences to the police, it is not automatic that her experience will in fact be recorded and followed up as a crime. This process is influenced by a number of factors other than a victim's willingness to prosecute. These factors include: how violent crime is defined in legislation, whether individual police officers consider the incident reported to them to fit the criminal code definition of a crime, personal biases of individual police officers and prosecutors as to what constitutes a "legitimate" victim of sexual violence or intimate partner violence deserving of serious attention, societal level biases against female victims, policies of local police and prosecutors, and perceptions of the likelihood of a successful prosecution. Although this process seems on the surface to be straightforward, i.e., either a crime has occurred or not which is then recorded accordingly, cases involving violence against women are not always dealt with in a straightforward manner (see Lundberg 2001).

Attrition refers to the sifting out of cases as they move through the criminal justice system from reporting to the police, investigating the case and laying a charge against a suspect, prosecuting an offender, arriving at a conviction and passing sentence. Altogether, Kelly et al. (2005) identify six points of attrition: the victim's decision to report to the police, the police's judgment of no evidence or of a false allegation, insufficient evidence, early withdrawal, decision-making by the prosecutor, and attrition at the court and trial stage (see also Lees 1996).

Most attrition within the criminal justice system occurs at a very early stage. A majority of victims do not report to the police which ensure that they never enter the criminal justice system. In many jurisdictions less than half of all reported cases are referred to prosecution (Du Mont & Myhr 2000; Kainulainen 2004; Kelly 2001) and in some instances, the figure is less than one-quarter (Frazier & Haney 1996). Kelly (2001) argues that criminal justice practitioners at the various levels of the criminal justice system function as gatekeepers, not allowing "weak" cases to enter the next level. The police act as the main controller of entry as they are usually the first contact with the criminal justice system. The police act as a filter, deciding if a case is serious enough to be recorded and investigated. If not, the police may categorize it as a disturbance rather than crime or not record it at all in official statistics (known as "no-criming" in the UK and "unfounding" in Canada) (Lievore 2003). In Canada in year 2000, over 4,700 cases of sexual assault that were reported to the police were classified as "unfounded", a figure which amounts to 16% of all sexual assaults reported to police, double the percentage of all physical assaults which were treated in the same manner (Roberts et al. 2003). Lea et al. (2003) find that in 10% of rape cases in their study in the UK, police claimed that the victim had made a false allegation. This conclusion was frequently based on personal judgment about the emotional instability of the victim, a trait that is a common consequence of the experience of rape rather than a cause of a malicious complaint.

A study of how sexual assault cases proceed to prosecution in Chicago shows that although the victim's decision is a crucial factor in the official decision to invoke the criminal law in these cases, police and prosecutors strongly influence the decision of victims to go forward (Kersetter & Van Winkle 1990; Kersetter 1990).

For stranger violence, the decision whether or not to prosecute is influenced primarily by evidentiary strength and predictions about whether the case will succeed in court. Evidentiary strength includes evidence of verbal or physical resistance, the presence of weapons, the presence of witnesses, the destruction of evidence, and whether the victim violated traditional norms of acceptable female behaviour. In the case of acquaintance rape, the victim was seldom discouraged from prosecuting if an accused was apprehended by the police and held in custody, thus reducing the need for further effort on the part of police to investigate the case. Substantial attrition also takes place between prosecution and eventual conviction. In the United Kingdom, research on the attrition rate in reported rape cases shows that only 6% to 19% of reported cases lead to a conviction for rape (Kelly 2001) while a Canadian study shows a 17% conviction rate for sexual assault (Du Mont & Myhr 2000).

Results of the IVAWS confirm that while only a minority of cases of violence against women are ever reported to the police, an even smaller share of cases result in charges laid against a perpetrator, and in only a small fraction of cases is there a conviction. While women are more likely to report a case of non-partner violence than partner violence, with the exception of Costa Rica and Poland (as well as Hong Kong, where the percentage of reporting is the same for partner and non-partner violence), there is very little difference in the percentage of cases resulting in charges against perpetrators of partner violence or violence perpetrated by other men. The likelihood of charges being laid against a perpetrator is between 1% and 7% of all victimisation incidents (Fig. 6.11). The exception was in Poland where there was a higher than average reporting rate of 31% for partner violence and charges were laid in almost one-third of these (10% of cases). The likelihood that cases of partner or non-partner violence will result in a conviction is just 1% to 5% in all countries, except for Poland where 10% of cases of partner violence–where reporting was also highest – ended up in a conviction.

Looking at reporting and charge rates related to sexual and physical violence separately, in situations of violence by non-partners, Fig. 6.12 shows that, in all countries, physical violence by non-partners is reported at a higher rate than sexual violence. The range was between 15% and 27% for physical assaults and 4% and 13% for sexual assaults. The differences in the percentage of physical and sexual violence cases resulting in a charge were not as great. Charges were laid in less than 6% of physical and sexual assaults in all countries. There were too few convictions in the data to be able to present these for physical and sexual assaults separately. (See Appendix III for percentages of cases reported and perpetrators charged and convicted for all categories of non-partner violence combined).

Another useful way to look at attrition through the criminal justice system is to compare the percentage of cases that were reported to the police that result in charges laid, and the percentage of cases with charges that resulted in a conviction.

Figure 6.13 shows that police tended to lay charges against non-partners more often than against partners in cases that were reported to them. However, in Denmark and Mozambique there was no difference or a very small difference and in Poland charges were more often laid against violent partners. Looking at convictions as a percentage of all cases where charges were laid, which assesses the extent to which courts are successfully prosecuting cases of violence against women that

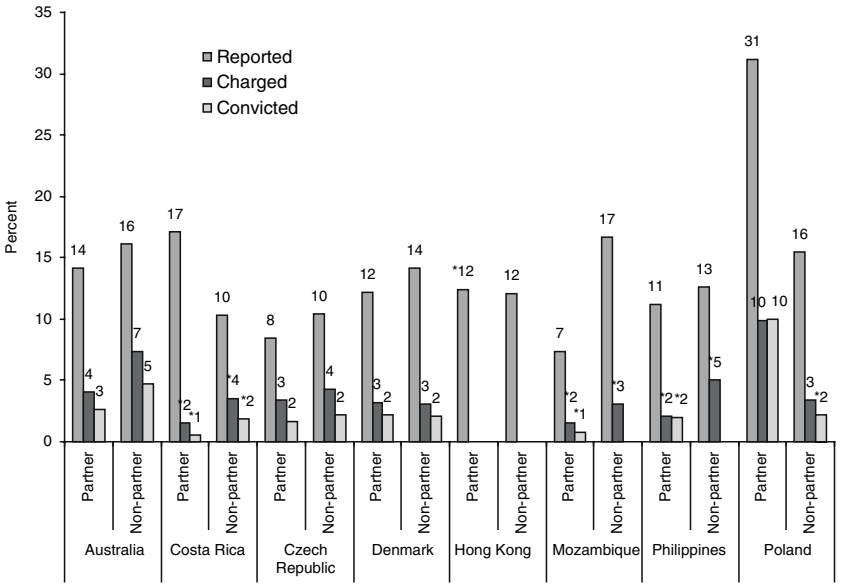


Fig. 6.11 Attrition for violence perpetrated by partners and non-partners: percentage of cases reported to the police, percentage with charges laid and percentage with convictions calculated as a percentage of all victimised women

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for some categories were less than 5 in Hong Kong, Mozambique, and the Philippines.

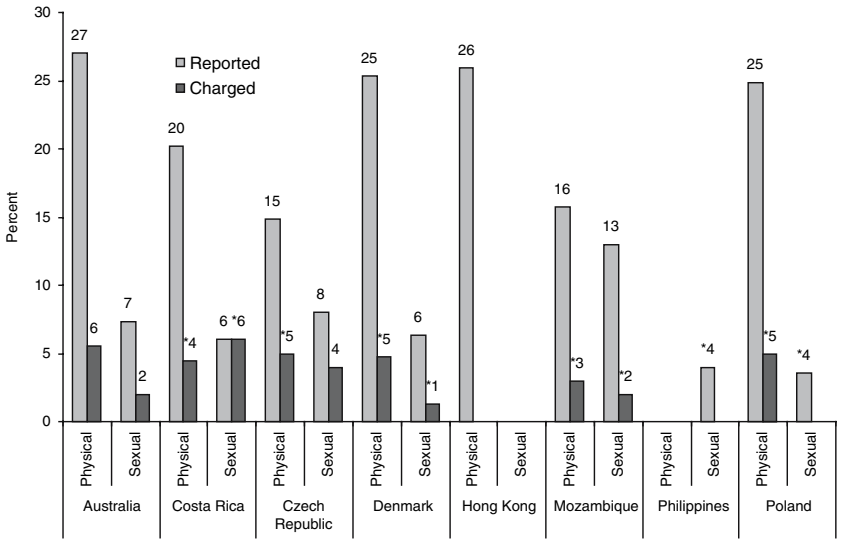


Fig. 6.12 Attrition for physical and sexual violence by non-partners: percentage of cases reported to the police and charges laid calculated as a percentage of all victimised women

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for some categories were less than 5 in Hong Kong, the Philippines and Poland.

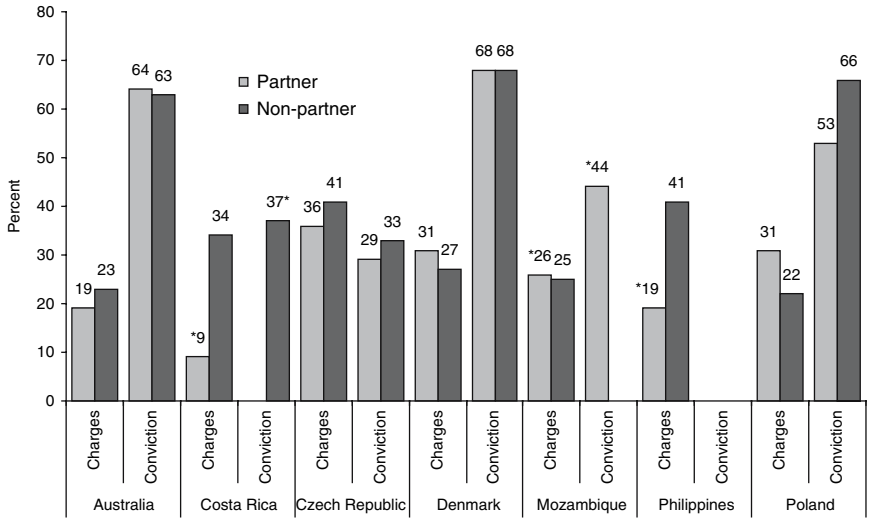


Fig. 6.13 Attrition: percentage of reported cases that resulted in charges laid and the percentage of cases with charges that resulted in a conviction (physical and sexual assaults combined)
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts for some categories were less than 5 in Costa Rica, Mozambique, and the Philippines. Sample counts were less than 5 in all categories in Hong Kong.

are brought before them, in some countries this was the majority of cases. Australia, Denmark and Poland had the highest conviction rates: perpetrators were convicted in between one-half and two-thirds of cases where charges were laid. The lowest convictions rates were shown in the Czech Republic where about one-in-three charges against partners and other men resulted in a conviction.

There are several factors, such as the severity of the violence, injuries, use of force and weapons used as well as evidentiary factors that influence how case progress through the criminal justice system. Lievore (2004) shows that in Australia, sexual assault cases are more likely to proceed from prosecution to trial and sentencing if the victim was injured, if she expressly did not consent, if the assault was severe, if there is additional evidence linking the defendant to the assault, if the defendant used force, if the defendant was non-Caucasian, and if the defendant was a stranger. An American study of rape survivors identifies similar factors that are associated with successful prosecution: white victims, victims of stranger violence, victims who were physically injured, and rape involving weapons were more likely to have their cases prosecuted than cases involving minority victims, victims of non-stranger rape, victims who sustained no injuries, and assaults involving no weapons (Campbell et al. 2001). However, other studies have come to different conclusions. Du Mont & Myhr (2000) in a Canadian study found that women sexually assaulted by intimate partners or acquaintances were more likely to see their case end up in a charge. In a British study, Lea et al. (2003) found that the conviction rate for rape was higher for those perpetrated by a partner or male relative than for other types of perpetrators. Differences in the results of these studies may be due to different

legal systems in these countries, the magnitude of court backlogs which may result in a higher level of case dismissals at certain points throughout the criminal justice process, societal attitudes toward sexual violence which exert pressure on police and prosecutors to prioritize certain types of cases, the possibilities and mechanisms for cases to be withdrawn during the criminal justice process, and relatively small samples in each study.

Once violent incidents are reported to police, their decisions to proceed with the laying of a charge depends first on being able to identify a suspect, which is more straightforward in the case of intimate partner violence than it might be in the case of violence perpetrated by other men, especially strangers. The seriousness of the assault is one factor that enters into their decision of whether to proceed with laying charges once a perpetrator has been identified, and may also enter into the decision to actively investigate the case and search for a suspect. In cases of partner violence, a case where the victim was injured is more likely to end up in a charge in most countries. The exception is Mozambique, where non-injured victims of partner violence saw their case result in a charge more than twice as often as an injured victim (see Fig. 6.14).

As shown in Fig. 6.15, there are more cases of non-partner violence ending up in a charge among victims who were injured in Australia, the Czech Republic and Poland. In Costa Rica and Denmark this is not the case: incidents that did not result in physical injury to victims were more likely to have charges laid. Clearly, there are other factors police consider in pursuing a case, such as the circumstances of the incident, the ethnic background and socio-economic status of both the victim and the suspect, personal biases, and perceived likelihood of a successful prosecution.

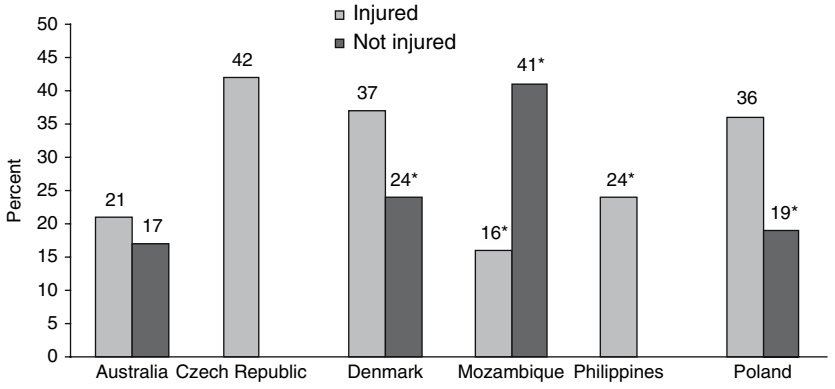


Fig. 6.14 Percentage of partner violence cases where charges were laid according to whether victims were physically injured

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for some categories were less than 5 in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Hong Kong and the Philippines.

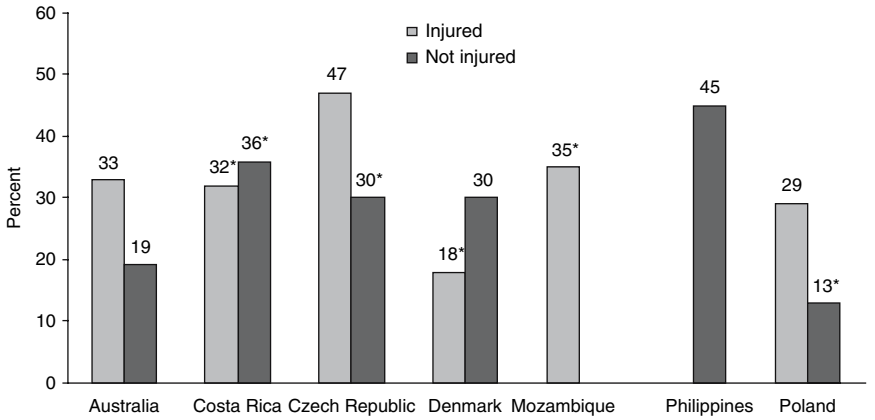


Fig. 6.15 Percentage of non-partner violence cases where charges were laid according to whether victims were physically injured

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for some categories were less than 5 in Mozambique and the Philippines. Sample counts were less than 5 in all categories in Hong Kong.

Satisfaction with the Criminal Justice System

The research literature suggests that for victims of rape, satisfaction with the criminal justice system, and most notably the police, is linked to feeling that they were believed and their experience validated, and they were taken seriously, cared for and supported (Jordan 2001, see also Fleury 2002). It is also important that victims are reassured that the responsibility for the assault rests with the perpetrator and that he is held accountable (Kainulainen 2004). Negative experiences of, and secondary victimisation by, the criminal justice system stem from lack of empathy and biased attitudes, as well as from a perceived lack of control and lack of knowledge about decisions taken by criminal justice personnel (Campbell et al. 2001; Fleury 2002; Jordan 2001).

Satisfaction with the criminal justice system is also related to the outcome of the case. Victims tend to be more satisfied with the criminal justice system if their case is prosecuted (Campbell et al. 2001; Jordan 2001) or ends in a conviction (Fleury 2002). Frazier & Haney (1996) found that while victims are generally satisfied with individual police detectives, they are not as positive towards the legal system in general. Their positive attitudes towards police are related to feeling that police detectives perceive them as credible and act respectfully towards them. Victims whose cases resulted in charges laid against a perpetrator had more positive attitudes toward police investigators than when charges were not laid, but these positive feelings did not translate to a general sense of satisfaction with the criminal justice system.

Women who were most satisfied with the police were victims of intimate partner violence in the Philippines where over 90% said they were satisfied with the

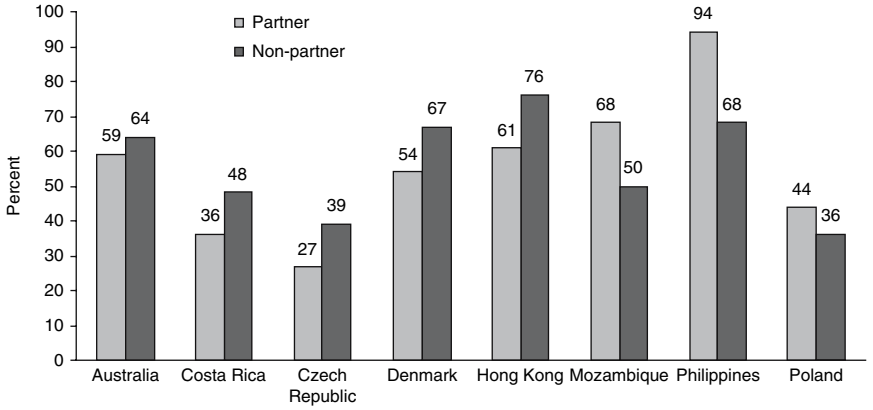


Fig. 6.16 Percentage of victims who were satisfied with the police response

way the police responded (Fig. 6.16). Overall, women in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic and Poland who sought help from the police were least likely to express satisfaction with the way the police responded. Women in Poland were most likely to report all types of violence to the police but evidently this is not due to a higher level of satisfaction with the service provided by the police. Over one-half of all women in Australia, Denmark, Hong Kong and Mozambique expressed satisfaction with the police. There is no definite pattern with respect to the victim's relationship to the perpetrator. In some countries, such as Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland victims were more likely to be satisfied with the police response in cases of partner violence, and in others, such as Australia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Hong Kong victims of non-partner violence expressed higher levels of satisfaction.

Similar to previous studies, results of the IVAWS show that satisfaction with the police response is related to the outcome of the case. In cases involving intimate partners and in those involving men other than intimate partners, victims tended to view the police in a more positive light when charges were laid against a perpetrator (Fig. 6.17). The IVAWS did not inquire how women defined satisfaction with the police, but the research literature shows that satisfaction is related to being believed and taken seriously by the police. Women who call the police want the police to provide at least immediate services and adequate legal responses (Johnson 1990). In a national partner violence survey in Canada, women were most likely to say that the reason they reported to the police was to receive protection and put an end to the violence (88%) and were less likely to report in order to have the offender arrested or punished (43%) (Johnson 2006; see also Lewis et al. 2000; Lahti 2001). Dissatisfaction can therefore be related to the fact that police laid charges against the woman's partner if that was not how the victim wished to proceed at that time.

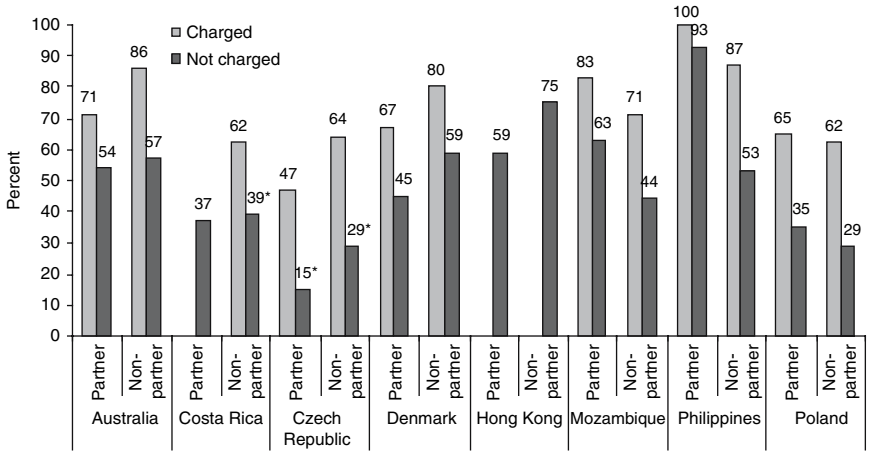


Fig. 6.17 Percentage of victims who were satisfied with the police response by whether charges were laid

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts for some categories were less than 5 for some categories in Costa Rica and Hong Kong.

