



Protective Environmental Factors Securing Human Rights

Structured Map of Literature

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Protective environmental factors securing human rights

Mapping of research on countering human rights violations and developing security and protective factors in areas relevant to families, intergenerational relations, work and conflict resolution

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Introduction

Research on interpersonal violence has focused mostly on its extent and consequences, the ways of supporting victims and sanctions against perpetrators. There are a plethora of studies about risk factors for victims of violence as well as some studies about the risk of becoming a perpetrator, but we still know little about which structural and cultural conditions help to foster lives free of violence. Thus, the important question has been largely ignored by researchers: when and how is violence stopped?

In contrast to the empirical knowledge of this issue, there is an array of suppositions that are, in part, theoretically grounded. These focus on the factors contributing to a situation in which individuals, groups and societies do not become violent. Within the framework of CAHRV, attempts have been undertaken to structure possible protective environmental factors in a graphical map and find evidence for some of these factors in empirical studies.

In summary, it can be concluded that human beings have the potential to act in a violent or non-violent way. With regard to **socialisation**, it depends on which techniques and ways of acting they are able to acquire, for example, on the basis of how conflicts in their environment are dealt with. In concrete everyday situations, most people have the potential to act violently or freely even though their past opportunities to acquire healthy behavioural skills differ. Whether one uses or refrains from violence is heavily dependent on **context**, especially on the prevailing **relations of power** and the level of **acceptance of violence** in any given context. Thus, it is not surprising that in patriarchal societies men are more often the perpetrators of physical violence. It is important to recognise the different patterns of violence in order to understand violent actions: homo- and heterosocial violence by men and by women; male and female violence against children, elderly people and border crossers between the genders.

What do we mean by protective environmental factors?

As a research framework, protective factors are in general factors that protect a person from becoming violent towards at least one other person, or from becoming a victim of interpersonal violence, or both. In contrast to prevention, which usually focuses on avoiding danger and the negative effects of the experience of violence, research on protective factors in the context of human rights violations should also focus on explicitly non-violent environments. What are the premises/conditions for a peaceful and pacifist life? What circumstances foster the use of non-violent solutions to overcome a crisis or conflict? What are the conditions in which people have never been exposed to interpersonal violence by others? The emphasis here on protective factors is not meant to downplay the importance of prevention, which is one crucial part of protective strategies and is, in comparison to “protective factors” (in the stricter sense), a considerably well investigated field of research. It must also be stated that prevention is used very differently dependent on language and discourse, therefore no general judgement on its use for protection can be made.

In practise, to talk about risk and protective factors has come to prominence in the last decade, especially in the context of research on crime prevention, health research and child abuse. Concerning crime prevention, risk factors are defined as factors linked to the whole surroundings of children and adolescents and indicate a greater probability of the occurrence of criminal behaviour. (DFK n. d.: 10). Protective factors act against the occurrence of delinquency and crime and they are also linked to the environment of the individuals. These factors support the prevention and attenuation of negative development during the period of growing up (ibid. 11).

Mono-causal explanations are not sufficient in explaining delinquency and criminal behaviour; criminological research thus refers to the multiple interaction of risk and protective factors (Lösel/Bliesinger 2003; Wetzels 1997). This is the same for child abuse, where every case is regarded as being based on distinctly individual combinations of jointly interacting risk and protective factors (cf. Wetzels 1997: 79 et seqq.). Different practical tools have been developed for identifying risks, e.g., social profiling (definition of potential risk factors for later delinquency and identification of members of a risk group). Regarding crime prevention for domestic violence and child abuse, “risk assessment tools” belong to the statutory service management in Great Britain (Humphreys et al: 2005). In terms of these fields, risk factors mark a quite important category, consisting of individual or environmental items that are found to increase the likelihood of negative outcomes.¹

On the other hand, protective factors are conceptualised as individual or environmental safeguards that enhance the ability to resist or cope with life events, risks or hazards. With this, protective factors are taken as the opposite of risk factors and are regarded as relevant only in the context of an identified risk (cf. US Department of Health and Human Services: 2000). This assumption is too short-sighted for an analysis of conditions that enable people to live without violence. On the three levels of structural and cultural factors, situational factors and context as well as on the level of socialisation, factors can be identified which not only function as safeguards against risks but are connected with other factors—they evolve an independent strength in the the process of learning not to use violence. Multiple factors and processes influence each other and build an environment that makes the use of violence unnecessary. This map illuminates the different places and modes of action in the complex and interrelated field of protection.

Mapping – the method

The basic concept of mapping techniques is simple: ideas and concepts referring to a certain topic are regarded as a knot in a net, and the relations between these concepts will be marked by connecting lines.

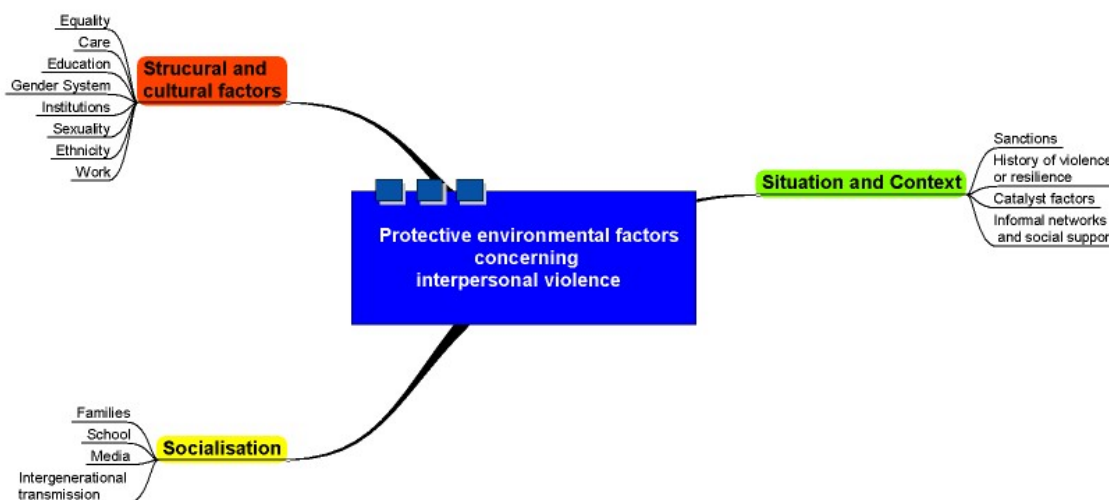
There are different mapping approaches. In CAHRV, the basic idea for a map of protective factors was to develop it in two ways: first, a thematic map was to be created, which was to be based on the results of the CAHRV sub-network process and previously created drafts. The further possibility of a map by means of scientific disciplines was rejected, especially because in CAHRV the integration of the different discourses was a crucial question. An integrated map was developed instead, one which is structured by the fields where protection takes place: Structural and cultural factors can contribute, as well as concrete factors in a certain situation and context. The difference between acting and not acting violently is not only the consequence of factors, but is also linked to processes like socialization. The mapping method allows interrelations between these different levels to be diagrammed. The map could contain more complex differentiations than it currently does, but research on protection has not advanced to that stage yet.

The mapping method is a vivid method: Because of its structured simplicity it is not complicated to gain an overview, get involved and add new branches, ideas and article abstracts. Therefore every user can become a participant: We kindly ask you to send in your contributions for improvement.

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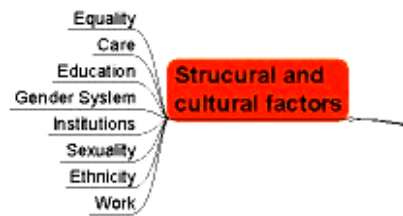
The overview map with the principal branches

The interdisciplinary working group on protective environmental factors decided to start the mapping with four thematic areas, which are empirically known as important for risk and protective factors. It seems to be more useful to start with known areas, where it is possible to find surveys and literature, in contrast to more analytical maps with possible areas of protective factors. You can click on each branch and navigate directly to the field of your interest. After some introductory remarks literature abstracts are listed below in chronological order (starting with the latest).



Structural and cultural factors

In each society and group there are different rules, which statutorily or fluidly generate the common processes. Legislation imposes a fixed framework, while culture constitutes a rather dynamic system of rules established by groups in order to ensure their survival, involving attitudes, values, beliefs, norms, and behaviours shared by groups, communicated across generations, which are relatively stable, but have the potential to change over time. In cross-cultural research on violence, violent acts exist as a component of cultural traditions, as a cultural virtue, as an instrument in supporting social systems or as a product of the interplay of cultural factors. On the other hand, there are also cultural concepts that foster non-violent behaviour, such as caring, power sharing, flat company hierarchies, etc. Structural and cultural factors interact: certain legislation (like equality laws or daddy's months) or institutions influence social trends and behaviour and vice versa, the combination of which can contribute to non-violent environments.



Staub, E., (1996): Cultural-Societal Roots of Violence: The Examples of Genocidal Violence and of Contemporary Youth Violence in the United States, American Psychologist 51

Widespread violence in a society must have its origins in cultural characteristics, current societal conditions, or both. In this article, the cultural, societal, and psychological origins of two very different forms of violence are examined. A conception of the origins of genocide and mass killing is briefly presented, with the Holocaust and the violence in the former Yugoslavia as supporting evidence. Difficult life conditions give rise to scapegoating, destructive ideologies, and the evolution of increasing violence against a designated enemy. Cultural characteristics that make this process more or less probable are described. This is followed by a presentation of the socialization experiences of children that generate youth violence. To explain the increase in youth violence, the presence of difficult life conditions in the United States is noted (due primarily to substantial social change). The effects of difficult life conditions, cultural characteristics, and social conditions such as poverty and discrimination against minority groups on family life and parenting are described. Similarities and differences in the origins of the two forms of violence are examined. The role of unfulfilled or frustrated basic human needs in generating violence is stressed, and conditions and actions required to reduce violence are proposed.

<http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&se=gglsc&d=96531826>

Fagan, J.; Wexler, S. (1987): Crime at home and in the streets: the relationship between family and stranger violence. New York City Criminal Justice Agency, Violence and Victims 2, 1, New York, 5-23

Research and theory on violent behaviour have treated aggression between intimates and aggression between strangers as separate phenomena. Major criminological works on violence and aggression have generally overlooked violence in the home. As a result,

Structural and cultural factors

independent and distinct bodies of theoretical and practical knowledge exist regarding family violence and aggression toward strangers, and the relationship between family violence and violence directed against strangers is little understood. Estimates of the intersection of these behaviors vary extensively. Severity of domestic violence is associated with violence outside the home. Exposure to violence as a child consistently emerges as a strong explanatory factor for both domestic violence and the behavior of "generally" violent men. Behavior patterns appear to shift over time, from domestic violence only to violence toward both strangers and family members. However, an integrated theory of violent behavior by males provides explanations of both stranger and family violence. Early childhood socialization toward violence, modified by social and cultural supports during adolescence and adulthood, suggests a social learning paradigm. Hypotheses are developed that integrate and unify theories of stranger and family violence.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=3154157&dopt=Citation

Equality

General theories about the roots of violence and theories about violence within gender relations often argue that power imbalances mark the beginning and course of both structural and interpersonal abuse. Implied in this assumption is a suggestion that more equal distributions of power would protect against violence and in particular that gender equality will protect against gender-based violence. Indeed, gender-based violence seems a particularly vile expression of gender inequality. Research in societies with little gender-based violence suggests that less violence is correlated with more gender equality, lending support to the argument that gender equality protects against gender violence.

In many policies arenas gender equality is thought to be good, certainly for women and probably for men as well. Current political declarations and policy development in Europe are replete with references to gender equality and related concepts like gender mainstreaming and gender democracy. Contemporary master narratives on equality are alluring and so entwined with Western ideas of democracy, human rights, and civic advancement that the worthiness of these ideals is taken for granted.

Notwithstanding persuasive theoretical and political arguments the empirical basis for gender equality's role in the protection against gender-based violence is poorly understood and a critical analysis of such ideas and their implementation is important. The links between gender equality and gendered violence are often complex and riddled with contradictions. In most social and cultural realities women and men are not equal. Old forms of social stratification persist; new expressions of sexism and misogyny emerge continuously. Gender, class, and racial/ethnic hierarchies dominate the workplace and the public sphere and play out at home and in interpersonal relationships. In sorting through the literature a number of distinctions need to be made.

Equal by what measure? Gender equality is conceptualized and measured in different ways. Assessing women's status relative to men in terms of income, education or access to formal political power is common in sociological research and studies on economic development. Anthropological fieldwork often focuses on women and men's involvement in a variety of cultural practices ranging from household decision making to community networking, economic production, and spiritual authority.

Equal to whom? Gender equality foregrounds differences between women and men, while ignoring or treating as less important differences among women, and among men. This is problematic when the analysis focuses on data from regions or countries that are also stratified by other dimensions of inequality such as class/caste or race/ethnicity (Vieraitis & Williams, 2002; abstract below).

Equality in which cultural context? The anthropological evidence that suggests a link between gender equality and little or no gender-based violence is based on research in relatively small societies with little social stratification of any kind (Counts, Brown & Campbell, 1999; abstract below). Such insights are important and inspiring but it is not entirely clear how best to transfer them to societies or communities of larger size and different patterns of social organization.

Protection against what? Research has documented multiple forms of interpersonal violence. What protects against one form of violence may not protect against another. The studies abstracted below relate equality indices to different forms of violence including sexual violence (Yodanis, 2004), homicide (Vieraitis & Williams, 2002; Gauthier & Bankston, 1997), rape (Bailey, 1999), assaults (Straus, 1994; Yllö, 1993). These studies all focus on gender equality and violence against women.

An analysis of potential protective effects of gender equality needs to distinguish between forms of violence and between contexts and circumstances. Levinson (1989) concluded from a comparison of anthropological evidence that different forms of violence against women were not highly correlated and seemed to 'respond' differently to different potential protective factors.

Distinctions may also need to be made within the 'same' form of violence. On the one hand, comparisons of small-scale societies seem to suggest that certain factors such as women's autonomy and specific matrilineal arrangements protect against rape in general (Watson-Franke, 2002). On the other hand, Sanday's (1996) analyses of rape-prone fraternities suggest that at least some of the factors that will protect against specific forms of gang-rape may be relatively unique to the context of campus-based fraternities, and may not at all protect a woman from being raped by her own husband.

For U.S. homicide data some have argued that increases in women's economic status have protected men against intimate homicide more so than women. The argument is that women with better financial resources are more likely to escape violent male partners and less likely to resort to the 'last resort' of killing their abuser (Dugan, Nagin & Rosenfeld, 1999). This points to different reasons or motives for why women and men kill intimate partners (at least in the U.S.), which should be addresses in a conceptual analysis of gender equality as a protective factor against interpersonal violence.

Equality by which process? Identifying protective factors is not the same as implementing them. Several literatures converge on a number of factors related to gender equality that appear to protect against violence. They include women's interpersonal, social, and economic autonomy, the degree to which a society acknowledges women as sovereign adults, women's ability to build coalitions, and a society's ability to sanction perpetrators effectively, which includes not only punishment for violent actions but also the disruption of violent masculinities.

These factors seem to protect against gender-based violence once they are in place and integrated into a community's web of cultural practices. However, getting there can be problematic because resistance to the process of becoming more gender equal can increase gender-based violence. Criminological data discussed within status inconsistency theory suggests immediate short-term risks to changing unequal gender orders, even when the long-term prospects may be good. For policy makers and social change agents this means that the implementation of protective factors may be accompanied by a surge of interpersonal violence rather than a reduction, at least for a transitional period. Without proper plans for how to respond to increased violence the implementation of gender equality, ironically, might become a risk factor for more violence rather than a protective factor against violence. To avoid or minimize such risks implementation plans, whether on a local or international scale, will need to include measures to address resistance to more gender equality.

Yodanis, CL (2004) Gender inequality, violence against women, and fear - A cross-national test of the feminist theory of violence against women. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19, 655-675.

This article presents a cross-national test of the feminist theory of violence against women. Combining data from the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS) with United Nations statistics, the findings support the theory. Specifically, the results indicate that the educational and occupational status of women in a country is related to the prevalence of sexual violence against women. In countries where the status of women is low, prevalence of sexual violence against women tends to be higher. In turn sexual violence is related to higher levels of fear among women relative to men. In comparison, in countries where the status of women is high, sexual violence against women is lower. The findings of this study add confirmation to the argument that we need to look beyond individual level variables to understand and develop strategies for reducing violence against and fear among women.

Vieraitis LM & Williams MR (2002). Assessing the impact of gender inequality on female homicide victimization across US cities - A racially disaggregated analysis. Violence against Women, 8, 35-63.

To expand our understanding of gender inequality and violent crime, this study provides an assessment of the relationship between gender inequality and lethal violence against women. The authors use a cross-sectional design with racially disaggregated census data for 158 large U.S. cities in 1990 to assess the degree to which women's absolute status and their status relative to men affect their risk of homicide victimization. Overall, the findings suggest that although certain measures of women's absolute and relative socio-economic status are related to female homicide victimization rates, when race-specific measures are used, the effects hold only for White women.

Watson-Franke, M.B. (2002). A world in which women move freely without fear of men: An anthropological perspective on rape. Women's Studies International Forum, 25, 599-606.

In western scholarly debate, there is nearly universal acceptance of rape as a male trait typical of all time periods and cultures. However, cross-cultural data provide insight into societies where rape is rare or unknown and can therefore be helpful to develop strategies for prevention. The paper focuses on the question why men do not rape in these societies with rape being understood as a crime that reflects male dominance and entitlement. An earlier finding by Sanday [J. Soc. Issues 37 (1981) 5] that such "rape-free" societies attach importance to the "contributions women make to social continuity" is further analyzed by taking an in-depth look at matrilineal societies. The category "matrilineal" is chosen because these cultures recognize women's contributions to social continuity, and absence or rareness of rape has been repeatedly reported. Data from matrilineal cultures from the relevant literature including my own work in South America are compared with a select body of data discussing western rapists. As the discussion demonstrates, the specific gender dynamics in matrilineal cultures reduce the significance of man's sexual persona and thus male heterosexual authority, which mitigates the potential of male dominance and rape.

Bailey, W.C. (1999). The socioeconomic status of women and patterns of forcible rape for major U.S. cities. Sociological Focus, 32, 43-63.

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Examines the relationship between female rape rates & multiple dimensions of women's absolute & relative (to men) socioeconomic status for US cities, 1980-1990. Yearly cross-sectional & 1980-1990 change analyses of census & crime data suggest that one dimension of women's status - income level - was a significant contributor to rape, while educational & occupational attainment did not have the predicted effects. Recommendations are made to extend the analysis to the year 2000 to determine if the generally improved income position that women have experienced so far in the 1990s will be accompanied by a reduction in rape rates in urban communities.

Dugan, L., Nagin D. & Rosenfeld R. (1999). Explaining the decline in intimate partner homicide: The effects of changing domesticity, women's status, and domestic violence resources. *Homicide Studies*, 3, 187-214.

This article explains the two-decades-long decline in the intimate partner homicide rate in the United States in terms of three factors that reduce exposure to violent relationships: shifts in marriage, divorce, and other factors associated with declining domesticity; the improved economic status of women; and increases in the availability of domestic violence services. The authors' explanation is based on a theory of exposure reduction that helps to account for the especially pronounced decline in the rate at which married women kill their husbands. The authors test the theory with data from a panel of 29 large U.S. cities for the years 1976 to 1992. The results of the analysis are generally supportive of our exposure-reduction theory. The authors consider the importance of the results for subsequent research on intimate partner homicide and call for further evaluation of the efficacy of legal responses to domestic violence.

Gauthier, D.K. & Bankston W.B. (1997). Gender equality and the sex ratio of intimate killing. *Criminology*, 35, 577-600.

Draws on 1990 census & Uniform Crime Reports data to examine variance in the sex ratio of intimate killing across 191 US cities, focusing on the impact of gendered economic equality & economic & regional/cultural contexts, 1988-1992. Ordinary least squares regression analyses reveal a significant negative influence of female economic equality as measured by the sex ratios of employment. In addition, influence is contingent on general economic well-being & more traditional cultural orientations to gender roles. Findings indicate that sex ratio variation is related to the structural features of communities. Theoretical implications are discussed & directions for future research suggested.

Sanday, P.R. (1996). Rape-prone versus rape-free campus cultures. *Violence against Women*, 2, 191-208.

Using the concepts of rape-free and rape-prone societies, I suggest that the next step for rape research is to investigate rape-free campus environments. Based on the articles in this volume and ethnographic research, I summarize what is known about rape-prone campus cultures and compare this information with rape-free fraternity cultures. The question of variation is also examined by comparing the rape incidence and prevalence rates averaged by campus using the data of Koss's national study of 32 campuses. The question of the criteria by which campuses might be labelled rape-free or rape-prone is raised.

Skjørten, K. (1994): *Voldsbilder i hverdagen – om menns forståelser av kvinnemishandling* [Images of violence in everyday life – men's ways of understanding violence against women], Pax Forlag A/S, Oslo

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In her dissertation Skjørten focuses on men's subjective experience and interpretations of violence. Skjørten's starting point is that in cases involving the abuse of women there are two parties with different perspectives of the experience of violence. The purpose of the study is to find out how men who abuse women experience and interpret violence in the relationship, as well as to see how men's interpretations of violence reflect major cultural trends in society. The body of material in Skjørten's study consists of 37 comprehensive interviews, 34 of which are with men who have committed violence, and three of which are with women who have been abused. In addition, the data material consists of 153 interviews with men who have contacted "Alternative to Violence" (ATV) for treatment, and 28 questionnaires filled in by men who have completed the treatment. Skjørten's selection covers the age group 20 to 62. The overview of the distribution of the respondent's shows that a considerable number of the men have higher education. Skjørten's interviewees were recruited via treatment facilities such as family counselling offices and psychiatric polyclinics, and through therapists who are particularly committed to working on the abuse of women. The interviewees were also recruited via the press.

The men in Skjørten's study state that they experienced violence as justified at the point in time and in the situation when they hit their partner. Violence is a response to provocation from the woman. Most of the men in Skjørten's study were nevertheless of the opinion that from a more general moral standpoint the use of violence was not right. However, many of them were inclined to the view that violence in certain situations could be excused. Many of the men in Skjørten's study also describe acts of violence as limited single occurrences in a relationship that was otherwise good. These men's experience of violence can be termed a fragmented experience since the acts of violence are isolated from the rest of the relationship. The men perceived themselves as "in reality peaceful and kind". The chief tendencies among the men recruited to ATV correspond to those presented in other research, which shows that violence in relationships is often associated with a weak social network. Studies of networks of friends for men and women in general show that men are typically lonelier than women. This gives them the opportunity to hide the violence from their surroundings.

Skjørten explains men's trivialisation of the situation with their need to repress the violence. She describes men who have problems giving details of the violence in the interview, which does not necessarily represent a conscious withholding of information but is due to them repressing the violence. Skjørten also points out that it often is the breakdown of the relationship that causes men to change their actual perception of violence. Skjørten recommends greater investment in treatment centres for men who abuse. In her view, special treatment centres for men with violence problems can produce results that may change physically violent behaviour. The basis of such treatment must be that men's use of violence against women cannot be accepted or defended and that men must assume responsibility for this violence.

Other significant preventive measures advocated by Skjørten include:

The main route to combating the abuse of women should go via efforts to achieve gender equality. An equalisation of power differences between women and men will create a mutual vulnerability that can set limitations to the abuse of power. Some of the men saw their acts of violence as connected to more deep-seated attitudes and presumed they would have to go through fundamental changes in their ways of understanding the world around them as a whole if they were to stop using violence. It is not sufficient to remove violence if the objective is liberation from positions of subjugation. Provisions must be made for creating a society where different groups have the best possible knowledge about each other.

If violence is to be restricted, expectations of male dominance in relationships must be changed and replaced with expectations of equality and mutual respect. Society must denounce violence as an option for solving conflicts. It must be highlighted as a problem and

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as an act that is not legitimate regardless of the situation. Acts of violence must be seen in the context of a more extensive value system and of men acquiring their perceptions from a wider social sphere.

Efforts must be made to strengthen the social networks of men who commit acts of violence. One of the objectives at ATV is for men to come into contact with each other, thus becoming less dependent on the woman they abuse. Condemnation and shame will be most effective if people are linked to a close social network. A high level of urbanisation and mobility along with looser bonds between people will weaken primary control.

It is important to generate greater openness in and about families. Silence about the family's welfare facilitates the extensive abuse of power in this arena. Efforts in this direction must be based on two facts: that obscuring a stigma is a common way of hiding a personal identity that is not accepted in society, and that both women and men utilise this method to conceal violence.

The picture of men who commit violence is often very negative. Few people want to recognise themselves, and it is therefore possible to create a distance between "the real perpetrators of violence" and one's own violence. The use of violence cannot only be described as merely a purposeful and rational project. If this was the case we could expect men to stop their acts of violence immediately when they began to experience violence as a problem. None of the men in Skjørten's study felt that they had sufficient control over their acts of violence that a decision not to hit their partner would be enough for them to break out of the pattern.

The perpetrator's trivialisation of acts of violence must be countered with resistance from the therapist. The goal of the treatment must be to open the man's eyes to the harm and injury caused by violence, thus putting the acts of violence into a new perspective. Denial and trivialisation are the most common defence strategies and this defence must be breached in order to enable the man to choose a new form of behaviour.

Straus, M.A. (1994). State-to-state differences in social inequality and social bonds in relation to assaults on wives in the United States. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 25, 7-24.

Data on wife assaults in all 50 US states are used to examine three theories purporting to explain interregional differences in the rate of such assaults: feminist patriarchal society theory, conflict theory, & social disorganization & control theory. A model incorporating the three theories is tested, regressing assault rates on the Gender Equality & Social Disorganization indexes to measure gender equality, income inequality, & social disorganization, plus 5 control variables. Findings support two of the three theories; specifically, the greater the degree of inequality between men & women & the greater the extent of social disorganization, the higher the rate of assault on wives.

Yllö, K. (1983). Sexual equality and violence against wives in American states. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 14, 67-86.

Using US states as the unit of analysis, the relationship between the social status (SS) of women (in economic, educational, political, & legal terms) & the rate of wife beating is empirically examined. A status of women index is developed on the basis of US Census & other data; state violence rates are based on data gathered through interviews of a representative sample of 2,143 adults. A curvilinear relationship was found between women's SS & wife beating. In states where women's SS is lowest, wives are most likely to be assaulted by their husbands. Violence decreases as sexual equality increases - to a point; but where women's SS is highest, the level of violence against wives is also quite high. It is

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suggested that limited options to violent marriage may keep battered wives in abusive relationships in low-SS states, & that rapid social changes posing a threat to husbands may be a cause of violence in high-SS states. Focus is on short-run consequences of increasing sexual equality.

Care

A culture of care is often proposed as a concept inherent in a protective culture. Research on “care” concerns prosocial behaviour, helping behaviour, altruism, charity, cooperation, sympathy, trust, and support.

Key questions include whether there are cultures of violence. How do we measure them and the differences prevailing in the use of violence, or the different patterns of violence? Regarding cultures of care, the following questions might be asked: do we have these kinds of cultures, and how do we differentiate among types of care, or which protective factors should we promote? If care is a central concern for all, there is a need for care and need to care. Care is not always part of a non-violent culture. If we go beyond the common-sense dual categories of “violence” and “care”, we can see “care” as an aspect of dominance, control and access to power; often, control is an essential aspect of care.

The images of masculinities and femininities are crucial within the cultures of violence and care. Hegemonic forms of masculinity are at the root of violence. Violence is (re)produced in contexts and situations where it is the only perceived available technique of expressing and validating masculinity. There is a high degree of cross-national commonality in the sense that patriarchy is a globally pervasive phenomenon related to male violence. With respect to patriarchal violence, however, there are cultural differences both within and across national boundaries.

Both violence and care depend to some degree on their cultural context for interpretation. Culture is not a concept that easily lends itself to measurement; a range of definitions of culture further complicates the issue. There appears to be agreement, however, that there is more cross-national comparability than difference in terms of gender-based violence despite varying cultural traditions. (CAHRV Paris report p: 19)

Other possible protective factors:

- Breaking the silence
- Social control reputation
- Culture of acknowledgement, of weakness, helplessness

Ko yczkowska, A. (2003): Psychoedukacja w lokalnym systemie pomocy rodzinie - Analiza na podstawie grupy psychoedukacyjnej dla dorosłych osób do wiadczej cych przemocy w rodzinie [Psychoeducation in the local family support system - an analysis of the psychoeducational group for victims of domestic violence], Auxilium Sociale 7, 3/4, Katowice, 152-161

The author conducted a short survey among 22 members of psychoeducational group (victims of domestic violence). In the author’s opinion, they do not do anything specific to prevent their partner’s aggressive behavior and to protect their children from domestic violence. They are also convinced that their partners hold unlimited power and therefore feel paralyzed and passive. Group sessions with other abused women give them support (sharing experiences, providing empathy to one another), self-enhancement, motivation and knowledge how to cope with difficult situations and fight for one’s own rights .

Rajska-Kulik, I. (2001): Wsparcie społeczne oczekiwane przez kobiety do wiadczaj ce agresji ze strony ich partnerów yciowych [Perpception of Social Support as Expected by Women Abused by Their Partners], Chowanna 20, 1, Katowice, 21-33

The research was based on interviews carried out among 77 abused women. In the first part they answered questions concerning the kind and intensity of aggression they experienced. In the second, they described frequency and type of help they received from others, and level of satisfaction from received help, as well as action they took in order to receive support (emotional, cognitive, instrumental, material).

The results prove that victims of serious abuse received support from a greater number of people, in comparison to other victims. Support was provided by parents (36,4%), kids (22,7%) and friends (34,8%). First and foremost, the victims expected emotional support; victims of lighter forms of abuse also looked for cognitive support. They did not feel as helpless as the victims of serious forms of abuse and wanted to analyze and better understand the situation they are in. Emotional, cognitive, instrumental and material social support by parents and friends were identified as protecting.

Chandy, J. M., Blum, R. W. et al. (1996): Gender-specific outcomes for sexually abused adolescents. Child Abuse Negl 20, 12: 1219-31.