Reasons for Not Reporting to the Police

The IVAWS questionnaire investigated women's reasons for not reporting violent victimisation to the police, listing eleven response categories in addition to an open-ended option.[11]

The available literature cited earlier suggests that women are discouraged from reporting due to personal and societal barriers, lack of trust in or fear of secondary victimisation by the criminal justice system, and sometimes logistical barriers. While disclosure of these experiences is a very personal decision, which depends on the personal resources and coping strategies of individual women, other factors, such as the nature and severity of the assaults and the support structures available to victims exert an important influence on victims' decision-making.

The 1993 Canadian Violence Against Women Survey shows that, although there were large differences in the percentages of victims of intimate partner violence and sexual violence who reported these crimes to the police (26% compared with 6%). there were no major differences between victims of partner violence and stranger violence in why they did not report. The most common reasons for not reporting in both categories were: the incident was considered by the victim to be minor; the victim did not want help from the police; and the victim believed that the police could not do anything about it (Gartner & Macmillan 1995).

The IVAWS shows that for violence perpetrated by an intimate partner, the most common reasons for not reporting to the police in all countries were either that the

[11] For purposes of analysis, some of the response categories have been grouped together. Responses do not add to 100% because respondents could give more than one reason for not reporting to police.

victim dealt with it herself (most common reason in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland), or that the incident was considered to be not serious enough to involve the police (most common reason in Australia, Denmark and Hong Kong) (Table 6.1). Czech, Filipino and Polish women list shame more often than women in other countries as a reason for not reporting. Czech and Polish women are also more likely to state that fear of what the offender might do in retaliation, as well as the belief that the police would not do anything, prevented them from seeking help from the police. Not wanting to have the offender arrested was given a reason for not reporting partner violence by 16% of victims in the Czech Republic

For violence perpetrated by a non-partner, the most common reasons for not reporting are again that the victim dealt with it herself or that it was not serious enough to involve the criminal justice system (for Hong Kong the most common reason was that the woman reported it to someone else, or that it was part of her job). Shame is listed by 41% of Czech women and 36% of women in the Philippines as a deterrent for reporting, while 14% of women in Mozambique and almost one-fifth of Czech women say that fear of possible retaliation prevented them from approaching the police. The high percentage of women who say they reported to someone else or that the violence was part of their job reflects that some non-partner violence is experienced while working and was considered part of the job and not appropriate for intervention by the criminal justice system.

Use of Other Services and Talking to Others

The previous sections have looked at to what extent women approached the police for help. However, the police are not the only agency that offers assistance to female victims of violence. Victimised women in the IVAWS were asked if they contacted a specialised agency that was set up to help women with similar experiences. Examples given were emergency housing such as shelters or refuges, crisis centres and crisis lines, other counsellors, women's centres and community centres. Respondents could also specify others that they contacted.

A majority of women who were victimised by intimate partners or other men did not seek support from such an agency. When women did contact an agency, in most countries (with the exception of Denmark and the Philippines) there was a greater tendency for women to do so in cases of partner violence as compared to non-partner violence. This may reflect the greater availability of specialised services to respond to intimate partner assault in some countries compared to other forms of violence (Fig. 6.18). Women in Mozambique reported contacting an agency more often than women in any other country: 46% of women assaulted by intimate partners in Mozambique sought the support of an agency compared with 22% in the Philippines and less than 20% in all other countries. The percentage of Mozambican women who contacted agencies for help in dealing with non-partner violence was slightly higher than for women in the Philippines and considerably higher compared to women in other countries.

Table 6.1 Reasons for not reporting to the police by relationship to perpetrator (percentages)

		Dealt with it herself	Not serious enough	Police couldn't/ wouldn't do anything, would not be believed	Shame/didn't want anyone to know	Fear of the offender	Didn't want offender arrested	Reported to someone else/part of job/other
Australia	Partner	27	42	7	14	7	4	15
	Non-partner	24	42	11	12	4	2	24
Costa Rica	Partner	39	25	13	21	19	6*	22
	Non-partner	24	30	21	10	10	–	24
Czech Republic	Partner	60	27	31	45	28	16	6
	Non-partner	53	42	33	41	19	7	8
Denmark	Partner	37	42	7	10	9	4	12
	Non-partner	30	50	9	6	3	1	19
Hong Kong	Partner	24	54	–	7*	–	5*	24
	Non-partner	10	39	13	9	–	–	42
Mozambique	Partner	51	13	4*	14	7*	8	3*
	Non-partner	37	13	7*	13	14	–	17
Philippines	Partner	54	18	5*	29	5*	4*	4*
	Non-partner	44	9	–	36	4*	7	6*
Poland	Partner	58	34	38	42	22	10	6*
	Non-partner	36	48	31	28	11	4	13

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample counts were less than 5 for some response categories in Costa Rica, Hong Kong, Mozambique and the Philippines.

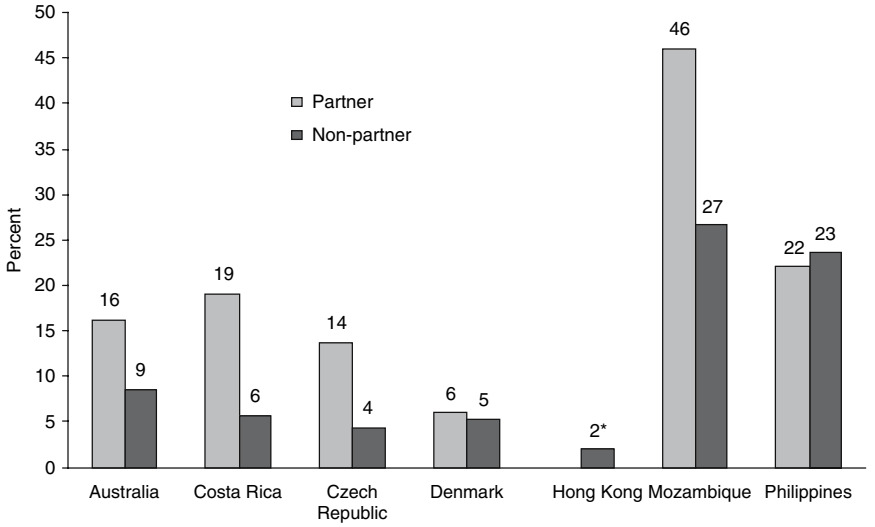


Fig. 6.18 Percentage of victims who contacted an agency for help
*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample count for partners in Hong Kong is less than 5.

In all countries, and especially in rural and remote areas within countries, a woman's contacts in the aftermath of a violent assault will depend on the availability of services and proximity to her residence, the appropriateness of the services in her particular circumstance, and other informal supports who may actively encourage or discourage her involvement with community agencies. The woman's own perception of the incident, as well as feelings of shame, guilt, and fear, also influence her decision to seek assistance. While there are very few agencies specialised in dealing with violence against women in Mozambique (especially outside the main cities), women in this country may have been referring to community-based groups, women's organisations and community support mechanisms, such as religious and faith-based organisations. The fact that the majority of women in all countries did not seek the support of agencies to deal with the violence is in line with previous research (Johnson 1996; Mahoney 1999).

Two distinct patterns emerge in examining who women contact for support in dealing with the violence, apart from police. In Costa Rica, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland, family members and other relatives are more important for providing support (Fig. 6.19). Higher percentages of women in these countries spoke to family and relatives than to friends or neighbours or professionals. In Australia, the Czech Republic, and Denmark (and in Hong Kong in cases of non-partner violence), women are more likely to approach a friend, neighbour or co-worker. Women tend to approach friends and relatives for support more often than professionals in these countries. In Costa Rica, Mozambique, the Philippines and Poland, reliance on family and relatives is much higher than reliance on any other type of support.

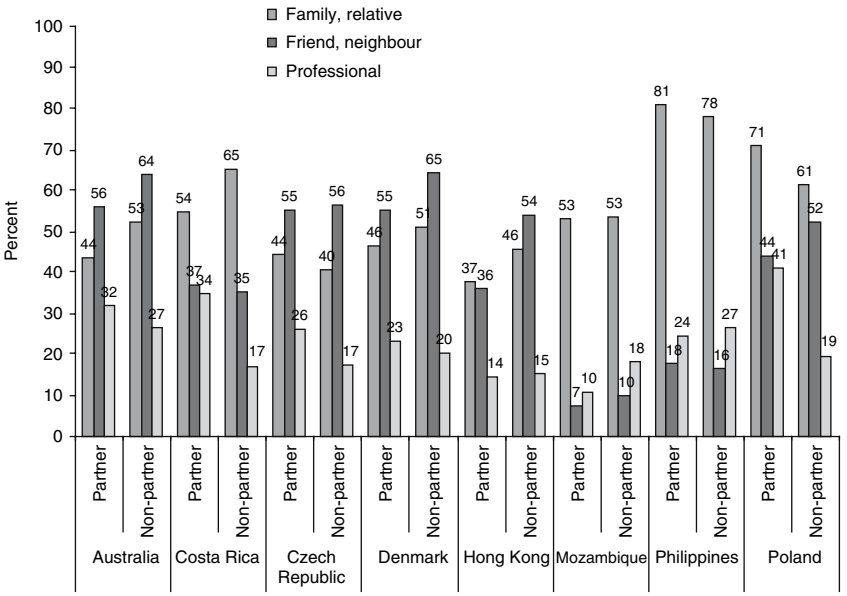


Fig. 6.19 Percentage of victims who talked to family/relative, friend/neighbour/co-worker or professional

Professional includes police or other judicial authorities/agencies, and doctor, nurse, psychologist or psychiatrist.

With regard to differences between physical and sexual violence in incidents of non-partner violence, women seem to be more comfortable approaching a family member or relative than a friend in cases of physical violence. For physical violence, women in Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Mozambique and Poland prefer family over friends, while women in Australia, Denmark and Hong Kong rely more often on friends (Fig. 6.20). For sexual violence, the picture is less clear with women in Australia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Hong Kong and Poland preferring friends over family and women in Costa Rica, Mozambique and the Philippines preferring to talk to family members. This difference in whom women prefer to talk to in the various countries may reflect not only the availability of services, but also the different roles of family and friends in different societies and cultural contexts and the issues women are prepared to discuss with family compared with friends.

The severity of the incident is less important in determining whether the victim turns to informal means of support (family or friends) than in determining whether the victim decides to use formal means of support. The percentage of women who turned to professionals for assistance was more than twice as high among respondents who perceived their lives had been in danger during the assault, who were injured, who considered it serious and perceived it to be a crime, compared with those who considered the assault to be less serious in these ways (Table 6.2). While women who considered the incident severe (based on these four indicators) were more likely to talk to informal means of support (family and friends) than those who

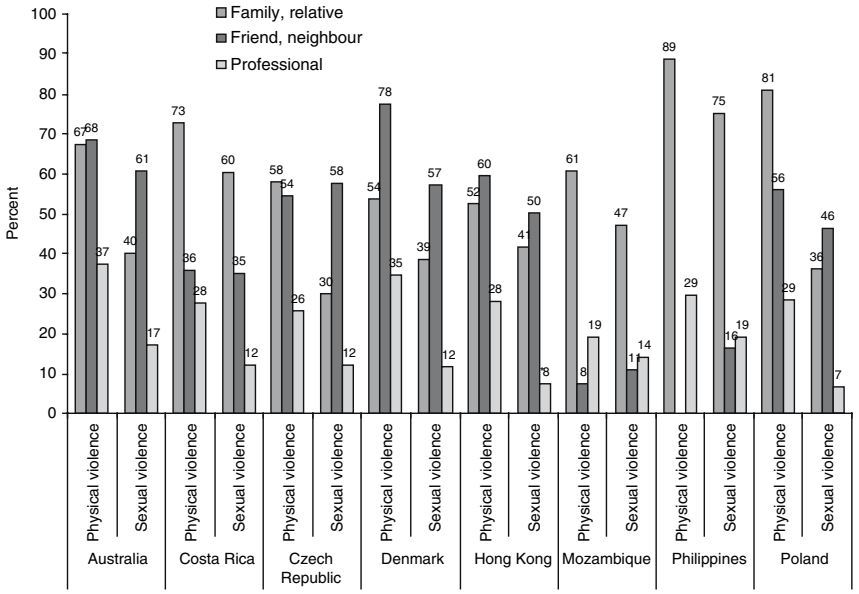


Fig. 6.20 Percentage of respondents by whom they talked to about the most recent non-partner incident (sexual and physical violence)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

Sample count for some categories in Mozambique and the Philippines is less than 5.

did not consider it severe, the difference in deciding to seek informal support is much less influenced by severity than the decision to seek formal support. The results thus support the common understanding that victimised women talk to family or friends before assaults become severe, while they tend to seek professional assistance once the situation is serious or life-threatening and it becomes clear that what is going on warrants the intervention of formal services.

While a majority of all women talk to someone about their experiences of violence, substantial proportions of women keep the ordeal to themselves. Even though women in Mozambique showed the highest percentages who contacted an agency for help, they also (with the exception of current partner violence in Denmark) were the most likely not to have used any services, nor disclosed the experience to friends or family, nor reported to the police (Fig. 6.21). Almost half (48%) of women in Denmark and 43% of women in Mozambique did not tell anyone about the most recent incident of current partner violence. Generally speaking, women were more likely to remain silent about current partner violence than any other type of assaults, reflecting the more hidden nature of intimate partner violence. In the Czech Republic and Costa Rica, violence perpetrated by another known man was not disclosed to anyone in proportions similar to current partner assaults. In Poland, assaults by other known men were most likely to be kept secret. These findings illustrate the importance of confidential random surveys for estimating the prevalence and nature of violence against women in society. For substantial numbers of women who are affected by violence, their experiences were uncounted and their stories untold until

Table 6.2 Percentage of respondents by whom they talked to about non-partner violence, by indicators of the seriousness of the incident

			Family, relative	Friend, neighbour	Professional
Australia	Life in danger	Yes	68	71	57
		No	48	62	18
	Were you injured	Yes	62	72	43
		No	51	63	23
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	59	69	37
		No	41	55	9
	Was it a crime	A crime	68	72	53
		Wrong, but not a crime	45	67	17
		Something that happens	48	54	14
Costa Rica	Life in danger	Yes	64	34	22
		No	67	38	11
	Were you injured	Yes	75	36	35
		No	63	35	13
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	69	33	19
		No	52	43	11*
	Was it a crime	A crime	72	37	24
		Wrong, but not a crime	62	32	9*
		Something that happens	48	41	12*
Czech Republic	Life in danger	Yes	61	57	42
		No	30	58	4
	Were you injured	Yes	49	53	33
		No	37	59	11
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	54	60	31
		No	29	56	3*
	Was it a crime	A crime	58	63	51
		Wrong, but not a crime	50	55	15
		Something that happens	28	59	4*
Denmark	Life in danger	Yes	73	75	52
		No	48	63	15
	Were you injured	Yes	60	79	42
		No	50	63	18
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	65	73	34
		No	39	57	8
	Was it a crime	A crime	65	77	47
		Wrong, but not a crime	47	64	10
		Something that happens	41	49	9

(continued)

Table 6.2 (continued)

			Family, relative	Friend, neighbour	Professional
Hong Kong	Life in danger	Yes	65	55	37
		No	41	54	9
	Were you injured	Yes	43	76	41
		No	46	51	12
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	56	58	22
		No	37	51	9*
	Was it a crime	A crime	53	58	24
		Wrong, but not a crime	37	58	–
		Something that happens	45	47	9*
Mozambique	Life in danger	Yes	60	11	23
		No	41	8*	7*
	Were you injured	Yes	72	11	41
		No	48	10	11
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	57	11	22
		No	37	9*	–
	Was it a crime	A crime	65	9*	27
		Wrong, but not a crime	47	14	12*
		Something that happens	36	–	9*
Philippines	Life in danger	Yes	81	15	37
		No	77	17	15
	Were you injured	Yes	75	25	45
		No	79	14	22
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	75	20	37
		No	83	12*	13*
	Was it a crime	A crime	82	19	50
		Wrong, but not a crime	79	14	16
		Something that happens	77	11*	23*
Poland	Life in danger	Yes	77	62	30
		No	48	45	11
	Were you injured	Yes	79	67	44
		No	57	48	13
	Considered the incident serious	Yes	66	56	22
		No	34	31	–
	Was it a crime	A crime	68	67	37
		Wrong, but not a crime	64	46	11
		Something that happens	45	39	5*

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.

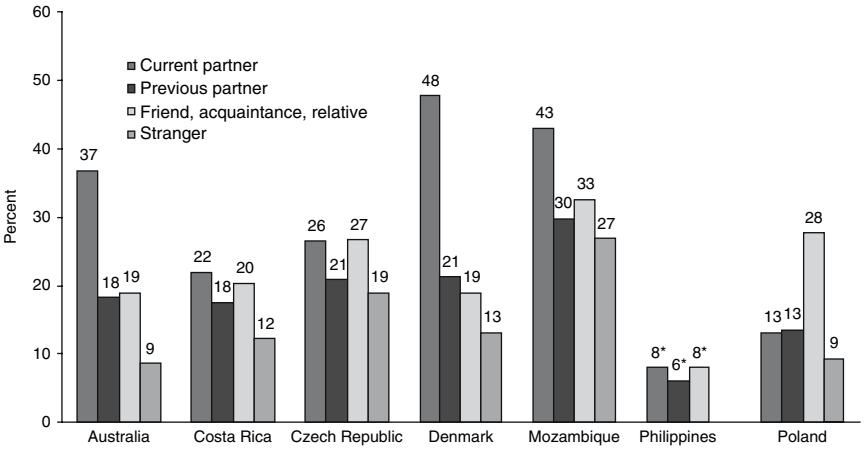


Fig. 6.21 Percentage of victims who did not talk to anyone by victim's relationship to the perpetrator

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50. Sample count for strangers in the Philippines is less than 5.

they disclosed them in a confidential interview to an IVAWS interviewer. These results help understand more clearly the very hidden nature of violence in a broad range of settings.

Reasons for not disclosing male violence to the police range from not considering it serious enough and worth reporting to being afraid of the perpetrator or ashamed of what happened. As shown in Table 6.3, women who consider the incident serious or a crime, who were injured or feared for their life, in most countries, are more likely to have disclosed to someone compared with women who did not consider the incident serious on these indicators. Women who considered the incident as just something that happens were those most likely to keep silent about the incident. The highest percentage of women who decided to remain silent, despite fearing for their lives, were in Hong Kong and Mozambique (about one-fifth of victims of partner and non-partner violence). Those most likely to keep their experience private despite being injured were in the Czech Republic (23% in non-partner violence). Women most likely to keep silent despite considering it serious were in Mozambique (25% in partner violence and 30% in non-partner assaults), and those most likely to remain quiet about the assault despite considering it a crime were in Hong Kong and Mozambique (one-in-five non-partner assaults).

The IVAWS shows that there are significant numbers of women who do not talk to anyone about the incident and keep their experiences private. These women constitute a crucial part of the hidden violence and indicate that it is critical that efforts are made to improve available services and ensure they are appropriate and accessible to women who have been victimised.

The majority of violent men do not receive any legal or therapeutic intervention (see Coulter et al. 1999), a fact that is confirmed by women responding to the IVAWS. According to their female partners, more men have sought professional

Table 6.3 Percentage of respondents who did not talk to anyone by indicators of the seriousness of the incident

		Feared for her life		Was injured		Incident serious		Considered the incident as . . .		
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	A crime	Wrong, but not a crime	Something that just happens
Australia	Non-partner	6	17	6	17	10	25	6	15	23
	Partner	10	28	14	28	15	45	9	21	35
Costa Rica	Non-partner	18	15	11*	18	15	23	16	16	23*
	Partner	14	26	13*	23	18	29	8*	30	19*
Czech Republic	Non-partner	12	29	23	24	16	32	10	22	26
	Partner	14	29	14	32	16	40	13	14	37
Denmark	Non-partner	–	18	6*	17	6	25	4	16	30
	Partner	6*	29	8	31	14	40	9	25	47
Hong Kong	Non-partner	14*	25	–	25	16	28	20	21*	25
	Partner	23*	45	19*	48	19*	60	–	24*	63
Mozambique	Non-partner	22	48	7*	38	25	52	21	34	52
	Partner	21	56	15	46	30	64	14	33	64
Philippines	Non-partner	6*	7*	–	6*	8*	7*	–	9*	10*
	Partner	5*	9*	8*	6*	6*	9*	–	8*	–
Poland	Non-partner	7	29	–	24	16	44	13	19	33
	Partner	9*	17	6*	20	12	30*	5*	16	28

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50.
Sample counts were less than 5 in some response categories.

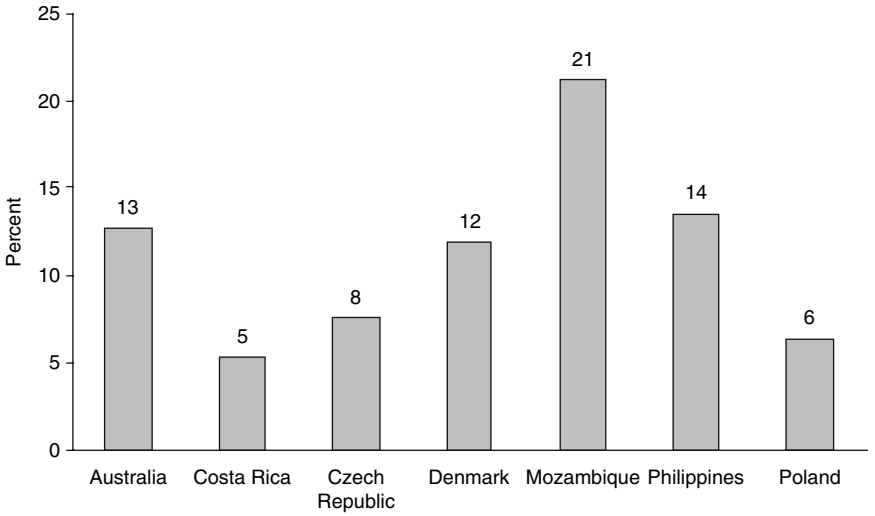


Fig. 6.22 Percentage of current violent intimate partners who received some form of professional counselling for the violent behaviour
Sample count in Hong Kong was less than 5.

help in Mozambique than men in other countries (Fig. 6.22). While at the time of the IVAWS research there were no specialized perpetrator programmes in Mozambique, the respondents seem to have understood professional counselling to refer to community-based support groups, faith-based organizations, village leaders and elders, and other "professional" support that may exist in the community.

In all countries, whether violent partners receive counselling or other intervention from community services will depend on availability of programs, the way in which respondents understand the question (which may be very broad as shown in Mozambique), and the extent to which violent men are brought before the courts which often serve as the impetus for attendance at these programs. Although court-mandated treatment programs for violent partners have been developed in many industrialised countries, they are not yet widely available elsewhere. Furthermore, evaluations are inconclusive about their effective in reducing violence (Feder & Dugan 2002; Rothman et al. 2003).

Summary

Research exploring the barriers and obstacles to reporting violence to the police and other services, and seeking help through informal social supports, is an important first step in improving the societal response to violence against women. Before the victim calls the police, she will have had to overcome a personal threshold where she considers the violence serious enough to justify involving the criminal justice system (Fugate et al. 2005). She will also have had to overcome logistical barriers,

her own fears about what the perpetrator might do as a consequence of her involving the police, as well as implications of reporting for her own personal circumstances. She also must hold a belief that the criminal justice system is able to help and that she will receive a sympathetic and supportive response. Furthermore, many women who are assaulted by intimate partners fear that if they involve the police, this may lead to pressures from the police and others to end the relationship. The situation is even more complicated if children are involved. As shown in Chapter 5, the percentage of abused women with children who witnessed the violence ranged from 19% to 58% in the countries studied. It is thus a complex situation, often with a long history of abuse, to which the police and other agencies are called to respond.

The IVAWS shows that if the woman does not consider the incident to be serious enough to warrant involvement with the police, or if she was able to deal with it herself, she is unlikely to report to the police. Shame, or wanting to keep the incident private, also influences the decision to seek assistance from the police. Women tend to report stranger violence to the police more often than violence occurring in other contexts, perhaps due to widespread stereotypes that "legitimate" violence involves stranger attacks and as a result victims are less likely to feel stigmatised by making these experiences public.

Women rarely receive a consistent response from the criminal justice system. Seith (2005) argues that inconsistent responses are the outcome of "an unwillingness to place perpetrators at the centre of interventions; lack of legal regulations and powers; unwillingness to ensure widespread implementation, including effective monitoring mechanisms to overcome the tendency to revert to traditional practices" (Seith 2005:180). There are also historical reasons for police inaction, such as (Hutchinson et al. 1994; Johnson 1990):

- violence in the family has long been considered a private matter and is widely tolerated by society
- uncooperative victims but also a clash between victims' needs and the objectives of the criminal justice system
- reluctance of victims to take action against perpetrators, and fear of the consequences and possible retaliation by perpetrators
- a tendency on the part of the police to see intervention in family disputes as not "real" police work
- a tendency for male officers to identify and side with perpetrators
- lack of support structures, rewards and evaluation for police officers who are committed to improving the response to female victims of violence

The critical issue in dealing with violence against women and the response of the criminal justice system lies in the balance between what victims want and what the police seek (Jordan 2001). Very often the objectives of police are at odds with the objectives victims have when they make the decision to report to the police (Lievore 2005). Tensions between the victim and the police often stem from the fact that the police are results-oriented and preoccupied with the outcome of the case, while victims are more concerned about immediate protection and with the process. Victims need validation and a sense that they are believed and taken seriously. This

sometimes clashes with the police officer's search for proof and verification (Jordan 2001). Some victims may initially contact the police in order to have someone intervene to stop the immediate violence, without wanting the police to take any further action. At the time a woman who has experienced domestic violence calls the police, she undoubtedly is looking for immediate protection (Kelly 2005). Some victims, however, are reluctant to continue with an investigation, despite the fact that they initially called the police for help. Other women seek more than just protection: they want also justice and criminal sanctions. What's more, victims' needs and aspirations are complex and may change over time while the criminal justice system with its rigid goals and procedures may not be able to adapt to these changing needs (Kelly 2005; Lahti 2001).

There is evidence that police are more likely to suspect victims of sexual assault of laying false complaints which results in a higher proportion being "de-crimed" or "unfounded" and investigations discontinued as compared with other types of violent crime. Kelly et al. (2005) argue that both police and prosecutors over-estimate the scale of false allegations. This, in turn, leads to a culture of scepticism and thus to loss of confidence between victims and the criminal justice system. In their assessment of attrition in rape cases in the UK, they conclude that while there indeed are false allegations, they constitute close to 3% of all rapes reported to the police, which is no higher than for other crimes (Kelly et al. 2005).

The trajectories of decision-making by victims following an incident of violence are not necessarily linear and rational as the criminal justice system would expect so as to be able to effectively deal with the case. Instead, they are characterized by ambivalence on the part of the victim (Lahti 2001). This ambivalence combined with a patriarchal police culture, situated within a patriarchal society and negative attitudes toward assaulted women, creates a tension between victims' needs and the responsibilities of police. Police often feel frustrated with victims who appear to be uncooperative while victims feel revictimised by insensitive questioning and the inflexible demands of the criminal justice system.

Several countries have tried to tackle this clash between victims' needs and criminal justice responsibilities through implementation of civil remedies. Eight out of thirteen provinces and territories in Canada have introduced civil legislation as a complement to the criminal law, which is intended to better protect victims in situations of domestic violence (Blackell & Johnson 2006). The civil remedies available include protection orders, orders providing temporary exclusive possession of the family home to victims and their children, and other provisions considered necessary for the protection of victims and their children. The primary benefit of civil domestic violence legislation is the immediacy of the protections and practical interventions it offers. A similar approach has been adopted in Austria where the protective functions of civil law, the sanctioning of abusive behaviour, and the provision of support services are combined (Kelly 2005). Initial evaluations of the Austrian law and practices has shown that only about 5% of cases resulted in charges and that victims had mixed feelings about the removal of the perpetrator. However, Kelly (2005) argues that despite these flaws, these reforms give the police a vehicle to help them respond to what many victims need and want, i.e. to be safe without having to leave their homes. While such interventions are useful in that they recognise the

seriousness of gender-based violence and offer the police additional tools, they may be contrary to what some victims need and want (Fugate et al. 2005). It is thus important that such policies are thoroughly evaluated and assessed so as to ensure that they respond to the needs of victims, while not compromising the role and responsibilities of law enforcement agencies.

While an important goal is to increase available assistance to victims of violence and also encourage reporting of cases, victims will not be encouraged to disclose experiences of violence unless police and other service providers have the requisite skills and resources to respond appropriately and provide victims with the support they need. There is thus need for additional training for police on recognising how their own values and personal histories may influence their response to women who have been victims of violence. Such training should focus on all types of violence against women, including emotional abuse, which in most cases accompanies physical or sexual violence (Coulter et al. 1999). In addition to training, police in many countries need more resources to improve their capacity to actually investigate the cases that come to their attention (Frazier & Haney 1996). It is counterproductive to encourage victims of violence to report to authorities in locations where police are poorly trained, hold negative attitudes or biases toward women, and where women are at risk of re-victimisation by the criminal justice system in the process of reporting.

Some researchers have argued that the state, including the police, cannot effectively meet the needs of abused women since it operates within gendered patriarchal structures, similar to the patriarchal structure of marriage and the family. When police and courts respond to crimes of violence against women, the power of the abuser is simply transferred to the state and the abused woman continues to be powerless to make decisions that affect her safety (Snider 1998). Lewis et al. (2000) argue that this orientation views female victims of abuse as passive recipients of legal intervention who instead need to be recognised as survivors engaged in a process of "active negotiation and strategic resistance". Interviews with women, which investigate the process of criminal justice interventions rather than just the outcomes, suggest that women are active agents who use the justice system in the context of strategic responses to violence. The fact is that women will continue to use the criminal justice system in their struggles for justice and safety, although they will be constrained in the action available to them because of gendered social conditions and legal structures. Lewis et al. (2000) argue that ongoing improvements to criminal justice processes are therefore essential.

One particularly problematic aspect of the criminal justice approach to violent crimes against women is the single-incident framework that the police and courts work within. In intimate partner violence cases, the abuse is often ongoing and occurs within a context of emotionally abusive and controlling behaviour, which keeps victims trapped in what often becomes an increasingly dangerous situation. A unique approach has been undertaken by the Winnipeg Family Violence Court, a specialised court in Canada, which aims to ensure that the process does not re-victimize victims and gives them some decision-making power over the outcome of cases (Ursel 2002). For many years following the implementation of the court in 1990, success was measured in the traditional way, i.e. as the number of successful

prosecutions. Rather than defining success on a single event, prosecutors have begun to put greater emphasis on the process and on providing a service to victims. Victims are encouraged and supported to testify against an abusive spouse, but prosecution does not proceed without victim cooperation, except in cases where there is a serious risk to the victim or the community. Victims who decline to testify at trial are encouraged to consider testifying at another time when they feel ready to do so. According to Ursel (2002) "[i]t is important that the Crown [prosecutor] leave the message with the victim that she will not be harassed with warrants for failing to appear and she will not be treated as a hostile victim if she recants." Similar innovations, tailored to specific cultural contexts, are essential elsewhere if justice is to be provided to female victims of male violence.

Since so many victims of male violence do not rely on formal help, it is important to expand social and community-based initiatives towards violence, to develop programs that respond to the different needs of different victims, and to develop the criminal justice response to become more victim-sensitive and sensitive to victim's needs and objectives (see Kaukinen 2002). In addition, non-governmental services should be supported and encouraged, as women's groups may be in some instances more helpful for victims of violence than state-based social service agencies. The very large proportion of victims who disclose to family and friends indicates that broader public education is warranted in order break down stereotypes and misconceptions about victims of partner violence and sexual assault so that victims receive the social support they need and the encouragement to seek further help from agencies or police.

Chapter 7
What Can be Done to End Violence Against Women?

What have we learned from this international comparison of women's experiences of violence in nine countries? Results of the International Violence Against Women Survey help to develop a clearer understanding of the dimensions and nature of these problems, the harms associated with them, how the criminal justice system responds, and how governments and civil society can intervene more effectively to help reduce violence and the suffering of women and their children. For example, we know from the IVAWS that:

- Violence is a universal experience which occurs in every age and economic group, although it varies in the number of women affected in each country. In the majority of IVAWS countries, the percentage of women who experienced physical or sexual violence by any man since age 16 is between 35% and 60%. In most countries, between 22% and 40% of women have been physically or sexually assaulted by an intimate partner.
- Violence by intimate partners is accompanied by varying degrees of psychological abuse and attempts to control female partners' autonomy. In some cases it is accompanied by sexual abuse.
- Between 10% and 31% of women have been sexually assaulted by a man other than an intimate partner in almost all countries studied.
- Women were beaten in pregnancy in substantial numbers.
- Children witnessed violence against their mothers in a significant number of cases.
- Gender-based violence is a widespread and complex social problem that cannot be linked to a single causal factor. Women who were abused or witnessed violence in childhood are at risk factor for further victimisation in adulthood. Other important risk factors for gender-based violence concern characteristics of male partners, including:

    - use of controlling behaviours
    - emotional abuse against female partners
    - alcohol abuse
    - violent behaviour toward others outside the home
    - witnessing parental violence in childhood
    - experiences of physical abuse by fathers in childhood

- Small percentages of women disclose violence to police or other helping professionals. Much larger proportions seek support from friends and family members. Only in Poland did more than 20% of victims of intimate partner violence seek help from the police. In all countries except Poland, 5% or fewer of all violent incidents resulted in a conviction in court.
- Even in cases of very serious assaults involving injury or threats to the woman's life, a majority of victims do not report to the police.
- Many women do not disclose violence to anyone. The percentage who didn't talk to police, services, friends, family or anyone else was about one-quarter in most countries regardless of the type of violence.

These findings support previous research studies, both large-scale random sample surveys and smaller-scale qualitative studies, which lead to the conclusion that gender-based violence is a world-wide phenomenon which exists within a context of unequal power relations between women and men and societal-level approval of the use of violence to solve interpersonal conflicts. Male violence against women occurs in most societies and while the forms and frequency of abuse may differ, aggression by men against women is a universal phenomenon that has many commonalities across cultures. It also confirms that women around the world remain at risk of violence by male strangers, acquaintances, relatives, intimate partners and other men known to them.

This chapter makes recommendations on actions needed to end violence against women that follow from the results of the IVAWS. It concludes by summarising some initiatives and efforts in various countries to identify principles and programs that have shown promise in the fight to end violence against women.

Recommendations on Ending Violence Against Women

A number of recommendations stem from the analysis contained in this text based on the International Violence Against Women Survey and other research. One of the most critical observations is that, due to the multi-faceted nature of sexual and intimate partner violence, gender-based violence cannot be solved by the health sector or the justice sector or community groups working alone. Because of the widespread basis of the problem and the integral role it plays in the maintenance of unequal gender relations, all sectors of society have a role to play in its elimination. Recommendations are categorised here under five general headings: (1) promote gender equality; (2) improve service delivery; (3) hold offenders accountable; (4) prevention; and, (5) monitoring and evaluation.

Promote Gender Equality

Governments are increasingly recognising that gender power structures based on perceptions of the subordination of women and the superiority of men are major factors in the perpetration of male violence against women. A report commissioned by the Swedish government asserts that even though it is commonly acknowledged

that women's oppression is related to violence perpetrated against them, this has had little impact on strategies and initiatives to combat violence (Johnsson-Latham 2005). Instead of tackling female subordination and male privilege and power which are root causes of gender-based violence, there is a tendency to address the manifestations of it, such as domestic violence or other particular forms of violence. In order to be effective, efforts to reduce violence thus must target and challenge the underlying power structures that support and sustain perceptions of the inferiority of women.

In all societies, widespread societal changes are needed to improve women's status, break down inequalities between women and men, eliminate strict gender roles that are damaging to women, change attitudes and societal norms, and create a climate where violence is actively discouraged and not tolerated. Countries as well as the international community must be committed to continue to:

- promote women's right to live free of violence
- actively work to ensure the women are not discriminated against in property rights, inheritance rights, marriage and divorce laws, access to education, employment and health care
- review legislation and policy for its impact on gender equality and victims of violence
- ratify and enforce international conventions regarding equality rights, including human rights
- ratify and implement international conventions on the elimination of violence against women
- promote involvement of men in prevention activities

The situation with respect to equality rights, attitudes toward women and violence varies and takes different forms in different countries around the world. Countries therefore must assess and respond to the situation each according to their own stage of development and progress made in addressing inequalities. Largely through the determined efforts of grassroots women's organisations, governments and civil society have made varying degrees of progress in investing in research to understand the magnitude of the problem, and the risk and protective factors, making legislative and policy changes to help prosecute perpetrators, and providing supports to victims. However, work needs to be done to reduce the barriers to equality faced by women in all aspects of society, be it social, economic, political, civil, legal or cultural. Violence cannot be eliminated without achieving gender equality, and equality will be an elusive goal while women continue to be victims of violence. As such, their needs for criminal justice reform and services cannot continue to be ignored.

Improve Service Delivery to Victims

Victims of violence need access to health and social support services to respond to injuries, emotional trauma and longer-term needs. They often have urgent needs for housing, economic and legal support. Progress has been made in many countries in improving the availability and delivery of services to female victims largely

through the efforts of grassroots women's organisations. However, many women do not get the help they need because services do not exist, are not available in the local community, or are not well-funded. Or, because of fear or other reasons women are reluctant to access them. All aspects of service delivery to victims of sexual and intimate partner violence need to be strengthened. Even in countries where services are relatively widely available, they are under funded and staff suffer high levels of burnout. For example, when asked to list the top three issues and challenges they will be facing in the coming year, emergency shelters for abused women in Canada identified funding, staffing and affordable housing for women leaving shelters as their greatest concerns (Taylor-Butts 2005). There were 543 shelters for abused women operating in Canada in 2004 who admitted 95,326 women and children that year. On a single day, one-fifth of all shelters turned women away. According to a European Union expert group, at least one shelter space is needed for every 10,000 inhabitants in the population in order to provide adequate support for women in need (Keeler 2000). In many countries, these very critical emergency supports do not exist, or exist only in the major cities. All countries must recognise that emergency shelters, counselling and legal support services for victims are essential services and must commit adequate funding for them.

Countries must also ensure that police, health and other sectors have the capacity to respond sensitively to victims who come to them for help. Building the capacity of communities to support female victims of violence is critical to developing a sustainable response (UNIFEM 2003). Police and other service providers who come into contact with victims of sexual and intimate partner violence must receive ongoing training on the dynamics of violence, the impacts on victims, how to detect violent victimisation, how to respond appropriately in order to minimise harm, and how to make referrals to other services. Screening protocols designed to detect violent victimisation need to be followed up by appropriate action and referral. The hiring of female police officers, judges and physicians must be promoted in order to correct the gender imbalance, enhance equality, and improve the treatment of victims. However, it is not enough to just promote gender parity within male-dominated fields such as police and courts unless the often very male-dominant working culture is addressed simultaneously.

Coordination among sectors must be improved to ensure that referrals are made to appropriate services and comprehensive and accurate information is provided to victims to assist them in making decisions about their own welfare. It must be ensured that reporting to police does not come at the expense of access to other services, but that police will initiate referrals to other services in the community. Services must be multi-faceted and respond to women's health, emotional, social and legal needs, and their need for safety, privacy and confidentiality. Sexual assault centres, for example, need to provide comprehensive "one-stop" care to avoid a situation where victims are required to make separate contacts to police, medical help, emotional support and legal assistance and advice. The Thuthuzela Care Centres in South Africa that offer services to victims of sexual violence provide one model for such a one-stop service.

All those who respond to victims of intimate partner violence need to be trained to identify the risk factors for violence in order understand the dynamics of abuse

and help abused women develop safety plans. Risk assessment tools have been developed for use by police, health professionals, counsellors and others who come into contact with abused women and violent men. These are designed to help asses risk for future violence by intimate partners, help women plan strategies to improve their safety, and help prevent future incidents of partner violence (Campbell et al. 2001; Hilton et al. 2004; Kropp & Hart 2000). Use of risk assessment tools is growing in some countries among the police and victim service providers.

There continues to be many barriers to women disclosing violence and accessing help from the police or other service providers or from informal supports in their communities. Violent partners often use controlling tactics to keep women away from family and friends and others who may be able to offer them help. Women who disclose violence are often stigmatised and blamed and are confronted with negative reactions from others. Common reasons given by women participating in the IVAWS for not involving the criminal justice system were feelings of shame or embarrassment, fears of retaliatory violence from the offender, wanting to protect the offender from being arrested, and a belief the police wouldn't be able to do anything to help them. While the attitudes, values and beliefs of individual police officers affect police discretion whether to arrest a perpetrator of intimate violence (Smith & Klein 1984), these attitudes can be challenged and changed. Criminal justice practitioners, including police officers, prosecutors and judges, need continual training on the destructive myths surrounding sexual and intimate partner violence, the sometimes ambivalent nature of victims' decision-making processes, and the needs of victims which may change over time, combined with on-going supervision, guidance and evaluation of their performance.

Criminal justice professionals–as well as other professional groups coming into contact with female victims of violence–need to understand the subjective experience of women, that if a victim does not initially seek help or is reluctant to be helped in the initial aftermath of an assault, she might change her mind at a later date. They need to understand that the needs of victims change over time. Victims need information and support throughout the process of seeking emotional help, obtaining medical assistance, and interacting with the criminal justice system. When victims seek assistance, they need unbiased treatment. Victims need, above all, to be taken seriously, believed and treated in a caring manner (Jordan 2001; Lahti 2001; Lievore 2005).