This study examined the gender differences in outcomes related to school performance, suicidal involvement, disordered eating behaviors, sexual risk taking, substance use, and delinquent behaviors of male (n = 370) and female teenagers (n = 2,681) who self-reported a history of sexual abuse. It was found that female adolescents, by and large, engaged in internalizing behaviors and males in externalizing behaviors. Male adolescents were found to be at higher risk than females in poor school performance, delinquent activities, and sexual risk taking. Female adolescents, on the other hand, showed higher risk for suicidal ideation and behavior as well as disordered eating. Females showed more frequent use of alcohol. However, male adolescents exhibited more extreme use of alcohol and more frequent and extreme use of marijuana. Among index female adolescents, protective factors against adverse correlates included a higher emotional attachment to family, being religious or spiritual, presence of both parents at home, and a perception of overall health. Factors that augmented adverse correlates for them included a stressful school environment due to perceived high levels of substance use in and around school, worry of sexual abuse, maternal alcohol consumption, and physical abuse. For male adolescents, maternal education and parental concern appeared to be protective factors.

Agathonos, H. (1983): Institutional child abuse in Greece: some preliminary findings. Child Abuse Negl 7, 1: 71-4.

A long-term study on child abuse and neglect in Greece is being carried out at the Institute of Child Health, Athens. A multidisciplinary team is investigating the nature of the problem in Greece, is trying a system of therapeutic intervention to families, is evaluating the adequacy of child protection as it is used in child abuse and neglect, and is examining the efficacy of the law. During a one year period, 5 children cared for in institutions were referred to the program. All were boys. All were children with minor or major handicaps. Two of died from the abusive incident. A study of the circumstances of the injury, and of the conditions in Greek institutions, supports the idea that institutional and family child abuse share many common characteristics. Special mention is made of the Greek circumstances pertaining to child protection and the law.

Education

Kurza K. (2005): Za zamkni tymi drzwiami [Behind Closed Doors], Niebieska Linia 7, 1, Warsaw

The research was carried out by The Institute of Health Psychology in Warsaw and it comprised representative sample of 1000 adult city dwellers. The main objective was to obtain information about their experience and attitudes concerning domestic violence. 36% said that they knew at least one woman abused by the partner. The results indicated a close relation between violence and alcohol abuse (55% cases). 37% of the respondents said that one should not interfere in case of domestic violence – it's a family e business. Moreover, one might unnecessarily get into trouble after such an intervention. Generally, respondents displayed low level of awareness of the issue of domestic violence. For protection, education on violence, awareness for domestic violence being a public and not private issue as well as social participation are recommended.

Gender System

Nøttestad, J.A. and Haugan, G.S. (2002): Behandlingsprosessen og mennenes utvikling evaluert av mennene og de kvinnene som er utsatt for volden, in: Råkil, M. (Ed.) (2002): Menns vold mot kvinner – Behandlingserfaringer og kunnskapsstatus [Men's violence against women – treatment experiences and knowledge status], Universitetsforlaget, Oslo

In this article Jim Aage Nøttestad and Grethemor Skagseth Haugan present experiences from Sinnemestring, a treatment project run in association with a resource centre in Brøste. The project is also part of an alliance in Trondheim formed by various organisations that work with women who are exposed to violence, a fact that serves to facilitate contact with various professional bodies. The project is based on cognitive therapy, both individually and in groups. The treatment is founded on the premise that the man is responsible for the violence he has committed. It focuses on changing the basic negative maxims by which he lives and the subsequent interpretations and thoughts that lead to the emotional behavioural reactions that provoke the use of violence.

The project draws on the experience that group therapy is an appropriate way of treating such men. In group therapy they can help each other to find new strategies to master their problem. Experience has shown that talking to other men about violence provides an insight into what the problem actually consists of. Men seldom talk to each other about feelings, and men who use violence are also often lonely and isolated. Nøttestad and Haugan maintain that openness is the first step on the path to eradicating violence.

Pech, D. (2002): "Neue Männer" und Gewalt: Gewaltfacetten in reflexiven männlichen Selbstbeschreibungen [„New men“ and Violence. Facets of violence in reflexive male self descriptions], Wiesbaden

In the Pech's German study, the experience of crisis plays an important role. Crisis can be the loss of control, the use of violence, the experience of violence, the asymmetry between self-image and reality, etc. Pech conducted six biographical and guided interviews with men who are described and describe themselves as "new" or "different" men. Apart from that, the

sample consisted of men who perform an active fatherhood and live in a relationship which they expect to be with equal rights. Pech uses three steps to figure out aspects of violence:

1. Which attributes characterises the interviewee as a “new man”? What is different from traditional masculinity?
2. Which role plays the fact of compulsory military service/civilian service? Which basic attitude towards the means of violence is shown?
3. How does the interviewee speak about his own experiences as perpetrator or victim?

Similar to this report’s approach, Pech’s leading hypothesis concerns the connection between a self-description as a “new man” and the refusal to use violence. He asserts that there is a close connection between male socialisation and the use of violence, which leads to his premise that a profound change in masculinity can only be reached by men reflecting on their own violent behaviour and putting distance between them and such actions.

Non-violent men might have experienced the same traditional male socialisation and crisis as violent men, but instead of acting violently and limiting their social relations, they chose a different way. If one assumes there is a connection between masculinity and violence, then it is at least worth asking how cognitive and aware each male act of violence can be regarded (which does not mean responsibility should be abrogated in cases where awareness is absent). Instead, an important factor might be men’s reflection on their own (violent) socialisation as well as good experiences with the intensification of egalitarian relationships.

However, violence was not connected to masculinity in any of the six biographical interviews Pech analysed. The decision to join the German Bundeswehr did not have a significant meaning. But concerning the physical violence these men used, they made a differentiation between aggressive violence (which is at odds with both the public discourse, which defines “new masculinity” as the absence of violence, as well as with their self-images as “new men”) and defensive and protective use of violence (which shows an active distance from violence as a means of solving conflict, but it is kept as a potential possibility in their self-image). So even if reflection can help to reject violence as a means of solving conflicts, the connection between masculinity and violence remains untouched. In Pech's study, the refusal of violence can be interpreted as a personal attitude, even leading to personal change, but it is not connected to a reflection on institutional structures and does even less to lead to social action. He comes to the conclusion that change is caused by external processes, mostly concerned with work place changes: Those men who experienced a crisis changed their relationships towards more equality due to changes in their working life. Therefore Pech argues that masculinities will not change by reflection of gender but by changing economic conditions.

Majewska, A. (2001): Poczucie krzywdy kobiet krzywdzonych (na podstawie bada własnych) [Sense of injustice in abused women (based on own research)], Edukacja Dorosłych 8, 4, Toru , 38-48

31 women-victims of domestic abuse were interviewed. There were 59 questions (concerning family, image of a contemporary woman, division of house chores, career and motivation for taking up a job, and the issue of violence in terms of its nature and characteristics).

Surveyed women indicated that nowadays the following issues are most important for women: their health, taking care of children, resourcefulness. Only 19% thought that a woman should entirely devote herself to family life, but as much as 67,7% agreed that it is the man who should be responsible for the finances of a family. As for leisure time, 41,9% spends it with kids and 68,7% takes care of their own health. According to the respondents some of the most values are: love, goodness, bringing up the children, and the family (in terms of good relations).

In self-descriptions ‘woman’, and ‘wife’ categories were used most often, although, they also used the term ‘mother’. At the same time they do not feel appreciated as wives, the only

source of satisfaction and identification is motherhood. Independence, non-traditional expectations and family roles as well as non-patriarchal values can be identified as protective factors.

Rode, D. (2001): Przemoc w mał e stwie, czyli o yciu we dwoje za wszelk cen [Marital violence – staying together at any price], Problemy Rodziny 41, 2, Warsaw, 13-23

The research was conducted among 30 women experiencing partner abuse. Its main objective was to identify the main factor of destructive beliefs (helplessness, fear of change, self-destructive tendencies, irrational hope for improvement of the situation) of abused women. Such beliefs helped them to stay psychologically sound, but at the same time deterred abused women from leaving their oppressors. The measures used in the study were: the questionnaire „My Beliefs”, „Questionnaire of Focused Interview” (4 categories of statements: Marriage and Family, Male-Female Relations, and Male and Female Stereotypes, the Image of the World and Self-Image.

To women family was of paramount importance and they saw marriage as a sacred relationship. Almost half of them thought that suffering is inevitable in marriage. They agreed with some of the traditional female roles in a family. They saw themselves in a rather negative perspective, had low self-esteem. They also felt they did not control their life and could not see themselves living alone.

As protective factors can be identified: changing traditional and destructive beliefs about family and women’s dependence on men, equal power in family, awareness of violence issues.

Hong, L. (2000): Toward a transformed approach to prevention: breaking the link between masculinity and violence, Journal of American College Health 48, 6, 269-279

Men are disproportionately overrepresented among both perpetrators and victims of violent crime. Scholars from the men's studies movement have documented a clear link between socialization into stereotypical norms of hegemonic masculinity and an increased risk for experiencing violence. Despite this evidence, most campus prevention programs fail to recognize the link between men and violence and use only traditional approaches to violence prevention. The most that on-campus prevention programs provide are self-defense seminars for potential female victims of rape and general campus safety measures. In this article, the author describes a comprehensive, transformed approach to violence prevention. Data from a year-long case study of Men Against Violence, a peer education organization at a large university in the South, demonstrate the feasibility of meaningfully expanding male students' conceptions of manhood and appropriate gender roles and, thus, reducing the likelihood of men's engaging in sexually or physically violent behavior.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=pubmed&list_uids=10863870&dopt=Citation

Hetheron, J. and L. Beardsall (1998): Decisions and attitudes concerning child sexual abuse: does the gender of the perpetrator make a difference to child protection professionals?, Child Abuse Negl 22, 12: 1265-83.

An investigation was conducted into whether child protection investigators, specifically social workers and the police, are as likely to take seriously a case of child sexual abuse if it had been perpetrated by a female rather than a male. Also, to examine whether the decisions relating to female-perpetrated abuse were predicted by participants' sex role perceptions of

women and their attitudes concerning women's sexualized behavior towards children. Participants advocated decisions in response to four hypothetical case of child sexual abuse in which the perpetrator was either male or female. The female perpetrators were then rated on femininity and masculinity characteristics and attitudes concerning women's sexualized behavior toward children were assessed.

Following male--rather than female--perpetrated sexual abuse, case registration and imprisonment of the perpetrator was considered more appropriate by all participant groups; male social workers also considered social services involvement and investigation as more appropriate. A substantial number of decisions concerning female perpetrated abuse were predicted by participants' attitudes. While child protection professionals considered child sexual abuse perpetrated by females to be a serious issue warranting intervention, a number of advocated decisions suggested that they did not consider female-perpetrated abuse to be as serious as male-perpetrated abuse. The implication is that victims of sexual abuse perpetrated by a woman may be less likely to receive the protection afforded victims of male-perpetrated abuse. Furthermore, professionals' practices may be inadvertently perpetuating the view that female child sexual abuse is rare or less harmful than abuse carried out by males.

Zulehner, P. M./Volz, R. (1998): Männer im Aufbruch. Wie Deutschlands Männer sich selbst und wie Frauen sie sehen. [Men's new departure. How German men view themselves and how women see them] Ein Forschungsbericht. Herausgegeben von der Männerarbeit der Evangelischen Kirche Deutschlands sowie der Gemeinschaft der Katholischen Männer Deutschlands, Ostfildern.

In their German study "Männer im Aufbruch" ("Men's new departures") Volz and Zulehner (1998) started from the basic assumption that the working sphere is central to most men. At the same time they are only partially present in the family sphere. As a third thesis the authors assume that men hardly have access to their inner feelings. Asking men about their attitudes towards these three fields (work, family, inner feelings), Zulehner and Volz figured out four different types of men: two "true" types, traditional men and new men and two mixed forms, pragmatic men and unsettled men. The traditional man performs the classical breadwinner model: he earns the money, while the woman cares for home and children. The authors found 19%, with the tendency decreasing. The pragmatic man (25%) is characterised by traditional values concerning working men and childcaring women, but at the same time he tends towards values, which usually characterise new men: positive attitudes towards women working, emancipation and male childcaring. The new man (20%, increasing tendency) wants an equal division of responsibilities concerning labour, family and housework. He thinks that taking parental leave as a father means an enrichment for him; he is willing to shorten his work time and finds compatibility between work and family important. The largest group of men, Volz and Zulehner found, is the group of unsettled men (37%). These men have minor values in traditional men's fields as well as in the new men's ones, so these men do not agree with any of the role models.

Concerning violence, the authors asked seven different questions in order to find out the men's disposition towards violence. Most of the questions do not ask for violent acts directly. They rather refer to approaches to infidelity, "white pride", the social bondage of men or the question of guilt of a female rape victim. Only one question is concerned with direct physical violence¹. In another, physical strength is mentioned as a means to demonstrate masculinity. Close relationships with women can be experienced as threatening. Concluding with a factor analysis of these very mixed and somewhat abstract statements, the authors divided the results into three parts: strong disposition towards violence (4% of all men), middle disposition (37%) and weak disposition (59%). Concerning the four groups of men, they report that 11% of those men characterised as traditional are strongly disposed to use violence, while the new

men's strong disposition is 0% (pragmatic men: 4%; unsettled men: 1%; *ibid.* 200). In the middle section, 54% of traditional men tend to use violence, while 9% of the new men are found here (pragmatic men: 35%, unsettled men: 51%). 36% of traditional men have a weak disposition towards violence, in the new men the rate is 91% (pragmatic men: 45%, unsettled men: 64%).

Volz and Zulehner only report about dispositions to use violence; they did not ask for concrete acts of violence. Even though it is not clearly explained, how and why the authors interpret answers to statements on attitudes, e.g. like the superiority of the white race, as attitudes towards violence, they assume that with the increase of new men male violence possibly decreases.

O'Neil, J.M.; Harway, M. (1997): A Multivariate Model Explaining Men's Violence Toward Women, Predisposing and Triggering Hypotheses; Violence Against Women 3, 2, 182-203

Violence against women by men is considered the single most serious threat to women's health and welfare in the United States. Knowledge about why male violence occurs against women is very limited. Previous theory and conceptualizations explaining men's violence have narrowly focused on individual factors or typologies. Predicting male violence is complex, necessitating a multivariate explanatory model. No heuristic model has been developed that explains the multiplicity of hypotheses that might explain men's violence toward women. This article presents a multivariate model explaining men's violence toward women using four content areas and 13 hypotheses. The content areas are: (a) macrosocietal explanation; (b) biological, neuroanatomical, hormonal explanation; (c) gender role socialization or gender role conflict explanation; and (d) intergender, relational explanation. Implications of the model for educational interventions, research, and training are explored.

<http://vaw.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/3/2/182>

James, S. A. (1994): Reconciling international human rights and cultural relativism: the case of female circumcision. Bioethics 8, 1: 1-26.