Hold Offenders Accountable

Countries vary somewhat in the extent to which women disclose violence to criminal justice agencies but it is uniformly low in countries participating in the IVAWS and others where these questions have been asked. The IVAWS raises important questions about what women need in order to feel empowered or supported to report to police, as there were substantial proportions who considered the violence to be serious or to be a criminal offence, yet did not report it to police. Current severe levels of attrition are unsupportable in countries that purport to take violence against

women seriously (Kelly et al. 2005). All countries must ensure that they have in place legislation to protect women and hold offenders accountable in order to ensure that the physical and sexual integrity of all persons is protected through the criminal law. Criminal codes must specify that violence against women is a criminal act, not a private affair, and will be treated seriously by the police and courts. Laws must specify that rape in marriage is a crime. Of equal importance once laws are in place is to ensure that they are effectively implemented, offenders are prosecuted and victims are protected. Women who wish to report to the police must be supported at all phases of the criminal justice system, from reporting through to sentencing and release of offenders from prison.

It is essential that family law is harmonised with criminal law so that keeping families together does not take precedence over ensuring women's physical safety and integrity. Integration of family and criminal law is also essential so that family courts are aware of the occurrence of violence and child custody arrangements mandated by the court do not compromise the safety of women and their children.

Therapeutic programs for violent men aim to motivate men to change their attitudes and violent behaviour toward female partners. They are not widespread internationally with the exception of some countries, such as the United States and Canada. Evidence suggests that they are not universally successful at changing violent men, but overall are at least moderately successful (Gondolf 2002; Rothman et al. 2003). Treatment programs for abusive men internationally have a great deal in common and tend to focus on gendered social roles for women and men and how they affect intimate relationships, characteristics of healthy relationships, conflict resolution without violence, anger management, alcohol and drug abuse, and parenting skills (Rothman et al. 2003). Establishing and maintaining contact with female victims is considered essential for monitoring and accountability of abusers (Dobash et al. 1999; Gondolf 2002). It is therefore important that perpetrator programs be run in parallel with programs responding to the needs of female victims. If successful, men's programs can help reduce the re-occurrence of violence and provide non-violent role models for children. Treatment must focus not only on physical and sexual abuse but on emotionally abusive and controlling behaviour, other forms of male domination and power imbalances in the family. Treatment for abusive male partners must be conducted in such a manner that it does not jeopardise women's safety in any way. Many treatment programs are linked to the courts and abusers attend as a condition of a court order. However, given that the majority of victims do not report to the police, and very small numbers of abusers are charged and convicted of a criminal offence, participation in these programs should be available through referrals from health and social services and should not be dependent on offenders appearing in court.

Prevention

Holding offenders accountable and providing supports for victims are societal responses to violence once it occurs and are necessary to prevent a recurrence of violence and to act as a general deterrent to others. However, if violence is to be pre-

vented in the first place, efforts must extend beyond reacting to the problem. Efforts to understand gender-based violence and to put into place programs to reduce it must look to empirical evidence of the prevalence of the problem and the context in which it occurs. Studies like the IVAWS have identified a consistent set of risk factors that can be targeted by prevention programs, and protective factors that need to be strengthened, if societies are to have an impact on reducing and preventing violence.

Gender equality and the development of gender norms that do not promote control and abuse of women are needed to reduce male violence against women. This requires widespread change of attitudes and norms at the societal and individual level. Women experience violence against a backdrop of cultural norms–in some countries are overt and in others are ambiguous–which minimize women's experiences of violence and the level of harm to victims. Societal norms help create confusion about victims' blameworthiness and often fail to acknowledge the social context and cultural supports for male violence against women. Although few research studies have examined societal level attitudes toward men's use of violence against women in a systematic way, an Australian study found that substantial proportions of the population are willing to excuse domestic violence under certain circumstances, and hold negative views about women who report rape (Taylor & Mouzos 2006). For example, one-quarter of adults agree that domestic violence can be excused if it results from people getting so angry they temporarily lose control or genuinely regret what they have done, that women make up false claims of being raped , and that rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex.

Prevention activities are needed in the form of widespread public campaigns that aim to reach the widest possible audience. Also needed are targeted efforts aimed at children and adolescents to promote non-violent equitable relationships between women and men, and non-violent means of resolving conflict. These include anti-bullying programs for school-age children and healthy relationship programs for teenagers (Johnson 2007). Greater awareness of rape myths and the warning signs of relationship violence, such as controlling and emotionally abusive behaviours, can help young women reduce their risk. Reducing violence in relationships will have the longer-term effect of preventing such behaviour in future generations as fewer children are exposed to violence and violent role models. Reducing violence in the home may also have the effect of reducing violence in public situations and vice versa; the results of the IVAWS show that it is often the same individuals who perpetrate violence against intimate partners and others outside the family.

Monitoring and Evaluation

In order to successfully eliminate and respond to violence against women, countries must develop national action plans and assign responsibility for the outcomes of these plans to senior officials in collaboration with equality-seeking women's organizations in the community. This very public approach to eliminating violence will help open dialogue, establish a shared vision and hold governments and communities accountable. A shared vision provides a strategy for coordination and

a framework for evaluation (WHO 2004c). The most effective plans are those that include components relating to education, legislative reform, government agencies and awareness raising, and provide the mechanisms and resources for governmental and non-governmental agencies to work together (UNIFEM 2003).

Once plans are put into place to reduce violence through promoting gender equality, improving service delivery, holding offenders accountable, and implementing prevention programs, evaluation must be ongoing to ensure that objectives are being met and that the most effective programs are being delivered. Continuous monitoring of progress is needed to keep governments and communities on track, maintain awareness of the issue and strategies to address it among policy makers and the public, and track progress over time. Data collection is needed for monitoring and evaluation of program delivery. A wide variety of statistical and descriptive information is required to monitor levels of violence in the population, consequences and outcomes of violence for victims, numbers of women coming forward to the police or health or social services, types of services available to abused women, legislative and policy changes, and attitudinal change.

Compared to other areas of criminal justice research on prevention, violence against women has lagged behind in evaluations of what works to prevent violence (Kruttschnitt et al. 2004). The limited evaluation studies that have been conducted have focused almost exclusively on the deterrent effects of criminal justice sanctions and treatment programs for abusive men and almost none on the effectiveness of primary prevention programs. Evaluations of rape prevention programs show short-term effects on attitudes in terms of reducing adherence to rape myths, rape-supportive attitudes, and acquiring greater empathy for victims. However, few evaluations include longer-term follow-up or assess whether there has been an impact on actual perpetration of sexual assault (Schewe and Bennett 2002). Rigorous evaluations of prevention programs are essential if resources are to be targeted toward the most effective strategies for reducing violence and providing safety for women.

Promising Programs and Policy Initiatives

Efforts to end violence against women need to build on the considerable success and range of programs and strategies that have been developed in countries around the world. Grassroots women's groups have been at the forefront of efforts to raise awareness about violence against women, provide support services to victims, improve women's safety and hold governments accountable for international commitments. Work has focused on designing and implementing violence prevention programs for children and adolescents, increasing the availability of crisis counsellors and safe emergency housing, conducting safety audits and implementing changes to transportation and the built environment to improve women's safety in public places. Programs have also targeted the negative attitudes toward women in an attempt to promote gender equality. The range of programs and initiatives at the local and national levels is far too broad to be listed here. What appears here, for illustrative purposes, is a limited selection of initiatives that identify elements

of good or promising practice. They include initiatives by the Home Office in the United Kingdom, the World Health Organization, the United Nations Secretary-General's report on violence against women and the expert groups convened for that report, and the Women's Safety Awards.

Home Office Violence Against Women Initiative

As part of the Crime Reduction Programme announced by the Home Office in 1998, the Violence Against Women Initiative (VAWI) was launched in 2000. The VAWI aimed to determine which approaches and practices were effective in supporting victims and tackling domestic violence, rape and sexual assault. In an evaluation of domestic violence projects funded under the VAWI, extensive recommendations were made regarding primary prevention, supporting women who wish to disclose violence or report to the police, supporting women through the courts in order to reduce attrition, reducing repeat victimisation, data gathering and evaluation, and supporting women through outreach, individual and group work (Hester & Westmarland 2005). The evaluation of the VAWI concludes that the response to domestic violence must be multi-disciplinary and that narrowly focused, single interventions are unlikely to be successful.

Projects that were successful in implementing a comprehensive approach to stopping repeat victimisation included the following features:

- combined intensive, holistic advocacy and support with engagement with the criminal and civil justice systems
- routine screening for abuse by professionals and primary prevention
- screening and outreach to reach women who are living with abuse and either have not acknowledged it or do not have access or knowledge about services
- sustained awareness-raising programs for children to have an impact on attitudes regarding domestic violence

The Home Office also commissioned a series of literature reviews to investigate what is known about domestic violence. Results indicate the following (www.homeoffice.gov.uk):

Risk – having experienced a previous assault is the most reliable risk factor for future violent victimisation.

Criminal law – there is a high level of attrition of cases going through the criminal justice system. Use of photographic evidence should be encouraged. Police performance should be measured by an increase in the number of arrests, guilty pleas and prosecutions.

Civil law – remedies such as protection orders could be used more widely to provide early interventions and protection for women and children.

Health services – health professionals require training to identify domestic violence

Housing – a full range of support services are needed for families experiencing housing uncertainty due to domestic violence

Outreach and advocacy – immediate support in the aftermath of violence is important for increasing safety and affecting change. All outreach and advocacy should be accompanied by safety planning.

Perpetrators' programs – low completion rates can be improved if used alongside criminal justice sanctions.

Protecting children – meeting the needs of children means working at all levels of prevention: primary (prevent violence from happening in the first place), secondary (intervening to prevent a recurrence) and tertiary (reducing harms caused by violence).

World Health Organization

The World Health Organization (WHO) has identified violence against women as a significant public health and human rights concern and an obstacle for development. The WHO has been a world leader in the research and outreach conducted in this area. A major contribution toward improving the capacity of countries to estimate the prevalence of violence, raise public awareness and work toward prevention is the WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005). Together with a practical guide for researching violence against women and ethical guidelines (Ellsberg & Heise 2005), the multi-country survey is a model for conducting statistical research in the area of violence and its effects on women's health. The WHO study and the IVAWS have many similarities and benefited mutually from a cross-fertilisation of ideas and experience during the developmental phases of each project. They evolved out of separate disciplines–one from the public health field and the other from the field of criminal justice–and together they mark on important advancement in the science and methodology of interviewing women about violence in cross-cultural settings. They make available highly developed and well-tested tools for researchers and community activists who wish to conduct quantitative surveys in local settings. The capacity to conduct methodologically sound surveys that will produce reliable statistical indicators is essential for establishing the dimensions and the nature of the problem, developing programs and interventions, and for monitoring government commitments at the national and international levels.

The results of the WHO study were significant in many respects. It provided estimates of the magnitude and nature of violence against women in ten countries, most of which are developing countries where resources for data collection are scarce. It identified risk factors for intimate partner violence and stressed the strong correlation between emotional abuse, controlling behaviours and attitudes and the perpetration of violence by male partners. Impacts of violence in terms of women's physical, mental and reproductive health were examined. In addition, 15 recommendations evolved from this study which focus on strengthening commitment and action against violence at the national level, promoting primary prevention, involving the education sector, strengthening the response of the health sector, strengthen-

ing formal and informal supports for victims, sensitising legal and criminal justice systems, supporting research and collaboration, and enhancing capacity for data collection (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005).

The WHO has also launched a Global Campaign for Violence Prevention which advocates a public health approach to targeting violence at the national level. In its 2002 publication, *World Report on Violence and Health,* WHO makes nine recommendations for action to reduce violence (Krug et al. 2002):

1. create, implement and monitor a national action plan for violence prevention
2. enhance the capacity for collecting data on violence
3. support research on the causes, consequences, costs and prevention of violence
4. promote primary prevention
5. strengthen responses for victims
6. integrate violence prevention into social and education policies, thereby promoting gender and social equality
7. increase collaboration and exchange of information on violence prevention
8. promote and monitor adherence to international treaties, laws and other mechanisms to protect human rights
9. seek internationally agreed responses to the global drugs and arms trade

In its guide for implementing these recommendations, the WHO (2004c) recommends an approach to address interpersonal violence as a whole, but recognizes that promoting gender equality is essential to achieving this aim. Gender inequality, discrimination, and unfair distribution of opportunities, power and resources between men and women are identified as risk factors for violence and as conditions that can exacerbate other risk factors. Policy change is needed to secure equal treatment before the law, equal rights and responsibilities, and equal access to opportunities for women and men. In their efforts to prevent violence, it is recommended that countries undertake a review of all policies, their content and their impact on equality and interpersonal violence. But the report also emphasises that, while policy change is important in promoting gender equity, addressing harmful attitudes and social norms are equally important for bringing about social change to prevent violence.

In the months following the launch of the *World Report on Violence and Health*, resolutions urging governments to implement its recommendations were adopted by the World Health Assembly, the African Union and the Human Rights Commission (WHO 2004c). The WHO has launched a Global Campaign for Violence Prevention as a platform for implementing the recommendations of the *World Report.* Progress on violence prevention around the world, using planned, multi-sectoral strategies that tackle the causes of violence, is being tracked (see WHO 2004c).

United Nations Secretary-General's Report on Violence Against Women

The Division for the Advancement of Women of the United Nations undertook a number of activities in preparation for the Secretary General's report on violence

against women (United Nations 2006). In 2005, a group of experts was convened to identify good or promising practice in combating and eliminating violence against women in areas such as legislation, policies, programs and effective remedies. The purpose of the meeting was to identify the factors that make an initiative an example of good practice, identify elements of effective practices in the areas of law, prevention and provision of services, and identify approaches that have been effective in combating violence against women.

There is no universal definition of "good" or "promising" practice and none are likely to be effective for all women in all settings. What works well is likely to be influenced by the commitment of the State to women's equality, its relationship with NGOs and civil society, and the resources available (United Nations 2006). Programs and strategies should be based on principles of good practice but need to be adapted to local resources and intended outcomes. The Secretary-General's report identifies guiding principles of good or promising practice in law and the justice system, the provision of services, and violence prevention.

Law and the justice system (United Nations 2006:104):

- incorporate gender equality in national constitutions and the elimination of discrimination provisions in all areas of law
- address violence against women as form of gender-based discrimination and a violation of women's human rights
- monitor the implementation of legal reforms to assess how well they are working in practice and revise in light of new information
- ensure that victims/survivors of violence are not revictimised through the legal process
- promote women's agency and empower victims/survivors
- promote women's safety in public spaces
- take account of the differential impact of legal measures on women according to their race, class, ethnicity, religion, disability, culture, indigenous or migrant status, legal status, age or sexual orientation

Provision of services (United Nations 2006:115):

- promote the well-being, safety and economic security of victims/survivors and enable women to overcome the multiple consequences of violence
- ensure that victims/survivors have access to appropriate services and that these services take into account the needs of women facing multiple discrimination
- ensure that service providers are skilled, gender-sensitive, receive on-going training and have guidelines, protocols and codes of ethics, and female staff are provided wherever possible
- maintain the confidentiality and privacy of victims/survivors
- cooperate and coordinate with all other services
- monitor and evaluate the services provided
- reject ideologies that excuse or justify men's violence or blame victims
- empower women to take control of their lives

Prevention of violence (United Nations 2006:122):

- prioritize the prevention of violence against women in all policies and programs
- allocate specific resources within all sectors for prevention activities
- seek political support for sustained long-term investment in prevention
- develop prevention strategies that address the causes of violence against women, particularly the persistence of gender-based stereotypes
- outline clear objectives, defining what prevention strategies are seeking to change and how, and put in place a process of monitoring and evaluation
- ensure that the perspectives and voices of women, particularly victims/survivors, are central to the development of prevention strategies
- work with a cross-section of stakeholders, including government bodies, NGOs, workers' and employers' organizations and local community leaders, to build inclusive and effective strategies
- engage men and boys proactively in strategy development and implementation for the prevention of male violence against women
- highlight the fact that violence against women is unacceptable and its elimination is a public responsibility
- promote women's safety, including by altering physical environments where necessary
- ensure that prevention efforts are holistic, take into account multiple discrimination and connect wherever possible with other key issues for women, such as HIV/AIDS

Laws and legal frameworks are essential to send a clear societal message that violence against women won't be tolerated, but laws alone are not sufficient, particularly if they are not consistently enforced. States must ensure that perpetrators are held accountable and that victims are not re-victimised in the process. Law enforcement officials must work collaboratively with all agencies providing services to victims/survivors. But, while improving legislation and services is critical to ending violence against women, because gender-based violence is embedded in gender inequality, engaging and changing negative attitudes and behaviour is key to ending violence against women.

Women's Safety Awards

The non-governmental organisation, *Women in Cities International/Femmes et villes international*, which is centred in Montreal, has been instrumental in encouraging a gendered approach to municipal planning with safety as a central concern. The focus is on creating safer environments (social, physical and institutional) for women and girls by promoting their participation in community life, pursuing partnerships between local community organisations and local governments, and involving women and girls in local decision making processes (see www.femmesetvilles.org). *Femmes et villes* initiated and coordinates the Women's Safety Awards to recognise and promote promising practices relating to women's safety, promote local

initiatives, and help build capacity of local groups to develop practices to improve women's safety. Awards are given under the following categories: (1) advocacy, networking and community mobilization; (2) capacity building and training; (3) educational programs and public awareness; (4) safety planning and design for public spaces; and (5) municipal gender-based policies in crime prevention and community safety. Examples of just some of the promising practices included in the 2004 awards were (Femmes et villes 2004):

- **Cowichan Valley Safer Futures Program (Canada)**
  A community development and research program that focuses on improving women's personal safety and participation in community life, particularly in small, rural and/or isolated communities where isolation and lack of services can exacerbate issues related to violence. Included are safety audits to identify personal security issues and develop policies with local governments, and educational workshops for citizens, planners, developers, and architects. This is done within a gendered analysis to ensure that the needs of women are included in all aspects of community and social development.
- **Raising Voices (Kampala, Uganda)**
  A domestic violence prevention program developed in a densely populated slum. The initiative works with community members, police, social and health care services, media, religious communities and local governments with an aim to developing locally appropriate ways of challenging and changing attitudes and practices that perpetuate domestic violence. Domestic violence is now a public issue, improvements have been made to the way social, health and legal services respond to domestic violence, and new by-laws and policies have been developed within local government.
- **Defence, Security and Women's Rights to Citizenship (Bolivia)**
  Due to a lack of education and training, women in Bolivia suffer discrimination and social exclusion as well as domestic violence. Lack of awareness of legal protection meant that many Bolivian women were unable to protect themselves from violence. This is a project that involves organizing a women's community network to educate women on legal rights, domestic violence and citizenship, and build skills so women can participate in different levels of decision-making. As a result of this initiative, women are now more aware of the law, they are supported by organised centres, education and sensitisation is ongoing, and women are more able to defend their views in political forums.
- **Empowerment of Women and Youth towards a Gender Just Society (Tamil Nadu, South India)**
  A training and resource centre established in 1990 to work with poor women and students, for women's empowerment and awareness raising of men. It provides a range of safety-promoting services in an impoverished region, which includes public education on violence against women, gender mainstreaming at the local government level, counseling, advocacy and lobbying on various issues relating to women's rights. It is a space for women to come together, share, facilitate mutual learning and strengthen support and solidarity among women.

- **VIP (Violence is Preventable) Project, Eighteen and Under (Dundee, Scotland)**
  A range of materials and resources has been developed for use with children, young people and adults to prevent abuse, increase personal safety, challenge attitudes that lead to violence, explore the roots of violence and challenge sexism, racism and homophobia. This is a youth-lead group which focuses on issues such as violence against women and children, domestic violence, rape and sexual assault, assertiveness, power and abuse of power, gender issues, relationships, abuse, and rights of young people. Teachers and youth leaders are trained to use the materials effectively with children and young people in schools and the community. Aims of the project are to encourage young abuse victims to disclose sooner and get help earlier, reduce the incidence of child abuse, educate young women about their rights, help young women to recognize and resist abusive behaviour, teach young men that women deserve equality and respect, reduce the incidence of domestic and sexual abuse, raise awareness and change attitudes about all forms of violence.

Femmes et villes operates on the principle that women's fear of interpersonal violence and feelings of insecurity are obstacles to achieving gender equality. Fear of violent victimisation curtails women's mobility and independence and limits their capacity to participate fully as citizens in society.

Conclusions

In surveying the progress made in raising awareness and combating violence against women around the world, UNIFEM has declared that the achievements of those working in the area have been "monumental" (UNIFEM 2003:6). They cite as proof the fact that violence against women has been recognized as a human rights violation, international and regional agreements call for laws and awareness-raising programs, and services are available to women that did not exist even a decade ago.

However, UNIFEM also points out that despite these achievements, violence against women continues at unacceptable levels due to gender inequality which is not easily rectified (UNIFEM 2003:7). Implementation of women's rights, which is essential to ensure the eradication of violence against women, is slow, reflecting the unwillingness of governments to change the structures that accommodate and encourage daily abuses of women's rights (Human Rights Watch 1999). Ending gender-based violence requires a commitment from governments to uphold women's human rights and provide the funds needed to ensure that services for victims and treatment for perpetrators are adequate for the level of need, that training for professionals and public prevention programs are routinely applied, and that evaluation and data collection are conducted on an ongoing basis. Action comes at a cost; however, the cost of inaction is greater both in economic terms and in terms of human suffering and lost potential. Without an investment in prevention, intervention and treatment, violence will continue at unacceptable levels, the underlying

social conditions will be allowed to continue, and women's equality and human rights will be compromised as a result. The benefits to reducing violence against women will become apparent over time as the human costs to women and their families, as well as the financial costs of health care and social and criminal justice services are reduced.