How can we reconcile, in a non-ethnocentric fashion, the enforcement of international, universal human rights standards with the protection of cultural diversity? Examining this question, taking the controversy over female circumcision as a case study, this article will try to bridge the gap between the traditional anthropological view that human rights are non-existent -- or completely relativised to particular cultures -- and the view of Western naturalistic philosophers (including Lockean philosophers in the natural rights tradition, and Aquinas and neo-Thomists in the natural law tradition) that they are universal -- simply derived from a basic human nature we all share. After briefly defending a universalist conception of human rights, the article will provide a critique of female circumcision as a human rights violation by three principal means: by an internal critique of the practice using the condoning cultures' own functionalist criteria; by identifying supra-national norms the cultures subscribe to which conflict with the practice; and by the identification of traditional and novel values in the cultures, conducive to those norms. Through this analysis, it will be seen that cultural survival, diversity and flourishing need not be incompatible with upholding international, universal human rights standards.

Ben-David, S. (1993 print, 2005 online): The two facets of female violence: The public and the domestic domains, Journal of Family Violence 8, 4, Springer Netherlands, 345-359

Violent behavior of women varies significantly in the public and private domains. Criminal statistics indicate a relatively low proportion of women among violent offenders in the public domain, while in the domestic and/or private domain statistics reflect almost no gender difference in violent behavior. The following paper proposes a dynamic model which draws upon psychological and sociological variables and suggests that the clue for understanding the paradoxical phenomenon lies in the relative importance the domestic domain plays in the woman's value structure. Among the variables considered were: social learning patterns regarding violent behavior; perception of danger; and the ways in which women express their frustration and/or anger.

<http://www.springerlink.com/content/tm1032q02j32x720/>

Finn, J. (1986 print, 2005 online): The relationship between sex role attitudes and attitudes supporting marital violence, *Sex Roles* 14, 5-6, Springer Netherlands, 235-244

This study explored the relationship between attitudes toward sex roles and attitudes endorsing the legitimacy of physical force by men in the marital relationship. Approximately 40% of this sample of 300 college undergraduates were black, allowing black-white comparisons on these variables as well. The results support a sociocultural analysis of spouse abuse. A moderately strong positive relationship was found between traditional sex role preferences and attitudes supporting the use of physical force. In addition, men were found to hold more traditional sex role attitudes than women and were more likely to endorse the use of physical force in the marital relationship. Whites were found to be more traditional in their sex role attitudes than blacks, but no racial differences were found with regard to attitudes endorsing physical force. Further analysis revealed that traditional sex role attitudes were the most powerful predictor of attitudes supporting marital violence, while race and sex played a relatively unimportant role. Implications for spouse-abuse prevention program are discussed.

<http://www.springerlink.com/content/367v0jt83g787781/>

Institutions

Lagerberg, D. (2004): A descriptive survey of Swedish child health nurses' awareness of abuse and neglect. II. Characteristics of the children. *Acta Paediatr* 93, 5: 692-701.

To determine whether children considered by child health nurses to be at risk of abuse or neglect differed from the general population in gender, age and health status, and whether such child characteristics were related to nurses' perceptions of case seriousness, or to reporting to the child protection services (CPS). Questionnaires were sent to nurses in the preventive Child Health Services, 951 of whom identified a total of 6044 children aged 0 to 6 y as suspected of risk of maltreatment.

Boys and older children were over-represented among the identified children, possibly because the attention of the nurses was attracted by salient symptoms in older boys. Children with health problems and boys exposed to disturbed parenting/neglect were perceived as more serious cases than other children. Children aged 4-6 y were more likely to be reported to the CPS than children under 3 y of age. The findings raise the question whether possibly maltreated children who are very young, female or in good health run a particularly high risk of non-detection, of being considered non-serious cases and of not being reported to the CPS.

The risk of going unnoticed may be higher for some children at risk of maltreatment than for others.

Lupton, C., N. North, et al. (2000): What role for the general practitioner in child protection? Br J Gen Pract 50, 461: 977-81.

New government guidance on cooperation in child protection confirms the importance of the general practitioner (GP) contribution. While research highlights the concerns of others about their role in the multi-agency process, relatively little is known about the views and experiences of GPs themselves. AIM: To examine the understanding that each of the key professional groups had of its own and each other's roles in child protection to identify those factors seen to enhance or inhibit the effective performance of these roles. The research formed part of a larger investigation of the role of health professionals in child protection, which combined case study investigations of child protection networks in three health authority sites with a regional survey of Area Child Protection Committee members.

A lack of correspondence was identified between GPs' perception and performance of their role in child protection and the expectations placed upon them by other child protection professionals and government guidance. The study identifies the need for more explicit discussion of the nature and extent of the GP role in local interagency child protection networks.

Sexuality

Anhalt, K. and T. L. Morris (1998): Developmental and adjustment issues of gay, lesbian, and bisexual adolescents: a review of the empirical literature. Clin Child Fam Psychol Rev 1, 4: 215-30.

Various studies have reported adjustment problems experienced by gay, lesbian, and bisexual (GLB) adolescents. A primary purpose of this paper is to critically review this literature. Difficulties that have been studied include past suicide attempts, substance use and abuse, conduct problems, and academic concerns. For example, a considerable number of GLB youth report a history of suicide attempts, with prevalence rates ranging from 11 to 42%. However, among other methodological concerns, studies in this area have not used a comparison sample of heterosexual youths. Characteristics of development particular to GLB adolescents are described, the empirical research on adjustment issues is reviewed, and potential risk and protective factors for GLB youths are discussed.

Summary of literature on gay men:

- **Bochow, M. (1993): Die Reaktionen homosexueller Männer auf AIDS in Ost- und Westdeutschland. [Responses of homosexual men to AIDS in Eastern and Western Germany] Ergebnisbericht zu einer Befragung im Auftrag der Bundeszentrale für gesundheitliche Aufklärung/Köln. AIDS-Forum DAH, Band 10, Berlin.**
- **Bochow, M. (1994): Schwuler Sex und die Bedrohung durch AIDS - Reaktionen homosexueller Männer in Ost- und Westdeutschland. [Gay Sex and the thread by AIDS - Responses of homosexual men to AIDS in Eastern and Western**

- Germany] Ergebnisbericht zu einer Befragung im Auftrag der Bundeszentrale für gesundheitliche Aufklärung/Köln, AIDS-Forum DAH, Band 16, Berlin.**
- **Bochow, M. (1997): Schwule Männer und AIDS. [Gay men and AIDS] Eine Befragung im Auftrag der Bundeszentrale für gesundheitliche Aufklärung/Köln, AIDS-Forum DAH, Band 31, Berlin.**
 - **Bochow, M. (2001): Schwule Männer, AIDS und Safer Sex. Neue Entwicklungen. [Gay men, AIDS and safer sex. New developments] Eine Befragung im Auftrag der Bundeszentrale für gesundheitliche Aufklärung/Köln, AIDS-Forum DAH, Band 40, Berlin.**
 - **Bochow, M., Wright, M. T. and Lange, M. (2004): Schwule Männer und Aids: Risikomanagement in Zeiten der sozialen Normalisierung einer Infektionskrankheit. [Gay men and AIDS: Risk management in times of social normalisation of an infectious disease] Eine Befragung im Auftrag der Bundeszentrale für gesundheitliche Aufklärung/Köln, AIDS-Forum DAH, Band 48, Berlin.**

Since 1991, items concerning the experience of violence have been integrated into the surveys on gay men and HIV/AIDS in Germany by Bochow (1993, 1994, 1997, 2001) and Bochow, Wright and Lange (2004). The average sample size in the surveys from 1991 to 1999 was n=3049, in the 2003-survey the sample size was n=4750. The authors report a relatively high and fairly constant rate of gay men having experienced "symbolic violence" (defined by the authors as being attacked verbally, insulted or molested) in the last 12 months, with rates higher than 10 % of the respondents who had returned the questionnaires. Up to 5 % of the respondents reported having experienced some kind of physical violence. In the surveys, the items have taken the severity of physical violence into account (namely: without injuries; with minor injuries; severe injuries - medical treatment was necessary; life-threatening injuries). In the surveys published after 2000, a slight reduction in physical violence has been observed, but the amount of symbolic violence has remained stable (Bochow, 2001; Bochow, Wright & Lange, 2004).

The following correlations have consistently turned up. In general, gay men who live "openly" (i.e. who have disclosed their homosexuality to the heterosexual community) and who show more "social visibility" by frequently being in gay clubs or similar places face symbolic and physical violence more often than gay men who lead "closeted" lives (i.e. who have not disclosed their homosexuality to the heterosexual community). On the other hand, among the gay men who have experienced severe forms of violence, the proportion of "closeted" gay men is the highest - a fact that must remain unexplained on the basis of the survey data:

"Why closet homosexuals are more often victims cannot be discussed here. Perpetrators of violence see them as "easier" victims (as verbally related by Heinz Uth, a former gay and lesbian representative for the Berlin Police Department)." (Bochow 2001: 126).

In the earlier surveys, there was evidence that men who visited public sex venues (public bathrooms, parks, etc.) were the predominant victims of severe physical violence. A connection between the more severe forms of violence and being robbed was found. In the later surveys, the pattern changed:

"In 1999 (see Bochow 2001), the men who more frequently visited public bathrooms and cruising areas were not the subject of physical violence to an over-proportionate extent. One reason for this may be the closing of traditional bathrooms and their replacement by pay-bathrooms in large German cities. Another reason is the increased police presence in certain cruising areas in high population urban areas such as Berlin, Hamburg and Cologne." (Bochow, Wright & Lange 2004: 25f.)

In the 1999-survey, 43 % of all victims of robberies said that there was no homophobic background (Bochow, 2001). With some caution, it may still be interpreted that there may be some connections between public venues and robberies, i.e. that there are something like public gay venues (or behaviour) that are more likely to be at risk of violence.

Severe acts of violence are often reported to the police, which is not the case with less severe acts of violence, which are seldom reported. The surveys show that gay men who have experienced symbolic or physical violence are sceptical about the chances that the police might find the perpetrators, or they didn't consider it necessary to report the violent act because little or no physical harm had occurred. For example, in the 1993-survey (Bochow 1994), one third of the respondents who had suffered violence were worried about being involved in a court trial or feared being discriminated against or listed as a gay man by the police. On the other hand, it is noteworthy "...that police officials regularly indicate in discussions with gay groups that minor offences should be reported to the police, because information about crimes committed in specific public places is indispensable to successful crime prevention." (Bochow 1994: 99).

"In the 1990s, the atypical social situation of homosexual men led to channels of communication opening up between gay groups and officials from some police departments in a number of cities, including Cologne, Berlin and Frankfurt am Main. One must add here that these channels of communication are in a no way a matter of course, given the role of the police up until the 1980s. In discussions with gay groups, police representatives also assumed that there was a significant extent of violent offences committed against homosexuals. They continually indicate, however, that the investigative duties of the police are hindered by the fact that many homosexual victims of violence do not report the crimes. The significant dark figure of violent crimes is a significant impediment to the prevention work of the police..." (Bochow 1994: 98)

Thus, institutions like the police can be seen as a protective or preventive element concerning violence against gay men if they manage to convince possible and actual victims that they will proceed in a non-discriminating way against gay victims of violence. In this connection, anti-discriminatory measures inside these institutions as well as confidence-building measures towards gay communities may be necessary (*trustworthy institutions*). Apart from their sceptical attitude towards the police, "...a lack of self confidence" (Bochow 1993: 78) is another reason for not reporting violent experiences to the police.

Here, it can be interpreted that discrimination against gay men plays an important role, namely in the way that psychological processes of shame and fear of disclosure hinder gay men from reporting violence. Measures to empower gay men on an individual level as well as "structural prevention" (a term mainly used in the context of HIV prevention, but which makes sense in the context of violence prevention as well) may play protective factor roles in preventing violence (*empowerment; structural prevention*).

Violence against gay men is connected to age, both the victim's and the perpetrators'. Age can determine the likelihood of being involved in a violent act. Men under 35, for instance, face violence more often than older men. On the other hand, compiling various studies, Bochow (1994: 100) concludes that over 80 % of all violent acts against homosexual men are committed by young men and youngsters under 21 years of age.

"Even if physical violence has slightly decreased in comparison to the number of incidents in 1996, there is no reason to play it down, particularly because anti-gay and racist violence is often committed by the same groups of perpetrators." (Bochow 2001: 136).

Thus, tolerance-building measures for male youngsters are needed to counteract violence against young gay men committed by young men (*violence preventive measures for young men*).

Ethnicity

Ashton, V. (2004): The effect of personal characteristics on reporting child maltreatment. *Child Abuse Negl* 28, 9: 985-97.

This study examined the relationship between personal characteristics of 276 potential entry-level social service workers and their decision to report child maltreatment to Child Protective Services (CPS). The personal characteristics of interest were: age, gender, parenthood, mother's education, father's education, college major, ethnicity, and immigrant status. The study hypotheses were that personal characteristics would have: (1) an individual effect on reporting, (2) a combined effect on reporting, and (3) an effect on reporting beyond any effect mediated by approval of corporal punishment and perceptions of maltreatment. Data were collected by a self-report survey employing vignettes in multi-item scales. Respondents rated (1) their approval of corporal punishment, (2) the seriousness of incidents of probable maltreatment, and (3) their likelihood of reporting incidents of probable maltreatment to CPS. Of the eight personal characteristics, only ethnicity and immigrant status had significant effects on reporting. Together with approval of corporal punishment and perception of maltreatment, ethnicity and immigrant status accounted for 32% of the variance in reporting ($p < .001$). Independently and combined, ethnicity and immigrant status have considerable effect on reporting behaviour. Findings suggest that human service agencies should address issues of diversity and establish clear criteria for responding to child maltreatment.

McLoyd, V. C., Cauce, A. M., Takeuchi, D., Wilson, L. (2000): Marital Processes and Parental Socialization in Families of Color: A Decade Review of Research, *Journal of Marriage and Family* 62, 4, 1070

Research published during the past decade on African American, Latino, and Asian American families is reviewed. Emphasis is given to selected issues within the broad domains of marriage and parenting. The first section highlights demographic trends in family formation and family structure and factors that contributed to secular changes in family structure among African Americans. In the second section, new conceptualizations of marital relations within Latino families are discussed, along with research documenting the complexities in African American men's conceptions of manhood. Studies examining within-group variation in marital conflict and racial and ethnic differences in division of household labor, marital relations, and children's adjustment to marital and family conflict also are reviewed. The third section gives attention to research on (a) paternal involvement among fathers of color; (b) the relation of parenting behavior to race and ethnicity, grandmother involvement, neighborhood and peer characteristics, and immigration; and (c) racial and ethnic socialization. The article concludes with an overview of recent advances in the study of families of color and important challenges and issues that represent research opportunities for the new decade.

<http://www.blackwell-synergy.com/links/doi/10.1111%2Fj.1741-3737.2000.01070.x>

Work

Nachreiner, N. M., S. G. Gerberich, et al. (2005): Impact of training on work-related assault. *Res Nurs Health* 28, 1: 67-78.

Although training is often recommended as a part of a comprehensive approach to address occupational violence, little empirical literature exists to support this recommendation. Over 40% of nurses responding to the Minnesota Nurses Study reported being trained about occupational violence, involving seven different training topics. Although at the univariate level, an increased risk was identified for nurses trained in managing assaultive/violent patients, no statistically significant results remained at the multivariate level. This lack of protection from training is consistent with previous research, although the explanations for this lack of effect remain unclear. Additional research is necessary to obtain more specific details on occupational violence training, including training content and methods, to understand more thoroughly the impact of training on occupational violence.

Lawoko, S./Soares, J.J.F., Nolan, P. (2004): *Violence towards psychiatric staff. A comparison of gender, job and environmental characteristics in England and Sweden, Work and Stress 18, 1, 39-55*

The study is aimed to examine gender differences in relation to the experience of violence, and compared nurses and psychiatrists in England and Sweden to determine the significance of cultural factors in the occurrence of violence. The influence of environmental, health and organizational factors on the occurrence of violence is also scrutinized. This comparative study was conducted in eight health districts of Stockholm County Council and in five Mental Health Trusts in the West Midlands region of England.

Workplace violence is receiving increasing attention world-wide, and studies suggest that, for example, nurses and women may be more abused at work than psychiatrists and men. The present study compares among other things the nature of violence encountered by female/male staff (nurses and psychiatrists) in Sweden and England. Psychiatric personnel from England (301 nurses; 74 psychiatrists) and Sweden (745 nurses; 306 psychiatrists) were assessed cross-sectionally by means of a questionnaire covering various areas (e.g. nature of violence). The univariate analyses showed an association between being abused and male gender, young age, being British and a nurse, physical and psychological strain. The multivariate logistic regression confirmed that British nurses and male nurses were the main risk group for exposure to violence. Further, the multivariate analysis indicated that the odds of being abused increased with increasing age, physical strain and dissatisfaction with quality of care. Interventions thus need to be sensitive to gender differences, societal context, professional roles and interactions between them. Further, clinical supervision and team functioning, organizational and environmentally friendly settings may help to reduce violence in mental health care.

Working in teams can provide some protection against violence. Teamwork may also act as a buffer against physical strain, an important determinant of violence as our study shows. It seems that the working and health situation of English psychiatric employees is (perceived) worse than for the Swedish, while the English are more satisfied with the Organization

Meschkatat, B., Stackelbeck, M., Langenhoff, G. (2002): *Der Mobbing-Report. Eine Repräsentativstudie für die Bundesrepublik Deutschland [The Bullying Report. A representative study for Germany], Bremerhaven, http://www.baua.de/nn_28474/de/Informationen-fuer-die-Praxis/Publikationen/Schriftenreihe/Forschungsberichte/2002/Fb_20951,xv=vt.pdf*

The Mobbing-Report presents the results of first and only representative study about bullying at the workplace in Germany. It analyses data about the extent and structure of the phenomenon. The inquiry asked for Bullying activities which were chosen from the 45 items of the LIPT (Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terrorization). The inquiry had two steps.

Firstly, a telephone inquiry with standardized interviews was carried out. The sample was randomized; some "special procedures of data collection" are said to ensure that, for example, people who are not very much at home were not be underrepresented. 4396 interviews were realized. 535 of inquired persons were identified as victims of bullying. The second step was a standardized questionnaire that also included some open questions. This questionnaire had to be filled in in writing form. It was sent to all persons who had indicated in the telephone inquiry to be victims of bullying; additionally, the questionnaire was allocated by other procedures, with the result of 1317 utilisable questionnaires and lots of other material like psychological certificates sent in. Sexualized violence is not discussed in the report.

Rates of bullying victims are differentiated according to gender, age, occupational sector, level of qualification, position in the organizational hierarchy and sectors. The report characterizes the different forms and elements of bullying as well as their frequency, the duration of bullying processes and the consequences for victims and perpetrators. It makes very clear that even comparatively short processes of bullying have significant and massive negative consequences for victims' health and psychological state as well as for their economical situations (the latter because a lot of bullying victims lose their work as consequence of bullying). Furthermore it shows strategies that help victims to overcome the experiences of bullying and their assumptions about the causes of bullying and perpetrators' motives. One of the authors' conclusions says that personal attributes of the victims are much less important factors for bullying than attributes of the enterprise. Finally the report gives recommendations for prevention of bullying in the workplace.

Protective factors can be identified especially on the basis of the author's recommendations for prevention, like clear structures, tasks and responsibilities in the organization of work, active information about bullying, participation-oriented arrangements of planning- and decision-making processes, transparency regarding decisions, good leadership and good working-/enterprise atmosphere.

Einarsen, S., Raknes, B. I., Matthiesen, S. B. and Hellesøy, O. H. (1994): Mobbing og harde personkonflikter – helsefarlig samspill på arbeidsplassen [Victimization and hard personal conflicts – interaction that increases health risks at the workplace], Sigma Forlag, Bergen

The authors refer to the trade union movement in Norway which has claimed that bullying is perhaps the greatest psychosocial working environment problem we are faced with today. Minor studies and information from Swedish figures have provided a basis to claim that as many as 100,000 Norwegians are bullied at work, while others have made more cautious estimates and put the figure at between 50,000 and 60,000. Equal numbers of women and men report that they are bullied. However, researchers have found one difference: while three per cent of the women are bullied weekly or more frequently, only 1.7 per cent of the men were bullied as often. In contrast more men than women state that they are bullied on isolated occasions.

In total more men than women are perceived as bullies. Almost all the male victims are tormented by men – over half in fact only by men. In contrast, women are bullied equally by both men and women. Among children it is mostly boys who are bullies. Both boys and girls are bullied, and mainly by older boys. This gives rise to the assumption that girls and women are more skilled than boys and men at understanding and acquiring an awareness of other people's feelings and needs. Another explanation given is that more men than women hold positions of power and leadership. At the workplace bullies are found both among colleagues and among subordinates and superiors.

The participants in the bullying survey point to the following main areas of priority and requirements for preventing bullying:

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- Developing an open and secure climate and working environment.
- Appointing well-qualified managers who are confident, have acquired knowledge of people management and are democratic.
- Ensuring that the working environment is characterised by respect, tolerance and solidarity.
- Making provisions for the free flow of information about bullying in the organisation, as well as for openness and forums for communication where bullying is brought to light.
- Appointing competent union representatives who are active and aware of the problem.
- Providing the victims with support, help and protection.
- Clarifying the victims' role – they must speak out about their problems, and leaders and union representatives must react quickly.
- Implementing sanctions against bullying: bullies must be dealt with appropriately.
- Making new employees feel welcome to the organisation.
- Being aware of limits – joking and teasing can be dangerous and may change character.

The authors also claim that the efforts made to prevent bullying at school are an example to be followed at the workplace. Much knowledge has been gained in schools about bullying among children and how such problems can best be addressed. Professor Dan Olweus at the University of Bergen has compiled a simple programme of measures that has produced extremely good results. The goals of the programme are to reduce or completely prevent bullying within and outside schools, to improve the social environment in schools, and to create conditions where both the victims and the bullies can feel more secure and function better. Some of the measures are:

- Arranging study days for teachers and parents with bullying as the theme.
- Giving each class the task of drawing up rules against bullying.
- Holding regular talks with the victims and the bullies as soon as a case occurs.

Other measures include education, competence enhancement, information activities, the compilation of a specific plan for handling complaints and for counselling, the establishment of an informal non-threatening system for arbitration along with a support service for rehabilitating victims and clear rules for sanctions on violations.

Einarsen, S., Raknes, B.I. and Matthiesen, S.B. (1993): Seksuell trakassering – Bøllen og Blondinen på norske arbeidsplasser [Sexual harassment – the Bully and the Blonde at Norwegian workplaces], Sigma Forlag, Bergen

This book focuses on what can be done to prevent and handle sexual harassment at the workplace and in society as a whole. It also presents various studies conducted during recent years that have examined the incidence and prevalence of sexual harassment in working life in Norway. However, the main body of the results originate from the so-called “bullying study” on the working environment, bullying and harassment that the authors carried out in 1990. The book also contains a detailed discussion of the role of sexuality at Norwegian workplaces. The authors describe the prevalence of sexual harassment in relation to gender distribution in this arena and give precedence to an organisational view of sexual harassment. Many studies indicate that sexual infringement is a widespread phenomenon. Estimates of the number of working women who are affected have varied between 20 and 90 per cent. In a Norwegian MMI survey from 1992 one of five women stated that they have experienced groping, pinching, dirty comments, whistling, attempts at embraces, pornography hanging on the walls or similar incidences at work. What was common to these acts was that the women perceived them as undesired sexual innuendo or approaches.

Men also report that they are subject to such abuse, though clearly to a lesser extent than women. However, many researchers are sceptical as to whether men actually do experience sexual harassment; others refer to the tormenting of, for example, homosexual men without further research on this theme having been carried out.

The authors mention four factors that are decisive in defining whether the behaviour in question is sexual harassment or not:

- The behaviour or acts to which the women are exposed must be interpreted as sexual.
- They must be undesired.
- They must be perceived as negative.
- They must occur repeatedly over a certain period of time, or have negative consequences over time.

The authors' main point is that sexual harassment is a type of interpersonal problem that may arise at the workplace but that should not necessarily be separated from the rest of the efforts to improve the psychosocial working environment as a whole. Special focus can be given to sexual harassment as a subject, but it must not be isolated from other endeavours to better the working environment.

The psychosocial environment as a whole and sexual harassment in general can be affected at several levels.

Society and the authorities must influence the prevalence of sexual harassment through a broad range of direct and indirect measures and policy instruments. This can to a large extent be achieved through education policy, financial policy and family policy. Every attempt to increase equality between the sexes will contribute to reducing these problems.

Other factors can also have a preventive effect on sexual harassment: education, the dissemination of information, campaigns to change attitudes, and legislation and regulations imposed on organisations. An important factor with regard to education is that the authorities should ensure that the mandate of the educational system includes forming attitudes and building competence on such problems. In the opinion of the writers, the Norwegian school system addresses the subject of interpersonal interaction at the workplace to a far too small extent and does little to prepare young people for this situation.

The authors recommend that both the Norwegian Worker Protection and Working Environment Act and the Norwegian Gender Equality Act, along with the law of damages and legislation on crime, should contain a ban on sexual harassment. The level of organisation involves the working environment, management, the interpersonal climate, the status of men and women and the power differences between them in the organisation, the adaptation and organisation of the work, gender distribution and the composition of working groups, and the organisation culture. Knowledge, attitudes, norms and values, and skills in both handling conflicts and in leadership represent major issues.

Frøberg, S. and Sørensen, R. (1992): Stopp seksuell trakassering på jobben [Stop sexual harassment at the workplace], Tiden Norsk Forlag, Oslo

This is a handbook that outlines measures against sexual harassment at the workplace. The measures have been compiled from the writers' research experience and knowledge developed in England, New Zealand and the USA. The goal of the book is to give the readers some guidelines on how they can start the process of identifying, understanding and implementing measures against sexual harassment at the workplace. The book is intended for all parties in working life who have or should have responsibility for the working environment and for issues of gender equality.

It is emphasised that sexual harassment is a working environment problem rather than a personal problem. The researchers point out that the working environment is of great significance for whether sexual harassment occurs at the workplace or not. To explain the

prevalence of sexual harassment, Frøberg and Sørensen present two power systems that function together and that reinforce each other: the gender-divided labour market and the sexualisation of women. The imbalance of power places women in an exposed position.

Research has shown that it is women who are most often exposed to sexual harassment, while those who harass are predominantly men. In Norway 20 per cent of women in the age group 18 to 50 state that they have been subject to sexual harassment once or more during their career (MMI market research agency, 1992). Frøberg and Sørensen also maintain that single or divorced women and single mothers are more often exposed to such harassment than others. This also applies to women who in periods have been unemployed. Immigrant women are also in an exposed position since many of them have a loose affiliation with working life as well as language problems. Based on these findings, the authors emphasise that it is important to pay special attention to these groups.

Where women actually work is significant for whether they are exposed to sexual harassment or not. The writers distinguish between two different types of harassment that are dependent on the working environment: male workplaces and female workplaces. The first type of harassment is that which takes place within traditional male occupations. It is women in male occupations that most frequently state that they are subject to sexual harassment. The other type of harassment is that which takes place within traditional female occupations – where men are most often leaders. Harassment can take the form of demands for sexual services to attain employment, promotion or a pay rise.

Norway is ranked highest in Europe with regard to gender division on the labour market. The best way of stopping sexual harassment is to work towards establishing a gender-equal labour market where women and men have the same opportunities for both status and pay. Attention must be paid to the male victims. It is important to emphasise that men's position in society and working life does not preclude them from experiencing sexual harassment – sometimes by women but presumably more often by other men. Researchers also refer to how homosexual men can feel harassed by heterosexual men. As yet there is little available knowledge about homosexuality at the workplace.

On the personal level, guilt should be placed at the door of the correct offender. It is important for health reasons to verbalise the situation. The report advises victims to contact the employee union or others at the workplace who are responsible for personnel, and recommends that events should be carefully noted. In collaboration with their local federation, the employee unions should draw up clear guidelines against sexual harassment. Measures could include training programmes for all union representatives and other key personnel, and the trade unions ensuring that the employer has an action plan against sexual harassment. Measures against sexual harassment should be incorporated into the collective agreement, and formal procedures should be developed for the use of sanctions against the perpetrators. Men should be encouraged to talk together, to assist in combating sexual harassment and to reject behaviour and remarks from men that imply sexual harassment. Employee unions as a whole must ensure that men assume responsibility for their conduct.

Union representatives must seek advice and make alliances. It is also important that all the harassment that occurs – against both women and men – is registered and that the union representatives take the initiative to do something about the problem even if the victims have not complained. Both leaders and the local federation should be informed.

The management also has a great responsibility at workplaces where sexual harassment occurs. Sexual harassment is a concealed subject and the management should therefore assume the responsibility for bringing it to light. In addition, leaders should acquire the ability to see and recognise this type of conflict in the working environment and should formulate clear guidelines. Leaders should arrange individual consultations that focus on the relevant terminology with the aim of ensuring that all those concerned speak the same language to facilitate better communication at all levels in the company. The environment should be

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discussed, and a project group should be set up to work on the factors that emerge from the consultations.

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Situation and context

The importance of intrapersonal characteristics, re-victimisation, mobility and opportunity.

A focus on situational factors can be important for several reasons, including:

- A specific 'type of violence' focus is culture and time specific—this can prevent understanding of other types of violence, for example, the history of child sexual abuse that situated sexual violence to children in the home (incest) and did not grant similar importance to sexual violence outside the home to children (e.g. peer sexual assault).
- A focus on individuals, structural factors or types of violence is too simplistic for understanding the violent or non-violent behaviour of individuals in certain situations.

There is a need to reflect the complexity and connections that have to do with situational factors for prevention.

Situational factors are clustered around factors relevant to a violent act in the violent situation.

These include:

- Internalised situation-specific factors such as a history of violence or resilience;
- Context catalyst factors such as a phone call, alcohol consumption or a bad day at work;
- Lack or existence of sanctions
- Wider structural factors impacting on the situation such as poverty, racism and patriarchy.

Situations where multiple dimensions of power/disadvantage intersect may well often be ones where violence is most likely to occur. Situations where issues of ethnicity and gender intersect in various ways may increase the likelihood of violence occurring and/or increase the likelihood of violence not being prevented or halted.