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Appendix I
Survey Methodology

Sampling

The design of the IVAWS called for random sampling of women in each country population who were between 18 and 69 years of age. In the first stage, households were selected at random followed by selection of a woman in the household. In households with more than one eligible woman, the woman with the next birthday was selected to participate. Interviews were conducted either face-to-face or by telephone using computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI). In the case of CATI surveys, participating households were selected either by random digit dialling (e.g. Australia) or from available telephone number listings (e.g. Switzerland). The respondent was selected from among the eligible women (those who were 18–69 years of age) in the household using the next birthday method.

Face-to-face interviews were used in countries where the telephone coverage was not sufficient for drawing a probability sample of households. In these cases the survey sites were selected by two-stage cluster sampling: the first stage was the selection from a list of cities or provinces, the second stage was the selection of districts within these cities or provinces. The households were selected using a random walk method.

Weighting

Weighting has been used to make the sample statistics better represent each country population of women age 18–69. The basic weighting method takes into account the age distribution of the population, as reported by the United Nations Statistical Division.[1] Typically, younger people are under-represented in sample surveys as they are less often at home and available for an interview. The data are weighted by age to ensure that survey results that are affected by age, such as victimisation rates, are not skewed (see Table I.1). In cases where a more comprehensive weighting method

[1] See recent editions of the United Nations Demographic Yearbook tables at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/dyb/default.htm

Table I.1 Unweighted and weighted age distributions of respondents (percentage of all respondents)

unweighted	18–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	50–54	55–59	60–64	65–69	Missing	N
Australia	8.2	7.4	11.5	12.6	14.1	11.8	11.6	10.0	7.8	4.9	0.0	6666
Costa Rica	19.0	11.7	10.6	11.7	11.0	7.7	7.7	6.8	6.6	7.2	0.1	874
Czech Republic	16.7	13.4	11.5	10.8	10.9	10.0	9.2	5.9	5.4	6.3	0.0	1979
Denmark	4.0	8.9	11.9	12.9	11.6	11.1	10.6	11.6	8.8	8.5	0.0	3527
Hong Kong	10.8	7.0	9.0	13.8	16.1	16.1	11.9	8.5	4.6	1.9	0.2	1294
Mozambique	20.3	14.9	15.5	12.6	10.4	6.7	5.4	2.9	2.3	5.1	3.9	1976
Philippines	15.9	16.0	12.0	13.6	12.0	11.6	8.6	4.3	3.0	2.8	0.1	2580
Poland	13.8	10.7	10.6	9.9	10.1	11.6	12.0	9.9	5.1	6.4	0.0	2009
Switzerland	10.3	11.8	10.1	12.7	12.4	9.6	10.0	9.2	6.8	7.1	0.0	1967

weighted	18–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	50–54	55–59	60–64	65–69
Australia	17.1	10.1	12.0	10.9	11.7	10.3	9.6	8.1	6.1	4.1
Costa Rica	22.1	13.2	13.5	13.0	11.0	8.5	6.5	4.9	4.0	3.3
Czech Republic	15.6	11.4	9.3	9.2	9.5	11.0	11.2	9.0	6.9	7.0
Denmark	5.9	12.2	12.0	11.3	10.6	10.0	9.9	10.8	8.7	8.5
Hong Kong	14.1	11.5	12.6	15.1	13.8	10.6	7.9	4.7	4.9	4.9
Mozambique	24.9	16.1	12.5	9.9	8.1	6.6	5.6	4.7	3.8	7.9
Philippines	25.3	15.2	13.1	11.3	9.5	8.1	5.9	4.9	4.0	2.9
Poland	12.9	10.2	10.2	9.5	9.5	11.0	11.6	9.8	6.3	8.9
Switzerland	10.3	11.8	10.1	12.7	12.4	10.0	10.0	9.2	6.8	7.1

was implemented by national coordinators (including other variables in addition to age, such as region, marital status, socio-economic status) this weighting method was used in order for the derived statistics to be as representative as possible on a national level and in order to ensure that the data published in this text conform to survey results published in each country.

National Research Organisations

Australia

National coordinators:	Jenny Mouzos and Toni Makkai
Coordinating agency:	Australian Institute of Criminology
Data collection agency:	Roy Morgan Research
Principal funding agency:	Office of the Status of Women, Australia
Publication:	Mouzos, J. & Makkai T. 2004. *Women's experiences of male violence: findings from the Australian component of the International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS)*. Research and Public Policy Series No. 56. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

China (Hong Kong)

National coordinators:	Roderic Broadhurst and John Bacon-Shone
Coordinating agency:	University of Hong Kong
Data collection agency:	Center for Criminology, Social Sciences Research Centre, University of Hong Kong
Principal funding agency:	Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Hong Kong

Costa Rica

National coordinators:	Montserrat Sagot
Coordinating agency:	University of San José
Data collection agency:	University of San José
Principal funding agency:	Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)
Publication:	Sagot, M. & Guzmán, L. 2004. *Informe Final Proyecto Encuesta Nacional de Violencia contra las Mujeres*, No.824-A1-545. Centro de Investigación en Estudios de la Mujer, Vicerrectoría de Investigación, Universidad de Costa Rica.

Czech Republic

National coordinators:	Simona Pikálková and Jiři Buriánek
Data collection agency:	Charles University, Faculty of Arts, Prague / UNIVERSITAS Agency
Coordinating agencies:	Charles University, Faculty of Arts, Prague; Institute of Sociology, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, Prague
Principal funding agency:	Grant Agency of the Czech Republic
Publication:	Pikálková, S. (ed.) 2004: *Mezinárodní výzkum násilí ženách – Česká republika / 2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině.* Sociological Studies 04/02. Prague: Institute of Sociology and Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic (more information, including an English-language summary is available at http://studie.soc.cas.cz/index.php3?lang = eng&shw = 246)

Denmark

National coordinator:	Britta Kyvsgaard
Coordinating agency:	Ministry of Justice, Denmark
Data collection agency:	Vilstrup Research
Principal funding agency:	Ministry of Justice
Publication:	Balvig, F. & Kyvsgaard, B. 2006. *Vold og overgreb mod kvinder: Dansk rapport vedrørende deltagelse i International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS).* Copenhagen: University of Copenhagen and Danish Ministry of Justice. (http://www.jm.dk/wimpdoc.asp?page = document&objno = 74850)

Mozambique

National coordinators:	Sansao Buque, Gregorio Firmino and Alda Saute
Coordinating agency:	Ministry of Women and Social Affairs, Mozambique; United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, Regional Office for Southern Africa
Data collection agency:	Ad hoc team of interviewers trained on-site by the University of Eduardo Mondlane; Centre for Population Studies, the Ministry of Women and Social Affairs, and the National Statistical Institute (INE)
Principal funding agency:	United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), UNICEF and the World Health Organization

Publication:	The International Violence Against Women Survey in Mozambique. 2005. Ministry of Women and Social Action, Republic of Mozambique. UNODC, UNICEF, UNDP (Mozambique), WHO and UNFPA. Maputo.

Philippines

National coordinator:	Celia Sanidad-Leones
Coordinating agency:	National Police Commission, the Philippines
Data collection agency:	Criminological Research Division, Crime Prevention and Coordination Service, National Police Commission
Principal funding agency:	National Police Commission

Poland

National coordinator:	Beata Gruszczynska
Coordinating agency:	Warsaw University, IPSiR, Chair of Criminology and Criminal Policy
Data collection agency:	CBOS Poland
Principal funding agency:	Polish Committee of Science
Publication:	Gruszczynska, B. (forthcoming 2007). *Przemoc wobec kobiet w Polsce. Aspekty Prawnokryminologiczne*. Warsaw: Oficyna Walters Kluwer business [key findings and summary in English]

Switzerland

National coordinator:	Martin Killias
Coordinating agency:	School of Criminal Sciences, University of Lausanne
Data collection agency:	MIS Trend
Principal funding agency:	Swiss National Science Foundation
Publication:	Killias, M., Simonin, M. & De Puy, J. 2005. *Violence experienced by women in Switzerland over their lifespan: Results of the International Violence against Women Survey (IVAWS)*. Berne: Stæmpfli Publishers.

Appendix II
National Laws Against Sexual Assault and Domestic Violence

	Sexual Assault	Marital Rape	Domestic Violence
Australia	Each state and territory has legislation concerning sexual assault, but they all share a general condemnation of sexual intercourse or contact (vaginal, oral, and anal) and the continuation of sexual intercourse without consent, unless done for medical, hygienic, or law enforcement purposes.[1]	Rape in marriage is covered under all state and territorial sexual assault legislation.	In all state and territorial legislation men and women are treated equally, including under domestic violence law. Some jurisdictions have specific domestic violence law (referring to spouse/partner, dependent/guardian, relative, dating, or residential relationships), while in others it is covered by general violence against the person laws.[2]
• **ACT**	Sexual intercourse without consent, s. 54 Crimes Act 1900		Protection Orders Act 2001; Domestic Violence Agencies Act 1986 No 52; Crimes Act 1900; Domestic Violence and Protection Orders Regulation 2002[3]
• **NSW**	Sexual assault, ss. 611 Crimes Act 1900		Crimes Act 1900 No 40 Part 15A; Crimes Act 1900 No 40 Part 1 Section 4 (defines domestic violence offence)[4]
• **NT**	Sexual intercourse without consent, s. 192 Criminal Code Act 1983		Domestic Violence Act 2006; Criminal Code Act[5]

(continued)

Australia (continued)

	Sexual Assault	Marital Rape	Domestic Violence
• **QLD**	Rape, s. 349 Criminal Code Act 1899		Domestic and Family Violence Protection Act 1989[6]
	Sexual Assault	Marital Rape	Domestic Violence
• **SA**	Rape, s. 48 Criminal Law Consolidation Act 1935		Domestic Violence Act 1994[7]
• **TAS**	Rape, s. 185 Criminal Code Act 1924, consent amendment 2005		Police Offences Act 1935 s35 (offences against women & children); Family Violence Act 2004[8]
• **VIC**	Rape, s. 38 Crimes Act 1958		Crimes (Family Violence) Act 1987[9]
• **WA**	Sexual penetration without consent, S 319 Criminal Code Act 1913		Family Court Act 1997[10]
Costa Rica	Violation, Rape, and Dishonest Abuse, Article 156	Rape in marriage is covered under the domestic violence legislation.	Domestic Violence Act 1996
	Prohibition of carnal, oral, anal, or vaginal access (including by fingers or other various objects) with a person of any sex when the other person is under 12 years of age, is incapacitated or incapable of resisting, or where there is a use of violence or intimidation.[11]		Protects against abuse within families and among couples; effectiveness depends on provisional measures adopted by judge when protection is requested; men and women can benefit from this law; does not protect women against other forms of violence, such as sexual harassment, rape by non-family members, or institutional aggression.[12]
Czech Republic	Criminal Code, section 241	Spousal rape is covered under the rape legislation, even though it is not explicitly stated.	Criminal Procedure Act, section 163a

	Forced sexual intercourse or other sexual relations through violence or threat of violence or through an abuse of a person's defenselessness (new code of criminal procedure will expand this definition to include other threats to harm other than violence).[13]		Domestic violence is not explicitly named, but the act refers to behaviours that would commonly be considered domestic violence, including violence, infringement on freedom in the home, rape, limiting personal freedom; criminal prosecution of domestic violence requires the consent of the injured party within 30 days.[14] Beginning in 2007, police can restrict perpetrators from entering the victim's residence and surrounding area where there is probable cause for further violence.
Denmark	Penal Code, section 216 Rape is defined as forced sexual intercourse through violence or the threat of violence or by placing the person in such a position as they are unable to resist.[15]	Marital rape is covered under general rape legislation, though it is not referred to explicitly.	Penal Code, section 244–246 All acts of violence are punishable under this section, including those with either male or female victims. Sentencing is according to the seriousness of the offence, and this can include taking into consideration any factors specific to women as victims.[16]

(continued)

(continued)

	Sexual Assault	Marital Rape	Domestic Violence
Hong Kong	Penal Code, article 118	Marital rape is technically covered under the rape legislation.	Domestic Violence Ordinance 1986
	Rape is defined as unlawful sexual intercourse with a woman who at the time does not consent to it and where the man knows she does not consent to it or is reckless in acquiring her consent; it is an offence for a man to induce a woman to sexual intercourse by impersonating her husband.[17]		Allows a woman to seek a three month injunction against her husband if there is physical abuse and the couple are living together; it does not recognize other forms of partner abuse (including abuse after separation) or non-physical forms of abuse; a breach of the ordinance does not constitute a criminal offence.
			Crimes against the Person Ordinance & Crimes Ordinance
			Legislation dealing with general forms of interpersonal violence and sexual offences.[18]
Mozambique	The penal code punishes the offence of rape.[19]	Marital rape is not condemned under the penal code.	Family Law 2003
			Introduced new rights for women in the family, including raising the minimum age for marriage, allowing women to inherit property after divorce, and recognizing traditional marriages; this law does not recognize domestic violence as a crime; there is currently no legislation condemning domestic violence against women (though there is one being drafted).[20]

Philippines	Republic Act 8353 Anti-Rape Law & Republic Act 8505 Rape-Victim Assistance and Protection Act, 1997	Marital rape is included in the sexual assault legislation, though it can be decriminalized if the wife forgives her husband.	Republic Act 9262 Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Act
	Defines rape as a man having carnal knowledge of a woman through force, threat, or intimidation; if the other party is deprived of reason or unconscious; through fraudulent means or abuse of authority; when the other party is under 12 years of age or otherwise demented; includes oral sexual contact, anal sexual contact, or the use of any other instrument or object other than a penis.[21]		Protects women and their children from instances of physical, psychological, and economic abuse in the context of marital, common law, and dating relationships; recognizes the Battered Woman Syndrome as a defense for women's behaviour after cumulative abuse; allows for the issuance of protection orders.[22]
Poland	Criminal Code, article 197	Relationships are not defined under the sexual assault legislation; therefore marital rape is technically included as an offence.	Polish Penal Code
	Inducing another person into sexual intercourse or another sexual act either through force, threat or ruse.[23]		Article 207 criminalizes the mental or physical mistreatment of a person close to or in dependency of another, and who is either mentally or physically vulnerable to the offender.[24] Act to Counteract Domestic Violence 2005

(continued)

(continued)

	Sexual Assault	Marital Rape	Domestic Violence
			The first legal Act to define domestic violence (including all persons in close family relationships, co-habiting or sharing a household). Covers various forms of physical, sexual, mental, emotional violence in one-time or multiple incidents. Earlier laws required that the victim produce evidence of the incident. This made domestic violence cases often difficult to prosecute. The Act promotes support for victims, and sets actions to be taken up by government agencies and local administration in prevention domestic violence. The Act also introduces restrictions for the perpetrator on contacting the victim.[25]
Switzerland	Criminal Code, article 189 & 190	Marital rape is covered under the sexual assault legislation. Prior to 2004, marital rape was prosecuted only on request of the victim but that requirement has been removed.	Criminal Code
	Prohibits sexual coercion through the use of menace or violence; prohibits forced sexual intercourse with a woman through violence or threat of violence or psychological pressure.[26]		Articles 123 and 126 were amended in 2004 to include mandatory prosecution of assault in domestic situations (including threats, assault, sexual coercion and rape).
			Federal Act on Assistance to Victims of Offences Offers protection to male and female victims of violent acts, including victims of domestic violence.

[1] Heath, 2005
[2] Australian Government, 2003
[3] Australian Domestic & Family Violence Clearinghouse, 2006
[4] Australian Government, 2006
[5] Australian Domestic & Family Violence Clearinghouse, 2006; Department of Justice, 2006
[6] Ibid
[7] Australian Government, 1994
[8] Tasmanian Government, 2005
[9] Australian Domestic & Family Violence Clearinghouse, 2006
[10] Ibid
[11] Government of Costa Rica, 2002
[12] Ibid
[13] Government of the Czech Republic, 2004
[14] Ibid, 2004; Vargová, 2006
[15] Interpol, 2006
[16] Government of Denmark, 2004
[17] Interpol, 2006
[18] Amnesty International, 2006
[19] Interpol, 2006
[20] Oxfam America, 2006
[21] Government of the Republic of the Philippines, 1997, 2004
[22] Ibid, 2004
[23] Interpol, 2006; Platek, 2005
[24] Platek, 2005
[25] Gruszczynska, 2007
[26] Interpol, 2006

Appendix III
Supplementary Data Tables

Table III.1 Lifetime and one-year prevalence of violence by men since the age of 16

	Lifetime prevalence						One-year prevalence					
	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.
Australia	48	(0.6)	34	(0.6)	57	(0.6)	8	(0.3)	4	(0.2)	10	(0.4)
Costa Rica	47	(1.7)	41	(1.7)	60	(1.7)	11	(1.0)	7	(0.9)	15	(1.2)
Czech Republic	51	(1.1)	35	(1.1)	58	(1.1)	12	(0.7)	5	(0.5)	14	(0.8)
Denmark	38	(0.8)	28	(0.7)	50	(0.8)	4	(0.3)	2	(0.2)	5	(0.4)
Hong Kong	12	(0.9)	14	(1.0)	21	(1.1)	2	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	4	(0.6)
Mozambique	48	(1.1)	24	(1.0)	55	(1.1)	17	(0.8)	9	(0.7)	22	(0.9)
Philippines	15	(0.7)	6	(0.5)	17	(0.7)	5	(0.4)	2	(0.3)	6	(0.5)
Poland	30	(1.0)	17	(0.8)	35	(1.1)	5	(0.5)	2	(0.3)	6	(0.5)
Switzerland	27	(1.0)	25	(1.0)	39	(1.1)	1	(0.3)	1	(0.3)	2	(0.3)

Table III.2 Lifetime and one-year prevalence of violence by intimate partners

	Lifetime prevalence						One-year prevalence					
	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.
Australia	25	(0.5)	8	(0.3)	27	(0.6)	4	(0.2)	1	(0.1)	4	(0.3)
Costa Rica	33	(1.6)	15	(1.3)	36	(1.7)	7	(0.9)	3	(0.6)	8	(0.9)
Czech Republic	35	(1.1)	11	(0.7)	37	(1.1)	8	(0.6)	2	(0.3)	9	(0.6)
Denmark	20	(0.7)	6	(0.4)	22	(0.7)	1	(0.2)	0*	(0.1)	1	(0.2)
Hong Kong	6	(0.7)	5	(0.6)	9	(0.9)	1*	(0.3)	1*	(0.3)	2	(0.4)
Mozambique	36	(1.1)	12	(0.8)	40	(1.2)	15	(0.8)	6	(0.6)	18	(0.9)
Philippines	10	(0.6)	3	(0.3)	10	(0.6)	3	(0.4)	1*	(0.2)	3	(0.4)
Poland	15	(0.8)	5	(0.5)	16	(0.8)	3	(0.4)	0*	(0.2)	3	(0.4)
Switzerland	9	(0.7)	3	(0.4)	10	(0.7)	1*	(0.2)	-	-	1*	(0.2)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.3 Lifetime prevalence of violence by type of partner

	Current partner						Previous partner					
	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.
Australia	8	(0.4)	1	(0.1)	8	(0.4)	25	(0.6)	10	(0.4)	27	(0.6)
Costa Rica	20	(1.6)	6	(1.0)	20	(1.6)	32	(2.1)	18	(1.7)	37	(2.2)
Czech Republic	15	(0.9)	3	(0.4)	16	(0.9)	36	(1.4)	14	(1.0)	38	(1.4)
Denmark	3	(0.3)	0*	(0.1)	3	(0.3)	23	(0.8)	7	(0.5)	25	(0.8)
Hong Kong	3	(0.5)	3	(0.5)	5	(0.7)	7	(1.0)	5	(0.8)	10	(1.1)
Mozambique	28	(1.2)	10	(0.8)	31	(1.2)	23	(1.3)	6	(0.7)	25	(1.4)
Philippines	6	(0.6)	1	(0.3)	7	(0.6)	13	(1.6)	4	(0.9)	13	(1.6)
Poland	7	(0.7)	1	(0.3)	7	(0.7)	27	(1.7)	12	(1.2)	29	(1.7)
Switzerland	2	(0.3)	0*	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	11	(0.9)	4	(0.5)	12	(0.9)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

Table III.4 Lifetime and one-year prevalence of violence by non-partners

	Lifetime prevalence						One-year prevalence					
	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.
Australia	21	(0.5)	18	(0.5)	31	(0.6)	4	(0.3)	3	(0.2)	7	(0.3)
Costa Rica	23	(1.4)	31	(1.6)	42	(1.7)	4	(0.7)	5	(0.7)	9	(1.0)
Czech Republic	21	(0.9)	25	(1.0)	35	(1.1)	4	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	6	(0.6)
Denmark	22	(0.7)	23	(0.7)	37	(0.8)	3	(0.3)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.3)
Hong Kong	7	(0.7)	9	(0.8)	13	(0.9)	2	(0.3)	2	(0.4)	3	(0.5)
Mozambique	12	(0.7)	11	(0.7)	19	(0.9)	3	(0.4)	4	(0.4)	7	(0.6)
Philippines	7	(0.5)	4	(0.4)	10	(0.6)	2	(0.3)	1	(0.2)	3	(0.3)
Poland	19	(0.9)	12	(0.7)	25	(1.0)	2	(0.3)	1	(0.2)	3	(0.4)
Switzerland	17	(0.8)	21	(0.9)	31	(1.0)	1*	(0.2)	1	(0.2)	2	(0.3)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