- Intense and unmonitored change such as separation/divorce. It is important to note that a particularly high likelihood of men's violence toward women (and children in the household) may well indeed occur before and/or during and/or after separation/divorce.

In view of that the situation and context theme is divided in the following way:



Pape, H. and Stefansen, K. (2004): Den skjulte volden? En undersøkelse av Oslobefolkningens utsatthet for trusler, vold og seksuelle overgrep [The hidden violence? A survey of the exposure of the population of Oslo to threats, violence and sexual abuse], Norwegian Centre for Violence and Traumatic Stress Studies. Report no. 1/2004, Oslo

Using data from this questionnaire survey the report describes the extent to which the population of Oslo is exposed to threats, physical violence and sexual abuse. Focus is particularly placed on the experience of victims at the hands of a partner or an ex-partner. The selection was randomly chosen, and covers more than four thousand women and men in the age group 24 to 55. The survey – which is the first of its type in Norway – has gathered both quantitative and qualitative data.

The results show striking differences between men and women with regard to both the range of victim experiences, the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, the victim's

use of help services, and the prevalence of fear or violence. The gender differences in the exposed persons' relationships with the perpetrator(s) were drawn along a "close/distant" dimension. Far more women than men had been subject to abuse from a partner or an intimate friend, while strangers dominated the picture of offenders of men. Female victims of partner violence represented a more seriously victimised group than the male victims of partner. In general it was men who were responsible for the victimisation of both men and women.

In its conclusion the report maintains that partner violence must be seen as a general generic term for a heterogeneous range of types of violence. A division can be made between episodic partner violence – which is less serious, relatively widespread and has an indistinct gender profile – and patriarchal terrorism that occurs more seldom but that comes very close to what is usually termed the abuse of women.

The study also shows that some groups are more vulnerable than others. Factors such as low income, a low level of education, unemployment and dependence on state benefits were related to victimisation. These factors applied to both men's exposure to violence from strangers or acquaintances and women's exposure to violence in intimate relationships. This must be taken into account both when implementing preventive measures and when identifying the groups it is most important to reach and defining the best way of coming into contact with them. Exposure to violence and the experience of insecurity seem to be included in a more overall social pattern characterised by shortage of resources and the strain of problems in different areas. Why the social lines of division are so apparent and what lies behind these factors are clearly important questions. The answers can also provide significant indications about the preventive measures that should be implemented.

Much of the violence and suffering that presumably results in a need for long-term treatment and monitoring is not apprehended by public authorities. Remedying this represents a huge challenge. A number of new aspects should therefore be taken into account when implementing preventive measures: It is not only aspects connected to the actual violence or to the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator that should be assigned importance. Individual characteristics and financial resources, as well as features of the individual's social network, also influence the experience of violence and the victims' need for support and assistance. This is an area in which little research has been conducted in Norway and which is characterised by a serious lack of knowledge. Little is known about the benefits of the various measures. Researchers are calling for research to be conducted on the existing assistance provisions and on the monitoring bodies in both the public and private sectors.

Clay-Warner, J. (2003): The Context of Sexual Violence: Situational Predictors of Self-Protective Actions, *Violence & Victims* 18, 5

While considerable research has examined the relative effectiveness of different types of self-protective actions in rape avoidance, little research has considered how the situational context of the assault affects women's choice of self protective strategy. Through an examination of data from the National Crime Survey (GB), this article examines the extent to which situational factors are independently related to the use of physical resistance, verbal resistance, as well as to lack of resistance. The results of the multinominal logistic regression analysis indicate that those who used verbal self protective action were more likely to have been attacked at night, threatened with a weapon, and to be assaulted by a prior or current romantic partner than were those who chose physical resistance. Those attacked by a current or former intimate were also more likely to employ no resistance than they were physical resistance. Victims facing a substance-using assailant, however, were more likely to enact physical self-protection than to employ resistance.

Clay-Warner, J. (2002): Avoiding Rape: The Effects of Protective Actions and Situational Factors, Violence & Victims 17, 5

While protective actions are consistently found to be important in rape- avoidance, research is less clear on what forms of protective action are most effective. There is also little research on whether the effectiveness of particular protective actions varies depending upon the context of the assault. This study employs multivariate logistic regression to examine the situational effectiveness of physical, forceful verbal, and non-forceful verbal protective strategies using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (GB). It is predicted that failure to use physical and forceful verbal strategies will result in increased risk of rape as situational danger increases, while non-forceful verbal resistance will become less effective in more dangerous situations. Contrary to predictions, results indicate that the effectiveness of protective actions does not vary across most situations. Instead, among women who perform self-protective actions physical resistance is generally predictive of rape avoidance, forceful verbal resistance is ineffective, and non-forceful verbal resistance is predictive of rape completion.

Råkil, M. (Ed.) (2002): Menns vold mot kvinner – Behandlingserfaringer og kunnskapsstatus [Men's violence against women – treatment experiences and knowledge status], Universitetsforlaget, Oslo

The book “Menns vold mot kvinner – behandlingserfaringer og kunnskapsstatus” is an anthology written by major researchers into violence and therapists working on violence in Norway. The purpose of the book is to help to improve the availability of applicable knowledge on the causes of men's violence against women in intimate relationships. The book presents the knowledge that has been developed and also describes how this knowledge can be utilised. It represents the transfer of knowledge to support services and educational institutions and is a contribution to the state's formulation of policies in this area. The book's clear aim is to shed light on issues concerning men who commit violence in intimate relationships.

Understandings of and approaches to violence: The approach to and understandings of men's violence against women sets strict guidelines for the measures that are implemented. The application of the original models must be questioned to ensure that initiated preventive measures adequately reflect the reality in which the acts of violence take place. Questioning must include whether men's violence against women merely involves hostile attitudes to women and a patriarchal mindset. An interdisciplinary perspective must be employed when understanding violence. Measures that are implemented must draw on specific life circumstances and must consider the individual – both the person who applies violence and the person who is exposed to it – as active and creative personalities with different needs and different motives and goals for their actions. The need to focus attention on the “milder violence” between partners is also emphasised. The current picture of violence among men largely stems from knowledge of the worst offenders.

Treatment provisions for men: In order to provide adequate facilities that will produce a change in the men's behavioural pattern, knowledge about exactly which men use violence in intimate relationships must be improved. The group of men who use violence is complex, but we still have too little information on this. Furthermore, the fact that most men who use violence have themselves been subject to violence or have witnessed violence in their own childhood must be incorporated. Men who use violence against women constitute a complex group. This illustrates the need of this group for specialised assistance. Such provisions should be established nationwide and should have sufficient capacity to enable them to provide immediate help. It is also important that such provisions should in the long term

accept both men who seek help voluntarily and those who have been sentenced to this type of treatment. Researchers are of the opinion that adapting these provisions to both these groups will provide help for a large proportion of the men who use violence against women. Group therapy has been shown to be an appropriate method of creating change. Experience has shown that talking to other men about violence provides an insight into what the problem actually represents. Men seldom talk to each other about feelings, and men who use violence are also often lonely and isolated. This must be taken into account when implementing treatment specifically for men. To reduce the chance of repetitive violence, it is emphasised that measures must be geared towards other circumstance in the man's life. It may be important to tackle the man's employment problem – either through advice and guidance and/or through job-seeking assistance. The family welfare service must make the concepts of power, control, steering and violence valid – concepts that allow an uneven distribution of influence and responsibility in the family. It must be ensured that the treatment network manages to integrate the women and children perspective appropriately into its work with the men.

History of violence and resilienceⁱⁱ

Basically the work and research on resilience focuses on processes of recovery or adjustment after trauma (Herman, 1993) or hardships in childhood or later life; it explores possibilities to overcome or soften the negative consequences on short and longer term. The resilience model is a dynamic model of growth and development of talents, strengths and qualities.

Resilience could not be seen as a protective factor, who stops violence before its occurs.

Resilience is mostly an actions that minimize the consequences of violence. However, there is evidence in research that it may work to stop violence from occurring in the next generation and that, in some contexts, it may work to empower people to get out of violent situations.

Already in the seventies and eighties there have been distinguished authors who addressed the issue: Anthony (1987) was very interested in vulnerability and resilience in children who tried to cope with adverse circumstances; in the work of Rutter (1987) one finds challenging analyses of concepts such as 'developmental pathways', 'creating opportunities' and 'turning points'.

Other substantial contributions to resilience can be found in the work of for instance Garbarino, Garmezy and Cicchetti. In ecological models they link the important interconnections between individuals (families), the direct environment and a larger social-cultural context; they remind us that resilience should be studied on more levels.

The majority of work on resilience focuses on the victim and witness positions.

In the conceptualisation of resilience there are different dimensions.

- Time and development. Resilience is process-orientated. In this developmental perspective children or adults are followed in their development or life course during a certain period of time. Resilience is supposed not to be there instantly, but is considered to be a growing strength which can be rooted in one's life-history. During someone's life course resilience can be applied to different domains of interest: work, (intimate) relationships or parenting.

- Resilience is not an independent trait or characteristic but a strength which grows on an interactive (interdependent) basis. This interactive perspective shows that reliant others are needed to shape and develop resilience. The concept of family resilience is an acknowledgement of this interactive aspect (Walsh, 1998).

- Resilience makes use of different resources: inner and personal resources such as fantasy, a firm belief in a better future and the capacity of distancing. Interpersonal resources are relationships with others and communication with others to the support of developing talents. Then there are resources and support within the community (school, neighbourhood,

grassroots work) and in the larger socio-cultural context (space for understanding and dealing with trauma and violence).

- Resilience is multidimensional. In the ecological model there are circles of support. There is not just one single pathway leading to resilience. It is a relative, not an absolute concept and it varies according to circumstances as time progresses (Howard, 1996). This approach must address different levels: the individual, the family, the community (school, neighbourhood) and the larger socio-cultural context.

“Protective factors are highly robust predictors of resilience” and “likely to play a key role in the processes involved in people's response to risk circumstances. But they are of very limited value as a means of finding new approaches to prevention.... we need to focus on protective mechanisms and processes.... to ask why and how some individuals manage to maintain high self-esteem and self-efficacy in spite of facing the same adversities that lead other people to give up and lose hope....The search is not for broadly defined protective factors, but rather, for the developmental and situational mechanisms involved in protective processes” (Rutter, 1987, 316-317).

Mc Gloin, J.M. and Widom, C.S. (2001): Resilience among abused and neglected children grown up. Development and psychopathology, Cambridge University Press, 1021-1038.

Mc Gloin and Widom did a longitudinal study on ‘Resilience among abused and neglected children grown up’ based on 1196 female and male adults. The participants had in common that records were held in their youth from substantiated cases of child abuse. The researchers made an operational definition by splitting the construct of resilience into 8 domains: employment, homelessness, education, social activity, psychiatric disorder, substance abuse and two domains assessing criminal behavior. Criteria for success were six out of eight. It turned out that 22% of the 1196 participants, more females than males, met the criteria for resilience.

Rollins, J. A. (1997). Minimizing the impact of community violence on child witnesses. Crit Care Nurs Clin North Am 9, 2: 211-20.

Child witnesses respond to violent events in two stages: an immediate reaction to the trauma followed by a response to the trauma and grief. The child's stage of development, circumstances surrounding the incident, and reactions of trusted adults affect responses. Secondary prevention measures during the first stage focus on protection and advocacy, while second stage interventions help the child acknowledge and tolerate the realities of the violent event. Child witnesses are at risk for posttraumatic stress disorder and other long-term social, emotional, and developmental problems. Individual characteristics, early life experiences, and protective factors in the environment contribute to children's resilience and ability to survive and grow into healthy adults.

Benard, B. (1996): From Research to Practice. The Foundations of the Resiliency Paradigm. Resiliency in Action. Premier Issue: Foundations of Resiliency, Rio Rancho, 7-12.

Benard points out four different developmental areas of resilience, based on research and experience in the field of applying resiliency. Social competence, problem solving behaviour, autonomy, self-efficacy and goal orientation and belief in a better future make a world of difference.

History of violence and resilience

- Social competence consists of empathy, cultural sensitivity, flexibility, caring for others, humour and communication skills. This social competence is already known in research whereas a minority of abused children was able to communicate even better than average non-abused children.
- Problem solving abilities are described in thoughts and action: critical, creative ways of thinking, planning and seeking help when you really need it.
- Self-efficacy and goal orientation give children the possibility to distance themselves from negative messages, to complete their education, to develop talents and to find new pathways despite their difficulties.
- Hope in a better future is related to trust, optimism, aspirations and the ability to look ahead despite the difficult situation now or in the past.

Wolin, S. J. and Wolin, S. (1993): The resilient self. How survivors of troubled families rise above adversity, Villard, New York.

Wolin and Wolin developed a challenge model with seven core-qualities or strengths in the struggle to be strong: 1. insight, 2. independence, 3. relationships, 4. initiative, 5. creativity, 6. humour and 7. morality. The authors base these strengths or talents on research on resilience and addiction and resilience in the school, applying this approach to youth and survivors growing up in adverse home situations. These core-qualities or strengths are not just individual strengths, but they also work in the environment. They see resilience as a way to resist the victims trap.

Informal networks and social support

There is increasing recognition of the role of social networks and informal third parties in the peaceful resolution of conflict (Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994), and the response to violations (Kelly, 1996). For example, a structural network feature of import to domestic violence is the extent of overlap between the separate networks of spouses or partners (Milardo, 1992). Sociological and anthropological evidence suggests that a woman's separate network of kin and close friends is apt to provide partisan support for her and protect her against an abusive intimate partner (Baumgartner, 1993; Kirkwood, 1993).

People who have experienced violations tend to reach out to trusted informal third parties. Yet, informal responses are not always helpful to victims of violations. For a variety of reasons, including fear, split loyalties, and gender or other stereotypes, network members may withhold support and endanger victims even further. Cultural norms can significantly modify the supportive capacity of social ties (Baumgartner, 1993), in particular norms related to women's sexuality and societal notions of honour. Nevertheless, social networks constitute an important structural element in transforming power relations, overcoming exclusion, and building peaceful societies (Montiel, 2001). Integrating research on responses to violations with network research work can suggest where support may be located in families and communities and under what conditions the capacity of social networks to interfere with and prevent violations can be increased.

Rajska-Kulik, I. (2005): Kobiety maltretowane w związkach – czy posiadane przez nie zasoby versus deficyty osobiste wpływają na pomoc, którą otrzymują? [Maltreated

women in intimate relationships – do their personal resources and deficiencies influence the kind of help they receive?], Chowanna 24, 1, Katowice, 40-61

The research sample were 145 victims of mental and physical marital abuse, receiving help from the shelters and crisis intervention centers for the victims of violence.

Research tools used in the study:

Berger's Self- Acceptance Scale

Doli ska-Zygmunt's Self – Efficiency Test (UPS)

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (ISCL)

Stanik's Interpersonal Attitudes Scale (SUI)

Majewicz's „Me and Others” Scale

Wojciszke's Pragmatism Scale

Social Support Questionnaire

The participants were divided into 3 groups (according to cluster analysis). R stands for resources of the family, D – deficits of the family.

Group I (R+ /D-)

Group II (R=D)

Group (R- /D+)

The groups were surveyed to tap the kind and quality of social support they received (emotional, cognitive, instrumental, material support from relatives and institutions).

Women with s higher level of personal resources (lower anxiety and helplessness levels, higher self-acceptance and efficiency) received more help from their relatives because, unlike the group with lower income, they did not socially isolated themselves and actively sought help. One difference appeared in the way participants used the help of others; the first group was mostly interested in emotional and informational kind; the third group sought help to resolve their emotional situation and to lower the tension

Kliewer, W., Cunningham, J. N. et al. (2004): Violence exposure and adjustment in inner-city youth: child and caregiver emotion regulation skill, caregiver-child relationship quality, and neighborhood cohesion as protective factor. J Clin Child Adolesc Psychol 33, 3: 477-87.

This short-term, longitudinal interview study used an ecological framework to explore protective factors within the child, the caregiver, the caregiver-child relationship, and the community that might moderate relations between community violence exposure and subsequent internalizing and externalizing adjustment problems and the different patterns of protection they might confer. Participants included 101 pairs of African American female caregivers and one of their children (56% male, M = 11.15 yrs, SD = 1.28) living in high-violence areas of a mid-sized southeastern city. Child emotion regulation skill, felt acceptance from caregiver, observed quality of caregiver-child interaction, and caregiver regulation of emotion each were protective, but the pattern of protection differed across level of the child's ecology and form of adjustment. Implications for prevention are discussed.

Wenzel, S. L., J. S. Tucker, et al. (2004): Physical violence against impoverished women: a longitudinal analysis of risk and protective factors. Womens Health Issues 14, 5: 144-54.

Violence represents a significant threat to the health of impoverished women. Few studies have examined what characteristics might be associated with increased risk of violence or protection from physical violence directed at such women, although this information is

important in informing violence prevention and intervention efforts. This is the first study to our knowledge that has prospectively examined, in representative probability samples of impoverished women, multiple risk and protective factors to understand their relative importance to physical victimization. Study participants were 810 women in Los Angeles County, 402 in shelters and 408 in Section 8 low-income housing, who completed structured interviews at baseline and 6-month follow-up. Significant ($p < .05$) multivariate predictors of physical violence experienced during the 6 months prior to follow-up interview were physical or sexual violence experienced as a child, physical violence experienced during the 6 months prior to baseline interview, having multiple sexual partners, psychological distress, and poor social support. Results of this study highlight the persistence of physical violence in the lives of impoverished women and plausible, prospective risk factors for this violence. Findings also highlight opportunities to reduce women's risk of experiencing violence through enhancing women's social support and mental health.

Banyard, V. L. (1999): Childhood maltreatment and the mental health of low-income women. *Am J Orthopsychiatry* 69, 2: 161-71.

Low-income mothers were examined to determine whether childhood physical and sexual abuse would explain variance in adult mental health after controlling for other childhood and adult risk factors. Depressive symptoms and self-esteem were found to vary significantly with childhood maltreatment. Analyses of women abused in childhood revealed that social support and a less external locus of control were protective in function. Implications for future research and practice are discussed.

Sanctions

McFarlane, J., A. Malecha, et al. (2004): Protection orders and intimate partner violence: an 18-month study of 150 black, Hispanic, and white women. *Am J Public Health* 94, 4: 613-8.

We compared types and frequencies of intimate partner violence experienced by women before and after receipt of a 2-year protection order. Participants were 150 urban English- and Spanish-speaking Black, Hispanic, and White women who qualified for a 2-year protection order against an intimate partner.

One woman committed suicide 6 weeks into the study. The remaining 149 women completed all interviews. Results showed significant reductions in threats of assault, physical assault, stalking, and worksite harassment over time among all women, regardless of receipt or nonreceipt of a protection order. CONCLUSIONS: Abused women who apply and qualify for a 2-year protection order, irrespective of whether or not they are granted the order, report significantly lower levels of violence during the subsequent 18 months.

Catalyst factors

Nøttestad, J.A. and Haugan, G.S. (2002): Risikovurdering og sikkerhetsplanlegging, in: Råkil, M. (Ed.) (2002): Menns vold mot kvinner – Behandlingerfaringer og kunnskapsstatus [Men's violence against women – treatment experiences and knowledge status], Universitetsforlaget, Oslo

Catalyst factors

In this book chapter Jim Aage Nøttestad and Grethemor Skagseth Haugan describe a particular aspect of violence. They examine risk assessment and safety planning to prevent the repetition of acts of violence. They point out that violence is dangerous and that it always constitutes a safety risk for the victims, in addition to being a symptom of the perpetrator's mental problems. The chapter also reviews the most common tools that have been developed in risk research and looks in more detail at how applicable such risk analyses can be in treating perpetrators of violence.

To reduce the chance of repetitive violence, it is emphasised that measures must be geared towards other circumstance in the man's life. The authors mention that it may be important to tackle the man's employment problem – either through advice and guidance and/or through job-seeking assistance. In cases where the man has problems with alcohol or other intoxicating substances, these problems must also be given attention in the treatment. If the man has suicidal or murderous tendencies, these can be reduced by therapy. Moreover, in cases where the man possesses a weapon and possibly a weapon licence, these must be taken from him.

Łuszczyska-Cielak, A. and G. Siorowska, E. (2000): Akty przemocy popełniane przez sprawców nadużyjących alkoholu [Acts of Violence Committed by Alcohol Abusers], Czasopismo Psychologiczne 6, 1-2, Poznań, 123-134

The aim of the research was to define sociodemographic variables that differentiate alcohol abusers from non-addicted assailants, and also to determine whether the acts of violence in these groups differ as to the place, level of victim-perpetrator acquaintance and kind of violent behavior. 5477 telephone conversations with people seeking help in "Krag" (helpline for victims of domestic violence) were analysed.

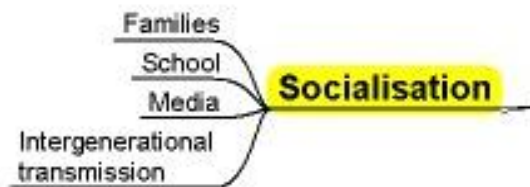
Telephone Survey Interview Form by G. Siorowska & Kmieciak-Baran was used to gather data. The results showed that those alcohol abusing perpetrators constituted approximately 1/5 of all cases. If one, however, considers the number of all alcohol addicts in Poland, these results show that in the sample there were more alcohol abusers than there are in the whole population. Violent behavior took place mostly at home as most assailants did not have many social duties (e.g. they were unemployed). The alcohol abusing assailants were younger, had lower income and lower level of formal education. The assailants overusing alcohol committed were more inclined to physical violence, usually not of a sexual nature. Social support, supportive neighbourhood and promotion of sobriety were identified as protective factors.

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Socialisation

This last thematically area has to be seen as a cross-cutting theme because it can be regarded as a life-long process. The other thematic areas structure/culture and context/situation are included in the socialisation process of children and youngsters. It is important to separate this field because of several reasons. Childhood and adolescence is the most violence related life phase. The socio-economic status in childhood and adolescence differs from the status in adulthood. The group is always dependent on the adults in the surrounding. Finding protective factors in this field is not only important for decreasing the violence in childhood and youth, but probably also in adulthood. Studies, which analysed the connection between violence in gender- or generation-relations, came to the result that there are high significant correlations between corporate punishment, violence between the parents and violence in adulthood. With boys, victimisations in the childhood rather lead to own violent behaviour while women, who became victims of violence in their childhood, face the increased risk of becoming victims of violence again in their adulthood.

As most important socialisation instances are discussed families, school and medias, which we use for structuring this part of the map. Taking into account that the process of socialisation as a biographical process of learning does not stop at a certain age, intergenerational transmission as a filed with protective impact is also included.



Grommon, E. L. (2005): The effect of socialization and onset behavior: An examination into youthful firearm offending patterns in Michigan, ProQuest

The purpose of this research is to model theoretical propositions of social learning theory with developmental or life course theory to examine socialization pathways into a subculture that utilizes firearms for criminal purposes. Inherent within the research is the assumption that cultural and environmental socialization mechanisms or onset behaviors place an individual at greater risk for involvement in firearm offending, which may lead to specialization in offense patterns. Secondary analyses were conducted on a 1996 study examining the prevalence and incidence of youthful firearm ownership, possession, and use for a random sample of incarcerated male offenders between the ages of 17 to 25 within the state of Michigan. The results indicate that socialization or social learning variables measuring cultural and environmental context served as the best predictors of involvement in serious firearm offending. Onset behavior variables provided marginal support for the prediction of firearm offending seriousness. In efforts to reduce the frequency and proportion of crime involving firearms, criminal justice policy and practices should continue to examine the nexus between gang membership, peer associations, drug sales, and neighborhood exposure to violence which lead to initiation, persistence, or increased levels of involvement in firearm offending.

Wolfe, D. A., Wekerle, C., Scott, K., Straatman, A. L., Grasley, C. (2004): Predicting abuse in adolescent dating relationships over 1 year: the role of child maltreatment and trauma, Journal of abnormal Psychology 113, 3, 406-415

Three mediators of the relationship between childhood maltreatment and dating violence perpetration during midadolescence (i.e., trauma-related symptoms, attitudes justifying dating violence, and empathy and self-efficacy in dating relationships) were tested over 1 year with a sample of students from 10 high schools (N = 1,317). Trauma-related symptoms had a significant cross-time effect on predicting incidents of dating violence for both boys and girls. Attitudes and empathy and self-efficacy did not predict dating violence over time, although they were correlated with such behavior at both time points. Child maltreatment is a distal risk factor for adolescent dating violence, and trauma-related symptoms act as a significant mediator of this relationship. The importance of longitudinal methodology that separates correlates from predictors is discussed

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?itool=abstractplus&db=pubmed&cmd=Retrieve&dopt=abstractplus&list_uids=15311986

Rhodes, G. K. (2003): The Impact of Violent Socialization, <http://digitalcommons.uconn.edu/dissertations/AI3101711/>

This is the second investigation of a measure, the Violent Socialization Scale (VSS), to assess Athens's (1992) conceptual model of violent socialization. The first investigation found the VSS to assess accurately the six developmental components described within Athens's model. These six factors manifested high internal consistency reliability and discriminated significantly between men from a college sample and male incarcerated inmates. The present investigation examined the degree to which nonviolent people understand the developmental pathways through which others learn to use violence and understand the traumatic impact of early exposure to violence in creating violent outcomes. This study also collected data from women for the first time and assessed the impact of gender. Within a context of anonymity, 206 college men and women volunteers were asked to complete the VSS as well as three additional scales measuring aggression and traumatic stress with well-established validity. Within a counterbalanced design, participants completed these measures twice: once from their own experiences of violent socialization and trauma and once as they thought a violent, incarcerated adult would answer the items. This simulation condition provided a means of obtaining responses that reflect generalized beliefs about how violence and trauma are associated. Data analyses indicated that the self-reported experiences among the college respondents were significantly fewer than their projections of a "dangerous criminal's" experiences on all six VSS subscales and the criterion measures. There were several main effects for Gender, such that women reported significantly more traumatic experiences and less violence than men, with the largest gender differences occurring in respondents' own self reports, rather than in the simulation condition. Participants who reported more intense personal trauma experiences also were found to be more strongly influenced when projecting such trauma experiences onto the stimulus figure. As these data were collected from an eight-month period following the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, acute traumatic stress symptoms could have confounded some of the differences. The VSS continues to show promise for future study and use. Increased understanding of the means by which people learn to utilize violence can, in turn, lead to potentially more efficacious preventive interventions.

Lycke, H. S. and Molin, P. K. (2002): Jeg er ingen voldsmann – Voldsutøvende menn som kontakter Alternativ til Vold, in: Råkil, M. (Ed.) (2002): Menns vold mot kvinner – Behandlingserfaringer og kunnskapsstatus [Men's violence against women – treatment experiences and knowledge status], Universitetsforlaget, Oslo

This article presents some of the main characteristics of men who commit violence and who have sought help for their problem at Alternative to Violence (ATV). The chapter discusses in particular experience gained from treatment and the motivations of the men who contact ATV. The writers maintain that it is important for several reasons to find out which men use violence against women. In the first place this will help to adapt measures geared towards these men, secondly this knowledge can be used to prevent men's violence, and finally it will enable us to achieve better life circumstances for both women and men in Norway.

The review shows that we have acquired considerable knowledge and experience of men who use violence against women. Together with international research this forms a picture of the men and also clarifies that this is a complex group. Reference is made to the fact that international research has not produced a uniform profile of men who commit violence. The authors' impression is that even though many such men are in work, a large proportion of them have a lower socio-economic status than the population average. At ATV, 85 per cent of the men are Norwegian, and 11 per cent are registered as originally coming from other countries. ATV comes into contact with few men with an ethnic background other than Norwegian.

Of the 186 records, 64 contained completed violence registration forms. Of these 64, a total of 83 per cent of the men had been subject to or witnessed violence on one or more occasions. This confirms the impression that most men who use violence have themselves experienced violence.

Clients at ATV have different kinds of supplementary problems. Some of those who contact ATV have difficulties in reading and writing. Alcohol problems and problems such as difficulties at school, concentration problems as a result of violence in the family during childhood, hyperactivity and lack of follow-up from their homes are often recorded. Lycke and Molin also point out that deficiencies in childhood in the form of lack of love, closeness, warmth, limits or security can be identified as causes of violence. This is included in what the authors call experiences that create powerlessness – experiences that become part of the man's history of violence.

Jamro ek, M. (2001): Przemoc wewn trzmał e ska a socjalizacja dziecka w rodzinie [Marital Violence and a Child's Socialization within a Family], Problemy Alkoholizmu 25, 1, Warsaw, 14-16

Analysed is the relation between intramarital violence and child's difficulties in socialization (defined as academic performance abilities, persistence, concentration, non-conflict and prosocial behavior, - as measured on the basis of Markowska's 'Student's Behavior Scale'). 183 individuals participated in the study. The results show that violent relations between parents are closely connected to antisocial behavior (emotional imbalance, aggressive reactions) and emotional inhibition (low level of social interactions, anxiety, withdrawal) of the child. As protective factors function proper family relations and the parents' good (non-violent) relations.

Möller, K. (2001): Coole Hauer und brave Engelein. Gewaltakzeptanz und Gewaltdistanzierung im Verlauf des frühen Jugendalters. [Cool fighters and neat angels: Acceptance and rejection of violence during the early years of adolescence], Opladen

This volume is based on a qualitative longitudinal study. The subjects comprised approximately 40 boys and girls who were accompanied for more than 3 years when they were between the ages of 13 and 15. The results are based on the central question of how to explain the courses of violence acceptance and rejection both in the context of social

experiences occurring in life's most important domains, family, school, spare time, peer groups, etc., as well as by the development level of individual mechanisms and competences such as building self-worth, reflexivity, conflict skills, etc. One point of focus in the study was gender-specific evaluations. The research results are discussed and arranged against the backdrop of a thorough examination of the current empirical status and prevailing theoretical approaches of (adolescent) violence research. (Author's summary.)