Table III.5 Lifetime prevalence of violence by various non-partners

	Relative						Friend/acquaintance						Stranger					
	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.	Physical violence	S.E.	Sexual violence	S.E.	Any violence	S.E.
Australia	6	(0.3)	1	(0.1)	6	(0.3)	8	(0.3)	12	(0.4)	17	(0.5)	10	(0.4)	7	(0.3)	15	(0.4)
Costa Rica	11	(1.0)	6	(0.8)	14	(1.2)	7	(0.9)	11	(1.0)	14	(1.2)	7	(0.9)	19	(1.3)	24	(1.4)
Czech Republic	7	(0.6)	2	(0.3)	8	(0.6)	7	(0.6)	13	(0.8)	17	(0.8)	10	(0.7)	13	(0.8)	19	(0.9)
Denmark	3	(0.3)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.3)	7	(0.4)	12	(0.5)	17	(0.6)	15	(0.6)	11	(0.5)	23	(0.7)
Hong Kong	2	(0.4)	-	-	3	(0.5)	2	(0.4)	4	(0.5)	5	(0.6)	3	(0.5)	6	(0.6)	8	(0.7)
Mozambique	3	(0.4)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.4)	5	(0.5)	6	(0.5)	9	(0.7)	5	(0.5)	4	(0.5)	8	(0.6)
Philippines	4	(0.4)	1*	(0.1)	5	(0.4)	2	(0.3)	2	(0.3)	3	(0.4)	2	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	3	(0.4)
Poland	4	(0.5)	1*	(0.2)	5	(0.5)	7	(0.6)	7	(0.6)	12	(0.7)	10	(0.7)	5	(0.5)	13	(0.7)
Switzerland	3	(0.4)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.4)	7	(0.6)	13	(0.8)	18	(0.9)	8	(0.6)	8	(0.6)	14	(0.8)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.6 Lifetime prevalence of various types of physical violence by intimate partners

	Threats		Thrown		Pushed/grabbed		Slapped/hit		Strangled		Gun/knife		Other physical	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	19	(0.5)	16	(0.5)	19	(0.5)	15	(0.4)	5	(0.3)	5	(0.3)	2	(0.2)
Costa Rica	21	(1.4)	17	(1.3)	9	(1.0)	20	(1.4)	7	(0.9)	8	(1.0)	3	(0.6)
Czech Republic	24	(1.0)	16	(0.8)	23	(1.0)	26	(1.0)	4	(0.5)	3	(0.4)	4	(0.4)
Denmark	11	(0.5)	8	(0.5)	12	(0.5)	10	(0.5)	3	(0.3)	2	(0.2)	1	(0.1)
Hong Kong	2	(0.4)	2	(0.4)	3	(0.5)	3	(0.5)	-	-	1*	(0.2)	-	-
Mozambique	12	(0.8)	6	(0.6)	13	(0.8)	32	(1.1)	5	(0.5)	2	(0.3)	1*	(0.2)
Philippines	5	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	4	(0.4)	7	(0.5)	1	(0.2)	1	(0.3)	-	-
Poland	7	(0.6)	8	(0.6)	12	(0.7)	10	(0.7)	3	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	2	(0.3)
Switzerland	5	(0.5)	-	-	4	(0.5)	5	(0.5)	1	(0.3)	1	(0.3)	-	-

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.7 Lifetime prevalence of various types of sexual violence by intimate partners

	Rape		Attempted rape		Sexual touching		Forced sexual activity with someone else		Other sexual	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	6	(0.3)	3	(0.2)	4	(0.2)	1	(0.1)	1	(0.1)
Costa Rica	9	(1.0)	8	(1.0)	7	(0.9)	1*	(0.3)	2	(0.5)
Czech Republic	7	(0.6)	6	(0.6)	5	(0.5)	1*	(0.2)	-	-
Denmark	2	(0.2)	2	(0.2)	4	(0.3)	0*	(0.1)	0*	(0.1)
Hong Kong	2	(0.4)	1*	(0.3)	3	(0.5)	-	-	-	-
Mozambique	7	(0.6)	5	(0.5)	4	(0.4)	-	-	1*	(0.2)
Philippines	2	(0.3)	2	(0.3)	1*	(0.2)	-	-	-	-
Poland	3	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	-	-	0*	(0.1)
Switzerland	2	(0.3)	1	(0.2)	1*	(0.2)	-	-	-	-

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.8 Lifetime prevalence of various types of physical violence by non-partners

	Threats		Threw		Pushed/grabbed		Slapped/hit		Strangled		Gun/knife		Other physical	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	17	(0.5)	5	(0.3)	10	(0.4)	4	(0.3)	1	(0.1)	4	(0.2)	1	(0.1)
Costa Rica	12	(1.1)	9	(1.0)	-	-	5	(0.8)	1*	(0.4)	5	(0.7)	3	(0.5)
Czech Republic	13	(0.8)	4	(0.4)	10	(0.7)	7	(0.6)	1	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	3	(0.4)
Denmark	14	(0.6)	4	(0.3)	8	(0.5)	4	(0.3)	1	(0.2)	3	(0.3)	1	(0.2)
Hong Kong	2	(0.4)	3	(0.5)	3	(0.4)	2	(0.4)	-	-	1*	(0.3)	-	-
Mozambique	6	(0.5)	3	(0.4)	3	(0.4)	5	(0.5)	1*	(0.2)	4	(0.4)	1*	(0.2)
Philippines	3	(0.3)	2	(0.3)	2	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	-	-	1	(0.2)	-	-
Poland	12	(0.7)	5	(0.5)	9	(0.6)	4	(0.4)	1*	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	1	(0.3)
Switzerland	9	(0.7)	-	-	7	(0.6)	6	(0.5)	1	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	-	-

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.9 Lifetime prevalence of various types of sexual violence by non-partners

	Rape		Attempted rape		Sexual touching		Forced sexual activity with someone else		Other sexual	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	4	(0.2)	7	(0.3)	21	(0.5)	1	(0.1)	1	(0.1)
Costa Rica	3	(0.6)	8	(0.9)	25	(1.5)	1*	(0.3)	6	(0.8)
Czech Republic	3	(0.4)	8	(0.6)	23	(0.9)	1*	(0.2)	1	(0.2)
Denmark	2	(0.2)	4	(0.3)	19	(0.7)	-	-	0*	(0.1)
Hong Kong	1*	(0.2)	1*	(0.3)	10	(0.8)	-	-	-	-
Mozambique	3	(0.4)	4	(0.4)	6	(0.6)	3	(0.4)	1*	(0.2)
Philippines	1	(0.2)	1	(0.2)	3	(0.3)	0*	(0.1)	-	-
Poland	1*	(0.2)	5	(0.5)	7	(0.6)	-	-	2	(0.3)
Switzerland	4	(0.4)	5	(0.5)	17	(0.8)	-	-	-	-

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.10 Percentage of respondents for whom the most recent incident of violence was serious

	Intimate partner violence		Non-partner violence	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	74	(0.9)	64	(0.9)
Costa Rica	86	(2.0)	77	(2.2)
Czech Republic	69	(1.7)	49	(1.9)
Denmark	60	(1.7)	47	(1.4)
Hong Kong	51	(4.8)	46	(3.6)
Mozambique	76	(1.6)	80	(2.0)
Philippines	59	(3.3)	58	(3.1)
Poland	90	(1.7)	85	(1.6)

Table III.11 Percentage of respondents saying the most recent incident was a crime, wrong but not a crime, or something that just happens

	Intimate partner violence						Non-partner violence					
	Crime		Wrong, but not a crime		Something that happens		Crime		Wrong, but not a crime		Something that happens	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	25	(0.9)	38	(1.0)	35	(1.0)	28	(0.9)	40	(0.9)	31	(0.9)
Costa Rica	41	(2.9)	44	(2.9)	12	(1.9)	46	(2.6)	41	(2.6)	12	(1.7)
Czech Republic	21	(1.5)	32	(1.7)	34	(1.8)	21	(1.5)	27	(1.7)	41	(1.9)
Denmark	28	(1.6)	49	(1.8)	19	(1.4)	28	(1.2)	51	(1.4)	20	(1.1)
Hong Kong	15	(3.4)	37	(4.6)	45	(4.8)	44	(3.6)	19	(2.8)	33	(3.4)
Mozambique	21	(1.5)	47	(1.9)	31	(1.7)	45	(2.4)	36	(2.3)	18	(1.9)
Philippines	21	(2.7)	59	(3.3)	17	(2.5)	29	(2.9)	47	(3.2)	21	(2.6)
Poland	39	(2.8)	39	(2.8)	19	(2.3)	36	(2.1)	39	(2.2)	24	(1.9)

Table III.12 Percentage of respondents who were in the need of medical attention after the most recent incident

	Intimate partner violence				Non-partner violence			
	Injured		Needed medical attention		Injured		Needed medical attention	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	40	(1.0)	17	(1.0)	16	(0.7)	8	(0.7)
Costa Rica	36	(2.8)	16	(2.1)	17	(2.0)	5	(1.2)
Czech Republic	53	(1.9)	15	(1.3)	29	(1.7)	8	(1.0)
Denmark	29	(1.6)	11	(1.1)	11	(0.8)	4	(0.6)
Hong Kong	32	(4.5)	12*	(3.1)	13	(2.4)	5*	(1.5)
Mozambique	24	(1.6)	-	-	20	(2.0)	2*	(0.7)
Philippines	46	(3.3)	18	(2.6)	21	(2.6)	9	(1.8)
Poland	50	(2.9)	23	(2.4)	21	(1.8)	5	(0.9)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.13 Percentage of the most recent cases of violence that were reported to the police

	Intimate partner violence						Non-partner violence					
	Physical violence		Sexual violence		Any violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence		Any violence	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	16	(0.9)	6	(1.2)	14	(0.7)	27	(1.3)	7	(0.7)	16	(0.7)
Costa Rica	18	(2.9)	16*	(3.9)	17	(2.2)	20	(3.9)	6*	(1.5)	10	(1.6)
Czech Republic	8	(1.2)	9*	(2.2)	8	(1.0)	15	(2.2)	8	(1.3)	11	(1.2)
Denmark	14	(2.3)	11	(2.5)	12	(1.2)	25	(3.3)	6	(1.0)	14	(1.0)
Hong Kong	20*	(5.0)	-	-	13*	(3.2)	26	(5.2)	-	-	12	(2.4)
Mozambique	7	(1.3)	10*	(2.7)	7	(1.1)	16	(3.5)	13*	(3.5)	15	(2.4)
Philippines	-	-	-	-	11	(2.1)	-	-	-	-	13	(2.1)
Poland	29	(2.9)	39	(6.6)	31	(2.7)	25	(2.6)	4*	(1.2)	16	(1.6)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.14 Percentage of the most recent cases of violence where police was informed, charges were brought against the offender, and the offender was convicted

	Intimate partner violence						Non-partner violence					
	Reported		Charges brought		Convicted		Reported		Charges brought		Convicted	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	14	(0.7)	4	(0.5)	4	(0.5)	16	(0.7)	7	(0.7)	5	(0.6)
Costa Rica	17	(2.2)	-	-	-	-	10	(1.6)	4*	(1.0)	2*	(0.7)
Czech Republic	8	(1.0)	3	(0.7)	3	(0.7)	10	(1.2)	4	(0.8)	2*	(0.6)
Denmark	12	(1.2)	3	(0.7)	3	(0.7)	14	(1.0)	3	(0.5)	2	(0.4)
Hong Kong	12*	(3.2)	-	-	-	-	12	(2.4)	-	-	-	-
Mozambique	7	(1.1)	2*	(0.5)	2*	(0.5)	17	(2.5)	3*	(0.8)	-	-
Philippines	11	(2.1)	-	-	-	-	13	(2.1)	5*	(1.4)	-	-
Poland	31	(2.7)	10	(1.7)	10	(1.7)	16	(1.6)	3	(0.8)	2*	(0.7)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.15 Percentage of respondents satisfied with police when reporting the most recent incident

	Intimate partner violence						Non-partner violence					
	Satisfied		Not satisfied		Don't know		Satisfied		Not satisfied		Don't know	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	59	(2.9)	33	(2.7)	8	(1.6)	64	(2.3)	32	(2.2)	4	(0.9)
Costa Rica	36	(6.9)	61	(7.0)	-	-	48	(8.3)	41	(8.2)	-	-
Czech Republic	27	(5.5)	57	(6.2)	17*	(4.6)	39	(5.8)	43	(5.8)	18*	(4.5)
Denmark	54	(5.8)	43	(5.7)	-	-	67	(4.0)	31	(3.9)	-	-
Hong Kong	61	(13.8)	-	-	-	-	76	(9.1)	-	-	-	-
Mozambique	68	(7.0)	32	(7.0)	-	-	50	(7.3)	50	(7.3)	-	-
Philippines	94	(4.9)	-	-	-	-	68	(8.9)	27*	(8.4)	-	-
Poland	44	(5.2)	51	(5.2)	-	-	36	(5.4)	58	(5.6)	-	-

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.16 Percentage of victims of intimate partner violence who talked about the most recent incident with someone, and percentage of those who did not talk to anyone

	Family member, relative		Friend, neighbour		Professional		Other		Talked to no-one	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	44	(1.1)	56	(1.1)	32	(1.0)	3	(0.4)	25	(0.9)
Costa Rica	54	(2.9)	37	(2.8)	34	(2.8)	6	(1.4)	21	(2.4)
Czech Republic	44	(1.9)	55	(1.9)	26	(1.7)	2*	(0.5)	25	(1.7)
Denmark	46	(1.8)	55	(1.8)	23	(1.5)	3	(0.7)	26	(1.6)
Hong Kong	37	(4.7)	36	(4.7)	14*	(3.4)	-	-	39	(4.8)
Mozambique	53	(1.9)	7	(1.0)	10	(1.2)	1*	(0.5)	39	(1.9)
Philippines	81	(2.7)	18	(2.6)	24	(2.9)	-	-	9	(1.9)
Poland	71	(2.6)	44	(2.9)	41	(2.8)	-	-	15	(2.1)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.17 Percentage of victims of non-partner violence who talked about the most recent incident with someone, and percentage of those who did not talk to anyone

	Family member, relative		Friend, neighbour		Professional		Other		Talked to no-one	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	53	(1.0)	64	(0.9)	27	(0.8)	3	(0.3)	16	(0.7)
Costa Rica	65	(2.5)	35	(2.5)	17	(2.0)	10	(1.6)	17	(2.0)
Czech Republic	40	(1.9)	56	(1.9)	17	(1.5)	2*	(0.6)	24	(1.7)
Denmark	51	(1.4)	65	(1.3)	20	(1.1)	3	(0.5)	17	(1.0)
Hong Kong	46	(3.6)	54	(3.6)	15	(2.6)	7*	(1.9)	23	(3.1)
Mozambique	53	(2.7)	10	(1.6)	18	(2.1)	3*	(0.9)	32	(2.5)
Philippines	78	(2.7)	16	(2.4)	27	(2.8)	-	-	7	(1.7)
Poland	61	(2.2)	52	(2.2)	19	(1.8)	2*	(0.6)	20	(1.8)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.18 Place where the most recent incident of intimate partner violence took place

	Current partner				Previous partner			
	Home		Other place		Home		Other place	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	90	(1.3)	10	(1.3)	76	(1.0)	23	(1.0)
Costa Rica	93	(2.3)	7*	(2.3)	77	(3.2)	23	(3.2)
Czech Republic	89	(2.0)	11	(2.0)	86	(1.6)	12	(1.5)
Denmark	81	(4.7)	16*	(4.3)	85	(1.4)	14	(1.4)
Hong Kong	96	(3.0)	-	-	79	(5.5)	20*	(5.3)
Mozambique	96	(0.9)	4	(0.9)	90	(1.7)	10	(1.7)
Philippines	93	(2.1)	7*	(2.1)	88	(3.6)	12*	(3.6)
Poland	97	(1.5)	-	-	85	(2.7)	15	(2.7)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.19 Place where the most recent incident of non-partner violence took place

	Stranger				Friend, acquaintance, relative			
	Home		Other place		Home		Other place	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	6	(1.0)	94	(1.0)	40	(1.6)	59	(1.6)
Costa Rica	-	-	97	(1.3)	53	(4.1)	47	(4.1)
Czech Republic	7	(1.5)	93	(1.6)	33	(2.4)	66	(2.4)
Denmark	7	(1.0)	93	(1.1)	37	(2.0)	63	(2.0)
Hong Kong	10*	(3.0)	89	(3.2)	47	(5.6)	46	(5.6)
Mozambique	23	(3.4)	61	(3.9)	47	(3.2)	49	(3.2)
Philippines	13*	(4.1)	87	(4.1)	63	(3.7)	37	(3.7)
Poland	3*	(1.1)	97	(1.1)	43	(3.1)	57	(3.1)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50
- Estimates based on sample counts under five are not reported

Table III.20 Percentage of respondents who experienced physical violence by a parent before the age of 16

	Father physically violent		Mother physically violent		Total physical violence by a parent	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	13	(0.4)	8	(0.3)	18	(0.5)
Costa Rica	25	(1.5)	29	(1.6)	40	(1.7)
Czech Republic	16	(0.8)	11	(0.7)	22	(0.9)
Philippines	7	(0.5)	4	(0.4)	9	(0.6)
Poland	11	(0.7)	8	(0.6)	15	(0.8)
Switzerland	13	(0.8)	10	(0.7)	19	(0.9)

Table III.21 Percentage of respondents who experienced sexual violence before the age of 16, by type of perpetrator

	Immediate family member		Other relative		Other person		Sexual violence in childhood, all perpetrators	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	3	(0.2)	4	(0.2)	11	(0.4)	18	(0.5)
Costa Rica	5	(0.8)	7	(0.9)	9	(1.0)	22	(1.4)
Czech Republic	1	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	5	(0.5)	7	(0.6)
Philippines	0*	(0.1)	0*	(0.1)	0*	(0.1)	1	(0.2)
Poland	0*	(0.1)	1*	(0.2)	3	(0.4)	4	(0.4)
Switzerland	1	(0.2)	2	(0.3)	8	(0.6)	11	(0.7)

*Relative standard error is between 25 and 50

Appendix IV
International Violence Against Women Survey Questionnaire

A Control Form

A1 Good morning/afternoon/evening, I am an interviewer for the survey company . . . . . .

IF MALE VOICE: Please can I speak to ANY women aged 18 years or over in your household.

IF MALE ASKS WHAT IT IS ABOUT: We are contacting women at the request of the United Nations to conduct a survey.

IF NOT AVAILABLE RECORD RESPONDENT STATUS IN QUESTION A9.

IF FEMALE VOICE ON PHONE: We are conducting a survey for the . . . . . at the request of the United Nations about women's personal safety.

The survey is part of an international project that is being carried out in many countries. May I ask you some questions? Your answers will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Your input will be valuable if you chose to do the survey.

(IF RESPONDENT IS SUSPICIOUS OR DOUBTFUL) If you want to check whether this survey is being carried out for the United Nations by . . . . . ., or if you would like more information, you can ring . . . . . on . . . . . during business hours.

A2 First, can I just check that this is a private household? Private households include shared or group households, and living or boarding with friends or relatives.
<<INTERVIEWER NOTE: PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS DO NOT INCLUDE BUSINESS, SCHOOLS, HOSPITALS, NURSING HOMES, PRISONS, MILITARY BARRACKS, AND OTHER NON-PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS>>

1 Yes, private household
2 No, not private household

IF NOT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD (CODE 2), TERMINATE SAYING:
Thank you for you time, but we need to speak to private households

A3 The answer to the next question is needed in order to determine which person in your household is to be interviewed. Thinking about your household as people sharing the same address and using the same kitchen. How many women aged 18 years or over are there in your household?

____ Number of women aged 18 years or over
0 None
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If only one woman aged 18 years or over, go to A5. If many women, go to A4. Else thank and screen out.

A4 Could I now interview the FEMALE person in your household aged 18 years but under 70 years whose birthday is next?

(IF PERSON AVAILABLE GO TO QUESTION A5)

(IF PERSON NOT AVAILABLE) Can you tell me at what time I have the best chance of contacting her?

(IF SELECTED RESPONDENT IS DIFFERENT FROM THE FIRST PERSON CONTACTED IN THE HOUSEHOLD) Good morning/ afternoon/evening, I am an interviewer for the survey company ..... We are conducting a survey for ..... at the request of the UNITED NATIONS about women's personal safety. The survey is part of an international project and is being carried out in many countries.

A5 The United Nations has initiated this study because they find it very important to have information about the safety of women around the world. I am going to ask you some questions about your own experience of personal safety. The same questions are asked for women in all the countries that participate in the study. This is why some questions might seem a bit awkward to you. You don't have to answer any question you don't want to. All of your answers will be treated as strictly confidential and none of the survey results will be reported in a way that can be traced back to you. Your participation is voluntary, but VERY important if the survey results are to be accurate.

It is important that you have some privacy when answering the questions so that you can have peace to think your responses through thoroughly. Can we talk undisturbed now or would you prefer that I call/come back some other time?

IF YES, CONTINUE INTERVIEW

IF NO, RESCHEDULE OR RELOCATE INTERVIEW

A6 Just to establish the make-up of your household, can you tell me who is living in your household starting with the eldest household member? Who else? Anyone else?

<< KEEP PROBING UNTIL ALL HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS HAVE BEEN IDENTIFIED>>
<< INT NOTE: CHILDREN INCLUDE STEP CHILDREN, ADOPTED & FOSTER CHILDREN>>

	Partner	Children under 18	Children 18 years or more	R's parents or parents-in-law	R's other relatives or in-laws	Other (inc'g lodgers, domestics, etc
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						

A7 In which year were you born?

____ Year
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If A7=98 or 99, go to A8. Else go to section B.

A8 For demographic purposes, would you mind telling me your approximate age please?
<<READ OUT IF REQUIRED>>

1 18 – 24
2 25 – 29
3 30 – 34
4 35 – 39
5 40 – 44
6 45 – 49
7 50 – 54
8 55 – 59
9 60 – 64
10 65 - 69
99 Refused/No answer

Go to section B.

A9 Summary Information About Respondent Selection and Participation:
<<INTERVIEWER: TO BE FILLED IN EITHER AFTER COMPLETION OF THE INTERVIEW OR UPON REFUSAL/IMPOSSIBILITY TO CARRY IT OUT>>

NUMBER OF VISITS/TELEPHONE CALLS (insert actual number) ___

REFUSED INTERVIEW: REASONS FOR NOT PARTICIPATING

(RESPONSE CATEGORIES INCLUDE BOTH CATI AND FACE-TOFACE-CATEGORIES)

1 The telephone number/address does not exist
2 Answering machine
3 No answer / no reply
4 Non-working number / telstra /optus announcement
5 Regular busy signal / engaged
6 Fax, modem, pager/mobile
7 No eligible respondent/no female aged 18 or over

8 Household refusal (no reason given / 'hung up')
9 Household refusal: lack of time
10 Household refusal: previous bad experiences
11 Household refusal: does not participate in interviews in general
12 Household refusal: because of the subject
13 Household refusal: due to language difficulties
14 Household refusal: other reasons, specify

15 Respondent refusal (no reason given / 'hung up')
16 Respondent refusal: lack of time
17 Respondent refusals: previous bad experiences
18 Respondent refusal: does not participate in interviews in general
19 Respondent refusal: because of the subject
20 Respondent refusal: due to language difficulties
21 Respondent refusal: other reasons, specify

<<INCLUDE CASES WHETHER THE INTERVIEW WAS TERMINATED BEFORE ITS COMPLETION>>

B Marital Status and Respondent Characteristics

Now I would like to ask some additional information about yourself. This is to help us understand the results of the survey better.

B1 Are you currently married?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B1=1, go to B2. Else go to B4.

B2 Are you living with your husband at least some of the time?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B2=1, go to B6. Else go to B3.

B3 Are you separated?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B3=2, go to B6. Else go to B4.

B4 Are you living together with a man without being formally married to him?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B4=1, go to B6. Else go to B5.

B5 Are you involved in a relationship with a man without living together?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

B6 Thinking now about your past relationships (and excluding your current marriage or relationship), have you EVER . . . . . .
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Been married
2 Lived together with a man without being formally married to him
3 Been involved with a man in a relationship without living together
4 None of the above (no previous relationship) (DO NOT READ)
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If B6=1, go to B7. Else go to B8.

B7 Have you ever been widowed?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

B8 How would you describe your current level of education?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>

1
2
3
4

5
6 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

B9 Which of the following best describes your ethnic background/nationality?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>
<<READ OUT>>

1
2
3
4
5
6 Other (specify) (DO NOT READ)_____
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

OPTIONAL:

B10a What is your religion?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>

1
2
3
4
5 Other (specify) _____
6 None
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B10a = 6 or 98 or 99, go to B10b. Else go to B11.

OPTIONAL:

B10b Do you practice your religion?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

B11 Most people drink sometimes – either beer, wine or other alcohol. How often do you drink so much that you get drunk?
<< INTERVIEWER: THIS REFERS TO CURRENT LEVEL OF DRINKING>>

1 Never drinks
2 Drinks, but never gets drunk
3 Gets drunk a couple of times a year
4 Gets drunk a couple of times a month
5 Gets drunk once or twice a week
6 Gets drunk every day or almost every day
7 Other (specify)_____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

B12 Do you work for pay either at home or outside the home?

1 Yes, at home
2 Yes, outside the home
3 Yes, both at home and outside the home
4 Does not work for pay
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B12=4, go to B13. Else go to B14.

B13 Do you have other sources of income (e.g. government benefits, pension, income from investments, child support payments, or income from rented property)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If B12=4, 98 or 99, AND B13=2, 98 or 99, go to section C. Else go to B14.

B14 We are interested in the financial arrangements you have in your household. Do you decide how to spend either all or some of the money you earn, or money that comes to you?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

Go to section C.

C Experiences of Violence

In the next section, I will be asking you some questions about your personal experiences of abusive behaviour in relationships. Some of the questions may be difficult for you to answer and you are under no obligation to respond. However, your

answers are very important whether or not any of these things have happened to you. They will help us to better understand the experiences of women around the world and to prevent violence against women.

I would like to begin by asking you to think carefully about ALL MEN, including men you have known, such as friends and relatives, men you have met casually, your husband or partner, previous husbands or partners, as well as male strangers:

C1a Since you were 16 or older, has ANY MAN ever THREATENED to hurt you physically in a way that frightened you? Please keep in mind that we are focussing here only on threats to hurt you.

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C1a=1, go to C1b. Else go to C2a.

C1b Was the person who threatened to hurt you. . . . . .
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>
<<INTERVIEWER NOTE: STRANGER IS SOMEONE THEY HAD NEVER SEEN BEFORE THE INCIDENT. A FIRST DATE SHOULD BE CODED AS AN ACQUAINTANCE>>
<<IF UNCLEAR: CURRENT AND PREVIOUS PARTNERS AS THEY ARE AT THE MOMENT OF THE INTERVIEW, NOT AS THEY WERE AT THE TIME OF THE INCIDENT(S)>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C1b=98 or 99, go to C2a. Else go to C1c.

C1c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C1B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C1d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C1B>>

	Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5 Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7 Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C1d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C1e. Else go to C2a.

C1e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C1B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C2a Since the age of 16, has any man ever THROWN SOMETHING AT YOU OR HIT you with something that hurt or frightened you?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C2a=1, go to C2b. Else go to C3a

C2b Was this person. . . . . .
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C2b=98 or 99, go to C3a. Else go to C2c.

C2c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C2B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C2d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C2B>>

		Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5	Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7	Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C2d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C2e. Else go to C3a.

C2e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C2B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C3a (Since the age of 16,) Has any man PUSHED OR GRABBED YOU OR TWISTED YOUR ARM OR PULLED YOUR HAIR in a way that hurt or frightened you?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C3a=1, go to C3b. Else go to C4a.

C3b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner

2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C3b=98 or 99, go to C4a. Else go to C3c.

C3c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C3B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C3d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C3B>>

	Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5 Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7 Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C3d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C3e. Else go to C4a.

C3e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C3B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C4a (Since the age of 16,) Has any man SLAPPED, KICKED, BIT OR HIT YOU WITH A FIST?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C4a=1, go to C4b. Else go to C5a.

C4b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C4b=98 or 99, go to C5a. Else go to C4c.

C4c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C4B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C4d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C4B>>

		Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5	Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7	Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C4d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C4e. Else go to C5a.

C4e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C4B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C5a (Since the age of 16,) has any man tried to STRANGLE OR SUFFOCATE YOU, BURN OR SCALD you on purpose?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C5a=1, go to C5b. Else go to C6a.

C5b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C5b=98 or 99, go to C6a. Else go to C5c.

C5c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C5B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C5d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C5B>>

		Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5	Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7	Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C5d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C5e. Else go to C6a.

C5e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C5B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C6a (Since the age of 16,) Has any man used or threatened to use a KNIFE OR GUN on you?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C6a=1, go to C6b. Else go to C7a.

C6b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner

3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C6b=98 or 99, go to C7a. Else go to C6c.

C6c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C6B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C6d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C6B>>

	Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5 Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7 Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C6d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C6e. Else go to C7a.

C6e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C6B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C7a (Since the age of 16,) Excluding sexual violence, has any man ever been physically violent towards you in a way that I have not already mentioned?

1 Yes, specify _____
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C7a=1, go to C7b. Else go to C8a.

C7b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C7b=98 or 99, go to C8a. Else go to C7c.

C7c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C7B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C7d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C7B>>

	Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5 Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7 Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C7d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C7e. Else go to C8a.

C7e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C7B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C8a Now I would like to ask you about other unwanted experiences you may have had. Again, I want you to think about any man at all, including strangers, your husband or partner, men you have known, such as relatives, previous intimate partners, and men you have met casually. Your answers are important here too. Can you tell me if any of the following have happened to you?

(Since the age of 16,) Has a man ever FORCED YOU INTO SEXUAL INTERCOURSE by threatening you, holding you down, or hurting you in some way? Remember to include husbands and other intimate partners. Please at this point exclude ATTEMPTS to force you.

(IF NECESSARY: We define sexual intercourse as forced oral sex, forced anal or vaginal penetration.)

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C8a=1, go to C8b. Else go to C9a.

C8b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C8b=98 or 99, go to C9a. Else go to C8c.

C8c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C8B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C8d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C8B>>

	Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5 Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7 Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C8d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C8e. Else go to C9a.

C8e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C8B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C9a (Apart from anything you have just mentioned,) (Since the age of 16,) Has any man ever ATTEMPTED TO FORCE YOU INTO SEXUAL

INTERCOURSE by threatening you, holding you down or hurting you in some way? This is an attempt where sexual intercourse did not take place.

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C9a=1, go to C9b. Else go to C10a.

C9b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C9b=98 or 99, go to C10a. Else go to C9c.

C9c How many times did ..... do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C9B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C9d When was the most recent time that ..... did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C9B>>

		Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5	Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7	Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C9d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C9e. Else go to C10a.

C9e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C9B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C10a (Besides anything you have already mentioned,) (Since the age of 16,) Has any man ever TOUCHED YOU SEXUALLY when you did not want him to in a way that was DISTRESSING to you?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C10a=1, go to C10b. Else go to C11a.

C10b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C10b=98 or 99, go to C11a. Else go to C10c.

C10c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C10B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C10d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C10B>>

	Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5 Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7 Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C10d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C10e. Else go to C11a.

C10e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C10B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C11a (Since the age of 16,) Has any man ever forced or attempted to force you into SEXUAL ACTIVITY WITH SOMEONE ELSE, including being forced to have sex for money or in exchange for goods?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C11a=1, go to C11b. Else go to C12a.

C11b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C11b=98 or 99, go to C12a. Else go to C11c.

C11c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C11B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C11d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C11B>>

		Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5	Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7	Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C11d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C11e. Else go to C12a.

C11e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C11B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C12a (Since the age of 16,) Has any man ever been sexually violent towards you in a way that I have not already mentioned?

1 Yes, specify _____
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If C12a=1, go to C12b. Else go to C13.

C12b Was this person.....
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Current husband, partner
2 Previous husband, partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
5 Other relative, specify _____
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague
7 Stranger
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If C12b=98 or 99, go to C13. Else go to C12c.

C12c How many times did . . . . . do this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C12B>>

	No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2 Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3 Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4 Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5 Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6 Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7 Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C12d When was the most recent time that . . . . . did this?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C12B>>

		Within 12 months	1 to 5 years ago	6 to 10 years ago	11–20 years ago	More than 20 years ago	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
5	Other relative	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	1	2	3	4	5	98	99
7	Stranger	1	2	3	4	5	98	99

If C12d(within 12 months)=1 for any perpetrator, go to C12e. Else go to C13.

C12e How many times did . . . . . do this within the last 12 months? <<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT C12B>>

		No. of incidents	1–3 times a month	1–3 times a week	Every day/ almost every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Current husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Previous husband, partner	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Current boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Previous boyfriend	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Other relative	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Any other man you know such as an acquaintance, friend or work colleague	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Stranger	_____	2	3	4	98	99

C13 *If respondent reports any violence by men other than intimate partners - ie if C1b. . . C12b=5 or 6 or 7, go to section D.*

If respondent reports any violence by an intimate partner - ie if C1b. . . C12b=1 or 2 or 3 or 4, go to section E.

If B1=1 or B4=1 or B5=1, go to section G.

Else go to section I (or optional section H).

D Non-Partner Victimisation Report

IF SINGLE INCIDENT: We would now like to ask you some details about the incident you mentioned that involved a man other than a husband / partner or boyfriend.

IF MULTIPLE INCIDENTS: You mentioned several things that had happened to you involving a man other than a husband / partner or boyfriend. To save time, we will only ask about ONE incident, and this incident should be THE MOST RECENT incident that happened.

D1 Thinking of the most recent incident, which of the things that you mentioned happened during that incident?

		Yes	No	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Threatening to hurt you physically?	1	2	98	99
2	Throwing something at you or hitting you with something that hurt or frightened you?	1	2	98	99
3	Pushing or grabbing you or twisting your arm or pulling your hair in a way that really hurt or scared you?	1	2	98	99
4	Slapping, kicking, biting, or hitting you with a fist?	1	2	98	99
5	Strangling, trying to suffocate you, burning or scalding you on purpose?	1	2	98	99
6	Used or threatened to use a knife or gun on you?	1	2	98	99
7	Other physical violence?	1	2	98	99
8	Forced sexual intercourse?	1	2	98	99
9	Attempted forced sexual intercourse?	1	2	98	99
10	Sexual touching against your will?	1	2	98	99
11	Forced sexual activity with someone else?	1	2	98	99
12	Other sexual violence?	1	2	98	99

D2 Can I just check who was involved in that most recent incident?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Stranger
2 Acquaintance
3 Colleague
4 Client, patient
5 School mate
6 Teacher
7 Doctor
8 Friend
9 Neighbour
10 Father
11 Son

12 Other relative
13 Someone else known quite well
14 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

D3 How many men were involved (in this incident)?

1 One
2 Two
3 Three or more
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D4 Where did this (the most recent) incident occur?

1 Your own home or yard
2 His home or yard
3 Someone else's home or yard
4 Street, alley
5 Parking lot
6 Car
7 Work
8 Bar, dance club, pool hall
9 Rural areas, woods, park, campground
10 Other public building
11 School, college, campus
12 Public transit
13 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D4b In which country did it happen?

1 In _____ <<ADD THE NAME OF YOUR COUNTRY>>
2 Abroad
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D5 Had he (they) been using drugs/alcohol at the time of this incident?

1 Alcohol
2 Drugs
3 Alcohol and drugs
4 Neither
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D6 Did you feel that your life was in danger (during this incident)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D7 Were you physically injured?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If D7=1, go to D8. Else go to D10.

D8 What were your injuries?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Bruises
2 Cuts/scratches/burns etc.
3 Fractures
4 Head or brain injury
5 Broken bones, broken nose
6 Internal injuries
7 Miscarriage
8 Genital injury
9 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D9 Were you injured so badly that you needed medical care (even if you didn't get it)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D10 Have you ever used alcohol or medication to help you cope with this experience?

1 No
2 Yes, alcohol
3 Yes, medication
4 Yes, alcohol and medication
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D11 (In some countries agencies have been set up to help women with similar experiences.) In relation to this incident, did you contact a specialised agency, such as:
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>
<<MODIFY NATIONALLY ACCORDING TO EXISTING SERVICES – SO THAT THEY ROUGHLY CORRESPOND TO THE GIVEN CATEGORIES>>

1 Shelter or transition house
2 Crisis centre/crises line
3 Another counsellor
4 Women's centre
5 Community/family centre
6 Other (specify) (DO NOT READ) _____
7 Did not contact any agency (DO NOT READ)
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If D11=7, 98 or 99, go to D13. Else go to D12 (D13 in countries where D12 is omitted).

OPTIONAL:

D12 How helpful was the service in the shelter or transition house/crisis centre/. . . etc?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT R11>>

		Very helpful	Somewhat helpful	Not at all helpful	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Shelter or transition house	1	2	3	98	99
2	Crisis centre/crisis line	1	2	3	98	99
3	Another counselor	1	2	3	98	99
4	Women's centre	1	2	3	98	99
5	Community/family centre	1	2	3	98	99
6	Other (specify) _____	1	2	3	98	99

D13 Taking everything into account, how serious was this incident for you at the time? Was it very serious, somewhat serious or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Somewhat serious
3 Not very serious
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D14 Did you regard the incident as a crime, wrong but not a crime, or something that just happens?

1 A crime
2 Wrong but not a crime
3 Just something that happens
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D15 Did you or somebody else report this incident to the police or other judicial authorities?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If D15=1, go to D17.
If D15=2, go to D16.
Else go to D22.

D16 Why did you not report this incident to the police?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Dealt with it herself / Involved a friend / Family matter
2 Too minor / Not serious enough /Never occurred to her
3 Did not think the police would do anything
4 Did not think the police could do anything
5 Fear of offender / Fear of reprisals
6 Shame, embarrassment / Thought it was her fault
7 Didn't want anyone to know / Kept it private
8 Did not want offender arrested / in trouble with police
9 Would not be believed
10 Part of job / Goes with the job
11 Reported to someone else (specify) _____
12 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

Go to D22.

D17 What did the police do to help you?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Took a report
2 Suggested services to the respondent
3 Provided protection to the respondent (/arrested the man)
4 Provided information about legal services
5 Police did nothing
6 Something else (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D18 Were charges brought against him (them) as a result of this incident?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If D18=1, go to D19. Else go to D20.

D19 Did these charges lead to a conviction in court?

1 Yes
2 No
3 The court process is still continuing
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D20 How satisfied are you with the way the police handled the case? Were you:
<<READ OUT>>

1 Very satisfied
2 Satisfied
3 Dissatisfied
4 Very dissatisfied
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

D21 Is there anything else the police should have done to help you?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Informed her about what was going on
2 Provided information about legal procedures or services
3 Responded more quickly
4 Charged him / arrested him
5 Given him a warning
6 Taken complaint more seriously / listened to me / been more supportive / helped me more
7 Taken him away / out of the house / should have given restraining order
8 Referred her to a service or shelter
9 Provided her with some protection / helped her leave the house
10 Taken her to hospital / medical care
11 Other (specify) _____
12 No, nothing
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

D22 Apart from people already mentioned, did you ever talk to anyone about what happened, such as:
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Immediate family members
2 Other relative
3 Friend/neighbour
4 Co-worker/boss/co-student
5 Religious leader/worker
6 Doctor, nurse
7 Psychologist, psychiatrist
8 Someone else (specify) _____
9 None of the above (DO NOT READ)
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If respondent has reported any violence by an intimate partner – ie if code 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 on C1B to C12B (if C1b, C2b... C11b=1 or 2 or 3 or 4) – go to section E.

If B1=1 or B4=1 or B5=1 then go to section G.

Else go to section I (or optional section H).

E Partner Victimisation Report

IF SINGLE INCIDENT: We would now like to ask you some details about the incident that you mentioned that involved a current or previous husband / partner or boyfriend.

IF MULTIPLE INCIDENTS: You mentioned several things that had happened to you involving a current or previous husband / partner or boyfriend. To save time, we will only ask you about ONE incident, and this incident should be THE MOST RECENT incident that happened.

E1 Thinking of the most recent incidents, which of the things that you mentioned happened during that incident?

		Yes	No	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Threatening to hurt you physically?	1	2	98	99
2	Throwing something at you or hitting you with something that hurt or frightened you?	1	2	98	99
3	Pushing or grabbing you or twisting your arm or pulling your hair in a way that really hurt or scared you?	1	2	98	99
4	Slapping, kicking, biting, or hitting you with a fist?	1	2	98	99
5	Strangling, trying to suffocate you, burning or scalding you on purpose?	1	2	98	99
6	Used or threatened to use a knife or gun on you?	1	2	98	99
7	Other physical violence	1	2	98	99
8	Forced sexual intercourse?	1	2	98	99
9	Attempted forced sexual intercourse?	1	2	98	99
10	Sexual touching against your will?	1	2	98	99
11	Forced sexual activity with someone else?	1	2	98	99
12	Other sexual violence	1	2	98	99

E2 Can I just check who was involved in that incident?

1 Current husband/partner
2 Previous husband/partner
3 Current boyfriend
4 Previous boyfriend
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E3 Where did the (most recent) incident occur?

1 Your own home or yard
<<EITHER HER INDIVIDUAL HOME OR JOINT HOME WITH PARTNER>>
2 His home or yard
3 Someone else's home or yard
4 Street, alley
5 Parking lot
6 Car
7 Work
8 Bar, dance club, pool hall
9 Rural areas, woods, park, campground
10 Other public building
11 School, college, campus
12 Public transit
13 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E4 Had he been using drugs/alcohol at the time of this incident?

1 Alcohol
2 Drugs
3 Alcohol and drugs
4 Neither
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E5 Did you feel that your life was in danger (during this incident)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E6 Were you physically injured?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember

99 Refused/No answer

If E6=1, go to E7. Else go to E9.

E7 What were your injuries?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Bruises
2 Cuts/scratches/burns etc.
3 Fractures
4 Head or brain injury
5 Broken bones, broken nose
6 Internal injuries
7 Miscarriage
8 Genital injury
9 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E8 Were you injured so badly that you needed medical care (even if you didn't get it)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E9 Were you pregnant at the time of this incident?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E10 Have you ever used alcohol or medication to help you cope with this experience?

1 No
2 Yes, alcohol
3 Yes, medication
4 Yes, both
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E11 (In some countries agencies have been set up to help women with similar experiences.) In relation to this incident, did you contact a specialised agency, such as:
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

<<MODIFY NATIONALLY ACCORDING TO EXISTING SERVICES – SO THAT THEY ROUGHLY CORRESPOND TO THE GIVEN CATEGORIES>>

1 Shelter or transition house
2 Crisis centre/crises line
3 Another counsellor
4 Women's centre
5 Community/family centre
6 Other (specify) (DO NOT READ) _____
7 Did not contact any agency (DO NOT READ)
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If E11=7, 98 or 99, go to E13. Else go to E12 (E13 in countries where E12 is omitted).

OPTIONAL:

E12 How helpful was the service in the shelter or transition house/crisis centre/. . . etc?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT S16>>

		Very helpful	Somewhat helpful	Not at all helpful	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Shelter or transition house	1	2	3	98	99
2	Crisis centre/crisis line	1	2	3	98	99
3	Another counselor	1	2	3	98	99
4	Women's centre	1	2	3	98	99
5	Community/family centre	1	2	3	98	99
6	Other (specify) _____	1	2	3	98	99

E13 Taking everything into account, how serious was this incident for you at the time? Was it very serious, somewhat serious or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Somewhat serious
3 Not very serious
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E14 Did you regard the incident as a crime, wrong but not a crime, or something that just happens?

1 A crime
2 Wrong, but not a crime
3 Something that just happens
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E15 Did you or somebody else report this incident to the police or other judicial authorities?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If E15=1, go to E17.
If E15=2, go to E16.
Else go to E22.

E16 Why did you not report this incident to the police?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Dealt with it herself / Involved a friend / Family matter
2 Too minor / Not serious enough /Never occurred to her
3 Did not think the police would do anything
4 Did not think the police could do anything
5 Fear of offender / Fear of reprisals
6 Shame, embarrassment / Thought it was her fault
7 Didn't want anyone to know / Kept it private
8 Did not want offender arrested / in trouble with police
9 Would not be believed
10 Part of job / Goes with the job
11 Reported to someone else (specify) _____
12 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

Go to E22.

E17 What did the police do?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Took a report
2 Arrested the man
3 Gave a warning
4 Suggested services to the respondent
5 Provided protection to the respondent
6 Followed through with the court procedure
7 Police did nothing
8 Something else (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E18 Were charges ever brought against him (them) as a result of this incident?

1 Yes
2 No

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If E18=1, go to E19. Else go to E20.

E19 Did these charges lead to a conviction in court?

1 Yes
2 No
3 The court process is still continuing
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E20 How satisfied are you with the way the police handled the case? Were you:
<<READ OUT>>

1 Very satisfied
2 Satisfied
3 Dissatisfied
4 Very dissatisfied
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

E21 Is there anything else the police should have done to help you?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Informed her about what was going on
2 Provided information about legal procedures or services
3 Responded more quickly
4 Charged him / arrested him
5 Given him a warning
6 Taken complaint more seriously / listened to me / been more supportive / helped me more
7 Taken him away / out of the house / should have given restraining order
8 Referred her to a service or shelter
9 Provided her with some protection / helped her leave the house
10 Taken her to hospital / medical care
11 Other (specify) _____
12 No, nothing
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E22 Apart from people already mentioned did you ever talk to anyone about what happened, such as:
<<READ OUT>>
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Immediate family members
2 Other relative
3 Friend/neighbour

4 Co-worker/boss/co-student
5 Religious leader/worker
6 Doctor, nurse
7 Psychologist, psychiatrist
8 Someone else (specify) (DO NOT READ) _____
9 None of the above (DO NOT READ)
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

If E2=2 or 4 or *E2=1 and B3=1, go to E23. Else go to E24.*

E23 Was your current/previous husband/partner/boyfriend ever physically or sexually violent to you after you separated?

1 Yes
2 No
3 No, he died
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E24 Did any children living with you at the time ever witness any violent incidents by your husband/partner/(ex-) boyfriend?

1 Yes, think so
2 No, don't think so
3 No children/No children living with me at the time
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

E25 Did your husband/partner/(ex-) boyfriend ever receive professional counselling for his violent behaviour?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If E2=2 or 4, go to section F. Else go to section G.

F Characteristics of Violent Previous Intimate Partner

I would like to ask you a few questions about THAT previous partner that you have just told us about.

F1 Did your previous husband/partner/boyfriend work either at home or outside the home for pay?

1 Yes, at home
2 Yes, outside the home

3 Yes, both at home and outside the home
4 He does not work for pay
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If E1=4, go to E2. Else go to E3.

F2 Did he have other sources of income (e.g. government benefits, pension, income from investments, child support payments, or income from rented property)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F2=2, 98 or 99, go to F4. Else go to F3.

F3 Did you have a say in how the money your husband/partner/boyfriend got was used?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F4 How long were you together in total?
<<SINCE THE COUPLE STARTED DATING>>
<<CODE IN MONTHS IF RELATIONSIP LESS THAN ONE YEAR>>

____ Years ____ Months
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If respondent is widowed (B7=1), go to F5a. Else go to F5b.

F5a How long ago did you become a widow?
<< CODE IN MONTHS ONLY IF LESS THAN ONE YEAR>>

____ Year(s) ____ month(s) ago
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

Go to F6a.

F5b When did this relationship end?
<< CODE IN MONTHS ONLY IF LESS THAN ONE YEAR>>

____ Year(s) ____ month(s) ago
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F6 In what year was your previous husband/partner/boyfriend born?
_____ Year

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F6=98 or 99, go to F7. Else go to F8 (F12 in countries where F8–F11 are omitted).

F7 Would you mind telling me his approximate age please?
<<READ OUT IF REQUIRED>>

1 18 – 24
2 25 – 29
3 30 – 34
4 35 – 39
5 40 – 44
6 45 – 49
7 50 – 54
8 55 – 59
9 60 – 64
10 65 and over
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

OPTIONAL:

F8 Did you yourself choose your previous husband/partner/fiancée, did someone else choose him for you, or did he choose you?

1 Respondent chose
2 Parents chose
3 Other relative chose
4 Partner chose her
5 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F8=1, 98 or 99, go to F10. Else go to F9.

OPTIONAL:

F9 When your previous husband/partner/fiancée was being chosen for you, were you asked whether you wanted to marry him or not?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

F10 Did your marriage involve dowry/bride-price payment?

1 Yes
2 No

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F10=1, go to F11. Else go to F12.

OPTIONAL:

F11 Had all the dowry/bride-price been paid for at the time of your separation, or did some part still remain to be paid?

1 All paid
2 Partially paid
3 None paid
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F12 How would you describe his level of education when you were together?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>
<<CODE EDUCATION AT THE TIME THEY WERE TOGETHER>>

1
2
3
4
5
6 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

F13 Which of the following categories best describes his ethnic background/nationality?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>
<<READ OUT>>

1
2
3
4
5
6 Other (specify) (DO NOT READ) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

OPTIONAL:

F14a What is his religion (/was at the time)?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>

1
2

3
4
5 Other (specify) _____
6 None
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F14a=6 or 98 or 99, go to F15. Else go to F14b.

OPTIONAL:

F14b Did he practice his religion?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F15 Most people drink sometimes – either beer, wine or other alcohol. How often did your previous husband /partner / boyfriend drink so much that he got drunk?

1 Never drank
2 Drank, but never got drunk
3 Got drunk a couple of times a year
4 Got drunk a couple of times a month
5 Got drunk once or twice a week
6 Got drunk every day or almost every day
7 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

F16a Did he use drugs?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F16a=1, go to F16b. Else go to F17.

OPTIONAL:

F16b How often would you say he used drugs?

1 Couple of times a year
2 Couple of times a month
3 Once or twice a week
4 Every day or almost every day
5 Other (specify) _____

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F17 Has he ever been violent physically towards anyone outside the family, for example in bars or in the workplace?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If F17=1, go to F18. Else go to F19.

F18 Has he ever been in trouble with the police because of his violent behaviour?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F19 Now, I would like to ask about some situations that sometimes happen in relationships. Would you say your previous husband/partner/boyfriend: <<READ OUT>>

		All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	DK/CA	Ref/NA
1	Got angry if you spoke with other men?	1	2	3	4	98	99
2	Was supportive towards your work or studies or other activities that took place outside the home?	1	2	3	4	98	99
3	Tried to limit your contact with family and friends?	1	2	3	4	98	99
4	Followed you or kept track of your whereabouts in a way you found controlling or frightening?	1	2	3	4	98	99
5	Called you names, insulted you or behaved in a way to put you down or to make you feel bad?	1	2	3	4	98	99
6	Damaged or destroyed your possessions or property?	1	2	3	4	98	99

		All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	DK/CA	Ref/NA
OPTIONAL:							
7	Was constantly suspicious that you had been unfaithful?	1	2	3	4	98	99
8	Insisted on knowing who you were with and where you were at all times?	1	2	3	4	98	99
9	Harmed or threatened to harm your children?	1	2	3	4	98	99
10	Harmed or threatened to harm someone else close to you?	1	2	3	4	98	99
11	Threatened to kill you?	1	2	3	4	98	99
12	Threatened to kill himself?	1	2	3	4	98	99
13	Threatened to hurt you or your children if you left him?	1	2	3	4	98	99

If B1=1 or B4=1 or B5=1 then go to section G.
Else go to section I (or optional section H).

G Characteristics of Current Intimate Partner

I would like to ask a few questions about your current partner.

<<IF MORE THAN ONE CURRENT PARTNER, THESE QUESTIONS REFER TO THE CURRENT PARTNER REPORTED IN SECTION S. IF SECTION S HAS NOT BEEN FILLED FOR ANY OF THE CURRENT PARTNERS, CHOOSE THE PARTNER THAT THE RESPONDENT FEELS CLOSEST TO>>

G1 Does your husband/partner/boyfriend work either at home or outside the home for pay?

1 Yes, at home
2 Yes, outside the home
3 Yes, both at home and outside the home
4 He does not work for pay
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G1=4, go to G2. Else go to G3.

G2 Does he have other sources of income (e.g. government benefits, pension, income from investments, child support payments, or income from rented property)?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G2=2, 98 or 99, go to G4. Else go to G3.

G3 Do you have a say in how the money your husband/partner/boyfriend gets is used?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

G4 How long have you been together in total?
<<SINCE THE COUPLE STARTED DATING>>
<<CODE IN MONTHS IF RELATIONSIP LESS THAN ONE YEAR>>
_____ Years _____ Months

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

G5 In what year was your husband/partner/boyfriend born?
_____ Year

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G5=98 or 99, go to G6. Else go to G7.

G6 Would you mind telling me his approximate age please?
<<READ OUT IF REQUIRED >>

1 18 – 24
2 25 – 29
3 30 – 34
4 35 – 39
5 40 – 44
6 45 – 49
7 50 – 54
8 55 – 59
9 60 – 64
10 65 and over
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

OPTIONAL:

G7 Did you yourself choose your current husband/partner/fiancée, did someone else choose him for you, or did he choose you?

1 Respondent chose
2 Parents chose
3 Other relative chose
4 Partner chose her
5 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G7=1, 98 or 99, go to G9. Else go to G8.

OPTIONAL:

G8 When your current husband/partner/fiancée was being chosen for you, were you asked whether you wanted to marry him or not?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

G9 Does your marriage involve dowry/bride-price payment?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G9=1, go to G10. Else go to G11.

OPTIONAL:

G10 Has all the dowry/bride-price been paid for, or does some part still remain to be paid?

1 All paid
2 Partially paid
3 None paid
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

G11 How would you describe your husband's/partner's/boyfriend's current level of education?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>

1
2
3
4
5
6 Other (specify) _____

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

G12 Which of the following categories best describes his ethnic background/nationality?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>
<<READ OUT>>

1
2
3
4
5
6 Other (specify) (DO NOT READ) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember (DO NOT READ)
99 Refused/No answer (DO NOT READ)

OPTIONAL:

G13a What is his religion?
<<CATEGORIES TO BE DETERMINED NATIONALLY>>

1
2
3
4
5 Other (specify) _____
6 None
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G13a=6 or 98 or 99, go to G14. Else go to G13b.

OPTIONAL:

G13b Does he practice his religion?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

G14 Most people drink sometimes – either beer, wine or other alcohol. How often does your husband/partner/boyfriend drink so much that he gets drunk?
<<INTERVIEWER: THIS REFERS TO CURRENT LEVEL OF DRINKING>>

1 Never drinks
2 Drinks, but never gets drunk
3 Gets drunk a couple of times a year

4 Gets drunk a couple of times a month
5 Gets drunk once or twice a week
6 Gets drunk every day or almost every day
7 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

OPTIONAL:

G15a Does he use drugs?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G15a=1, go to G15b. Else go to G16.

OPTIONAL:

G15b How often would you say he uses drugs?

1 Couple of times a year
2 Couple of times a month
3 Once or twice a week
4 Every day or almost every day
5 Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

G16 Has he ever been violent physically towards anyone outside the family, for example in bars or in the workplace?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If G16=1, go to G17. Else go to G18.

G17 Has he ever been in trouble with the police because of his violent behaviour?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

G18 Now, I would like to ask about some situations that can happen in relationships. Would you say your husband/partner/ boyfriend:
<<READ OUT>>

		All the time	Frequently	Sometimes	Never	DK/CA	Ref/NA
1	Gets angry if you speak with other men?	1	2	3	4	98	99
2	Is supportive towards your work or studies or other activities taking place outside the home	1	2	3	4	98	99
3	Tries to limit your contact with family and friends?	1	2	3	4	98	99
4	Follows you or keeps track of your whereabouts in a way you find controlling or frightening?	1	2	3	4	98	99
5	Calls you names, insults you or behaves in a way to put you down or to make you feel bad?	1	2	3	4	98	99
6	Damages or destroys your possessions or property?	1	2	3	4	98	99
OPTIONAL:							
7	Is constantly suspicious that you have been unfaithful?	1	2	3	4	98	99
8	Insists on knowing who you are with and where you are at all times?	1	2	3	4	98	99
9	Harms or threatens to harm your children?	1	2	3	4	98	99
10	Harms or threatens to harm someone else close to you?	1	2	3	4	98	99
11	Threatens to kill you?	1	2	3	4	98	99
12	Threatens to kill himself?	1	2	3	4	98	99
13	Threatens to hurt you or your children if you leave him?	1	2	3	4	98	99

Go to section I (or optional section H).

H Optional Section: Mother Abuse History & Childhood Victimization

We would now like to ask you some questions about serious violence in your own family when you were a child. We are also interested in the experiences of [your current and previous partner] when they were young. By serious violence, I mean the types of physical violence we asked you about earlier.

If respondent has a current partner (if B1=1 or B4=1 or B5=1) go to H1.
If respondent has a previous partner (if B6=1, 2 or 3) go to H3.
Else go to H5.

H1 CURRENT PARTNER BACKGROUND

H1 To the best of your knowledge, was your partner's father (or father figure) ever violent towards your partner's mother, or any of the women he lived with?
<<IF MANY CURRENT PARTNERS, THESE QUESTIONS REFER TO THE PARTNER FOR WHOM THE BACKGROUND DETAILS WERE PROVIDED>>

1 Yes / think so
2 No / don't think so
3 Father did not live with the family
4 Mother did not live with the family
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H2 To the best of your knowledge, was your partner's father ever violent towards him?

1 Yes / think so
2 No / don't think so
3 Father did not live with the family
4 Son (current partner) did not live with the family
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If respondent has a previous partner (if B6=1, 2 or 3) go to H3.
Else go to H5.

H2 PREVIOUS PARTNER BACKGROUND

H3 (IF MORE THAN ONE PREVIOUS PARTNER) Thinking about your previous partner that you have just told us
To the best of your knowledge, was your PREVIOUS partner's father ever violent towards your previous partner's mother, or any of the women he lived with?

1 Yes / think so
2 No / don't think so
3 Father did not live with the family
4 Mother did not live with the family
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H4 To the best of your knowledge, was your PREVIOUS partner's father ever violent towards him?

1 Yes / think so
2 No / don't think so
3 Father did not live with the family
4 Son (previous partner) did not live with the family
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

F3 OWN BACKGROUND

H5 Thinking of your own biological father, any foster father or stepfather you might have had, or anyone your mother lived with, were any of these men ever violent towards your mother?

1 Yes / think so

2 No / don't think so
3 Father did not live with the family
4 Mother did not live with the family
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H6 Was your father [or any of these other men] ever physically violent towards you before the age of 16?
<<INCLUDES ANY FATHER FIGURE – BIOLOGICAL, STEP, FOSTER FATHER OR MOTHER'S PARTNER>>

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If H6=1, go to H7. Else go to H9.

H7 How many times did this happen before the age of 16?

____ Number of incidents
2 1–3 times a month
3 1–3 times a week
4 Every day / almost every day
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H8 Taking everything into account, how serious was this for you at the time? Was it very serious, somewhat serious or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Somewhat serious
3 Not very serious
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H9 Thinking of your own biological mother, any foster mother or stepmother you might have had, or anyone your father lived with, were any of these physically violent towards you before the age of 16?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If H9=1, go to H10. Else go to H12a.

H10 How many times did this happen before the age of 16?

____ Number of incidents
2 1–3 times a month
3 1–3 times a week

4 Every day / almost every day
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H11 Taking everything into account, how serious was this for you at the time? Was it very serious, somewhat serious or not very serious?

1 Very serious
2 Somewhat serious
3 Not very serious
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

H12a Finally, I would like to ask about any experiences of sexual violence you might have had before the age of 16. By sexual violence I mean any of the types of sexual violence I asked about earlier. Before you were aged 16, did ANYBODYever force or attempt to force you into any sexual activity?

1 Yes
2 No
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If H12a=1, go to H12b. Else go to section I.

H12b Who was it who did this? Was there anyone else?
<<MARK ALL THAT APPLY>>

1 Father
2 Stepfather/foster father
3 Mother/stepmother/foster mother
4 Brother
5 Sister
6 Other relative (specify) _____
7 Someone else you knew/Other (specify) _____
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If H12b=98 or 99, go to section I. Else go to H12c.

H12c How many times did your . . . . . force or attempt to force you into any sexual activity?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT H12B>>

		No. of incidents	At least once a month	At least once a week	Every day	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1	Father	_____	2	3	4	98	99
2	Stepfather/foster father	_____	2	3	4	98	99
3	Mother/stepmother/foster mother	_____	2	3	4	98	99
4	Brother	_____	2	3	4	98	99
5	Sister	_____	2	3	4	98	99
6	Other relative (specify) _____	_____	2	3	4	98	99
7	Someone else you knew/ Other (specify) _____	_____	2	3	4	98	99

H12d Taking everything into account, how serious was this for you at the time? Was it very serious, somewhat serious or not very serious?
<<ASK SEPARATELY FOR EACH OF THOSE MENTIONED AT H12B>>

	Very serious	Somewhat serious	Not very serious	DK/CR	Ref/NA
1 Father	1	2	3	98	99
2 Stepfather/foster father	1	2	3	98	99
3 Mother/stepmother/foster mother	1	2	3	98	99
4 Brother	1	2	3	98	99
5 Sister	1	2	3	98	99
6 Other relative (specify) _____	1	2	3	98	99
7 Someone else you knew/ Other (specify) _____	1	2	3	98	99

Go to section I.

I Income & Conclusion

I now have just two final questions.

I1a Could you please tell me whether the weekly/monthly/yearly income of your whole household, after deductions for tax etc., is below or above xxx per week/month/year? (MEDIAN INCOME: xxx)
<<INCOME QUARTILES FROM THE NATIONAL COORDINATOR>>

1 Below xxx
2 Above xxx
3 None

98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

If I1a=1, go to I1b.
If I1a=2, go to I1c.
Else go to I2.

I1b Is it higher or lower than yyy per week/month/year (BOTTOM 25% LIMIT: yyy)?

1 Higher than yyy
2 Lower than yyy
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

Go to question I2.

I1c Is it higher or lower than zzz per week/month/year (UPPER 25% LIMIT: zzz)

1 Higher than zzz
2 Lower than zzz
98 Don't know/Can't remember
99 Refused/No answer

I2 I would like to thank you very much for the time you have taken. Your answers will be very valuable in filling out the picture of women's experiences. Is there anything you would like to add?

_____
_____
_____

If you have any questions about the issues raised in this survey, or if you would like to contact us for any reason, please feel free to call (phone number).

<<IF RESPONDENT HAS REPORTED ANY VIOLENCE, SUGGEST AVAILABLE SERVICES TO THE RESPONDENT>>

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