The empirical analyses introduced indicate that the ability to reflect in a differentiated way, an ability to change perspectives that is linked with empathy and the willingness to assume responsibility, the availability of sufficient verbal strategies to solve conflicts as well as the interest and competence based forms of self-worth construction do in fact lead to the minimisation of violence acceptance or violence reducing effects." (Möller2001:380)

The development of the above-listed skills are also promoted by a stable emotional application as well as through the experience of social recognition. It is clear that they are to be "understood as "results of integration processes" (Ibid) and that they occur in the "central social relations of adolescents, that is, mainly in the family, school, and peer groups." (Ibid)

Möller clearly establishes the existence of differences in and between gender groups in relation to the acceptance of violence and distancing oneself from violence. He does so in terms of the differing societal "offers" and the ways of coping connected to gender identity.

Walker, J.A.; (2001): Issues of separation-individuation and gender role socialization in battered women: An investigation of the relationship between early developmental patterns and exposure to abusive relationships in adulthood,

<http://digitalcommons.pace.edu/dissertations/AAI9988089/>

It has been estimated that between 21% and 34% of women in this country will be physically assaulted-slapped, kicked, beaten, choked, threatened or attacked with a weapon-by an intimate partner in adulthood. Some women who are involved in abusive relationships appear to be unable to remove themselves from the violent relationship. They baffle and frustrate those who attempt to help them when they initiate an escape, only to drop all efforts and return to their victimizers. This study investigated the relationship between early developmental patterns and involvement in abusive relationships in adulthood, based on reasons for women's tolerance of abusive relationships hypothesized in the literature.

Thirty-three women reporting relationship difficulties participated in the study. Based on their report of physical abuse in adulthood in the demographic questionnaire, they were divided into a group of eighteen Battered women and a group of fifteen non-Battered women. The two groups were compared on gender role (Bem Sex Role Inventory (Short Form), BSRI), gender identity, level of separation-individuation disturbance (Separation-Individuation Inventory, SII), and level of object representation self-other differentiation (Object Representation Inventory Self-Other Differentiation Scale, ORI).

It was hypothesized that Battered women would achieve lower levels of object representations and self-other differentiation than Non-battered women. This hypothesis as stated was partially confirmed. Battered women achieved significantly lower levels of object representations and self-other differentiation when describing themselves ($M = 4.7$, $SD = 2.1$), than did Non-battered women, ($M = 6.4$, $SD = 1.4$, $t(31) = -2.79$, $p = .009$). They also achieved significantly lower levels of object representations and self-other differentiation when describing their partners ($M = 4.4$, $SD = 2.1$) than did Non-battered women ($M = 6.2$, $SD = 1.6$, $t(31) = .012$). In addition, levels of object representations and self-other differentiation in their descriptions of their fathers ($M = 4.6$, $SD = 1.5$) were significantly lower than those of Non-battered women ($M = 6.3$, $SD = 1.6$, $t(26) = -2.67$, $p = .013$). The two groups did not differ significantly, however, in level of separation-individuation pathology, gender role, or gender identity.

These results suggest that early developmental patterns, specifically in significant relationships, are related to exposure to abusive relationships in adulthood. Implications of these findings are far reaching and call for future research in order to better understand how to prevent the development of the dynamics involved in abuse and domestic violence.

Messerschmidt, J. W. (2000): *Nine lives – adolescent masculinities, the body and violence*, Oxford Westview Press.

Nine Lives, written by one of the most respected authorities on the subject of gender and crime, provides a fascinating account of the connection among adolescent masculinities, the body, peer abuse in schools, and violence. Drawing on penetrating life-history interviews of nine white, working-class, teenage boys, James W. Messerschmidt unravels some of the mysteries of teenage violence. The book is a comparative analysis of male sex offenders, assaultive offenders, and nonviolent boys, and has implications for understanding and preventing such national tragedies as the recent school shootings in the United States.

Messerschmidt found the following protective factors:

- Connection to warm and caring parents who emphasize non-violence.
- The gender division of labor in the non-violent families was considerably more egalitarian.
- Democratizing the family challenges the traditional gender division of labor and therefore provides the opportunity for family members to engage in practices that restructure traditional forms of masculinity and femininity. Such practices are much more likely to achieve non-violence than violence
- Shared parenting is one example of how to democratise the family. Shared parenting challenges the traditional gender division of labor in the home by demonstrating through practice that men are just as capable as women are of nurturing children and maintaining the household.
- The non-violent boys had intimate relations with an adult male who practiced “good fathering” and similar they had mothers who not only emphasized non-violent resolution of conflict but were nurturant, responsive, and engaged with their sons. Such “good mothering” challenges the notion that father absence is somehow a danger to boys. Messerschmidt concludes, that the development of “good parenting” (whether by heterosexuals, homosexuals, or singles) is important because what boys bring to the school flows from relationships that they have with the adults in their lives.

Errante, A. (1999): *Peace Work as Grief Work in Mozambique and South Africa: Postconflict Communities as Context for Child and Youth Socialization*, *Journal of Peace Psychology* 5, 3, 261-279

This article examines the manner in which socialization patterns learned in times of protracted and violent conflict in South Africa and Mozambique may influence, as well as be influenced by, the quality of peace work. It addresses the legacy of these socialization patterns for sustaining peace work, how community healing resources redirected these patterns during early phases of reconciliation in both countries, and how the strain of ongoing peace compromises the community resources that made these early efforts possible. Peace requires reconciling groups to surrender aspects of the social, symbolic, and material world that sustained them during periods of conflict, and this can provoke feelings of loss and grief. An important dimension of peace, therefore, is grief work: Reconciling groups must discharge these feelings of loss, while securing the symbolic and material resources with which they can build postconflict, "reconciled identities."

http://www.leaonline.com/doi/abs/10.1207/s15327949pac0503_7?cookieSet=1&journalCode=pac

Rollins, J. A. (1997). Minimizing the impact of community violence on child witnesses. Crit Care Nurs Clin North Am 9, 2: 211-20.

Child witnesses respond to violent events in two stages: an immediate reaction to the trauma followed by a response to the trauma and grief. The child's stage of development, circumstances surrounding the incident, and reactions of trusted adults affect responses. Secondary prevention measures during the first stage focus on protection and advocacy, while second stage interventions help the child acknowledge and tolerate the realities of the violent event. Child witnesses are at risk for posttraumatic stress disorder and other long-term social, emotional, and developmental problems. Individual characteristics, early life experiences, and protective factors in the environment contribute to children's resilience and ability to survive and grow into healthy adults.

Gabriel, R. M.; Hopson, T.; Haskins, M., Powell, K. E. (1996): Building relationships and resilience in the prevention of youth violence, American Journal of preventing medicine 12, 5 (Supplement), 48-55.

Self Enhancement, Inc., is a grassroots, community-service organization working in the most disadvantaged high-risk community in Portland, Oregon. Its violence-prevention program targets middle-school and high-school students by providing classroom and community activities to these young people. These activities are designed to enhance protective factors and build resilience in youths to enable them to attain healthy and productive lives and to resist the threats of gangs, violence, and drugs. RMC Research Corporation works in partnership with Self Enhancement, Inc., to conduct research and evaluation on the effectiveness of its programs. The Self Enhancement, Inc., program works primarily at the individual student and interpersonal relationship levels. Resilience Theory and its culturally specific Relationship Model drive the formulation of specific strategies and activities. Program staff mentor each student through his or her preadolescent and adolescent years, promoting positive, prosocial norms and expectations for behavior through their peer group activities. The Self Enhancement, Inc., program consists of three major components: classroom, exposure, and proactive education. Classroom education focuses on anger management, conflict resolution, and problem solving. Exposure education consists of quarterly field trips to agencies and organizations in the Portland area that deal with the causes and consequences of violence in the community. Proactive education includes newsletters, student-run assemblies and conferences, and radio/ television public service announcements that communicate antiviolence messages. The evaluation plan is a longitudinal matched comparison group designed to assess the outcomes of the violence-prevention program. Key outcomes are protective factors, health-risk behaviors, and academic measures. Standardized assessment instruments (the Individual Protective Factors Index and the Youth Risk Behavior Survey) were administered to all students during winter 1994. The instruments will be readministered during the same period in the following two years of the project. School records were extracted to assess students' attendance and progress through their academic programs. Of the 326 seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade students participating in this study, 95% are African Americans and 51% are boys. The prevalence of fighting (56%) during the past 12 months is higher than that among African-American high-school students nationally, but weapon carrying (27%), alcohol use (30%), and marijuana use (18%) are the same or lower than national averages for this group. All baseline indicators are equivalent between the program and comparison groups with the exception of weapon

carrying. Program students report carrying weapons more than do their comparison group counterparts. Baseline indicators of violence-related behaviors clearly indicate the need for intervention in this highly disadvantaged, African-American community. Through its historical presence and recent program development efforts, Self Enhancement, Inc., is well positioned to make a difference in the lives of these young people. The equivalence of program and comparison group students on baseline indicators of violence bodes well for an unequivocal assessment of program effectiveness over time.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=8909624&dopt=Abstract

Lisak, D., Hopper, J., Song, P. (1996 print, 2005 online): Factors in the cycle of violence: Gender rigidity and emotional constriction, *Journal of Traumatic Stress* 9, 4, Springer Netherlands, 721-743

A sample of 595 men were administered self-report assessments of childhood sexual and physical abuse, perpetration history, gender rigidity and emotional constriction. Including noncontact forms of sexual abuse, 11% of the men reported sexual abuse alone, 17% reported physical abuse alone, and 17% reported both sexual and physical abuse. Of the 257 men in the sample who reported some form of childhood abuse, 38% reported some form of perpetration themselves, either sexual or physical; of the 126 perpetrators, 70% reported having been abused in childhood. Thus, most perpetrators were abused, but most abused men did not perpetrate. Both sexually and physically abused men who perpetrated manifested significantly more gender rigidity and emotional constriction than abused nonperpetrators. Men who reported abuse but not perpetration demonstrated significantly less gender rigidity, less homophobia and less emotional constriction than nonabused men.

<http://www.springerlink.com/content/u48x8010333u7176/>

Tontodonato, P., Crew B. K. (1992): Dating violence, social learning theory, and gender: a multivariate analysis, *Violence and Victims* 7, 1, 3-14

The study of violence between dating partners is a logical extension of interest in marital violence. However, little of this research tests explanations of intimate violence using multivariate techniques, and only recently have such tests occurred within a theoretical framework. Drawing on a recent social learning model of courtship violence (Riggs & O'Leary, 1989), this paper empirically examines constructs hypothesized to be predictive of the use of dating violence and investigates possible gender differences in the underlying causal structure of such violence. Logit analysis indicates that parent-child violence, drug use, and knowledge of use of dating violence by others predict the use of courtship violence by females. Belief that violence between intimates is justifiable, drug use, and parental divorce are related to perpetration of dating aggression by males. Explanations for these results and the importance of a multivariate approach to the problem are discussed.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=1504032&dopt=Citation

Families

Social protection models across Europe utilise a particular view of the family: namely one which is comprised of two parents, a man and a woman, who are legally contracted to each other through marriage, and who have two or less children. It is generally anticipated that at least one parent, usually the man, will take financial responsibility, whilst the other, usually

the woman will take care of the household and the children. The woman can also now be anticipated to 'contribute' to the family income through (part time) work. This model is the one most frequently found in analyses of policies relevant to the family such as income support, day care policy for the under 5's, financial transfer mechanisms in relation to separation and divorce, expectations of families by educational institutions and so forth. The model has been challenged in social theory and does not reflect either the reality or the meaning of family for many people. The importance of extended families, for example, varies in nature and type across Europe with some countries still embodying the traditional importance of shared living space or communities (albeit in changing proportions), while in others the extended family remains a very real source of support and financial transfer (Finch, 1992). Furthermore, the growth of the single parent family has been an important development in the latter part of this century.

At the micro-system level the primary family form of European social protection policy is often at odds with the reality facing European welfare institutions. Men, women and children reporting interpersonal violence often live in families where needs derive from relationship problems, family breakdown, parental youth and social isolation (CAPCAE)ⁱⁱⁱ. Needs of children, mothers, fathers and extended family both differ and converge.

Kliewer, W., J. N. Cunningham, et al. (2004): Violence exposure and adjustment in inner-city youth: child and caregiver emotion regulation skill, caregiver-child relationship quality, and neighborhood cohesion as protective factor. J Clin Child Adolesc Psychol 33, 3: 477-87.

This short-term, longitudinal interview study used an ecological framework to explore protective factors within the child, the caregiver, the caregiver-child relationship, and the community that might moderate relations between community violence exposure and subsequent internalizing and externalizing adjustment problems and the different patterns of protection they might confer. Participants included 101 pairs of African American female caregivers and one of their children (56% male, M = 11.15 yrs, SD = 1.28) living in high-violence areas of a mid-sized southeastern city. Child emotion regulation skill, felt acceptance from caregiver, observed quality of caregiver-child interaction, and caregiver regulation of emotion each were protective, but the pattern of protection differed across level of the child's ecology and form of adjustment. Implications for prevention are discussed.

Vatnar, S.K.B. (2002): I syns ikkje denna familien min e nåkka verneverdig, i. – Når familievernet møter voldsutøvende familiefedre, in: Råkil, M. (Ed.) (2002): Menns vold mot kvinner – Behandlingserfaringer og kunnskapsstatus [Men's violence against women – treatment experiences and knowledge status], Universitetsforlaget, Oslo

In this book chapter Solveig Karin Bø Vatnar reviews the family welfare system's historical relationship to violence in the family and the criticism that has been directed towards the understanding of this problem shown in family therapy. The author presents experience of treatment from the family welfare centre in Molde where work has particularly involved those who use violence within the family. The chapter also discusses a selection of clinical and theoretical issues in the light of experience gained from treatment carried out.

Vatnar is of the opinion that a prerequisite for therapy for families with violence problems is that both theoretical and practical approaches include a validation of the concepts of power,

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control, steering and violence – concepts that allow an uneven distribution of influence and responsibility in the family.

When family welfare centres encounter fathers who use violence, in Vatnar's view it is important to bear in mind that these men have also been boys and are now partners/ex-partners and fathers. To offer such fathers satisfactory facilities, family welfare centres must proactively focus on the men's different roles in the family and how their use of violence destroys the family, thus making the family "worthy of preservation".

McLoyd, V. C., Cauce, A. M., Takeuchi, D., Wilson, L. (2000): Marital Processes and Parental Socialization in Families of Color: A Decade Review of Research, *Journal of Marriage and Family* 62, 4, 1070

Research published during the past decade on African American, Latino, and Asian American families is reviewed. Emphasis is given to selected issues within the broad domains of marriage and parenting. The first section highlights demographic trends in family formation and family structure and factors that contributed to secular changes in family structure among African Americans. In the second section, new conceptualizations of marital relations within Latino families are discussed, along with research documenting the complexities in African American men's conceptions of manhood. Studies examining within-group variation in marital conflict and racial and ethnic differences in division of household labor, marital relations, and children's adjustment to marital and family conflict also are reviewed. The third section gives attention to research on (a) paternal involvement among fathers of color; (b) the relation of parenting behavior to race and ethnicity, grandmother involvement, neighborhood and peer characteristics, and immigration; and (c) racial and ethnic socialization. The article concludes with an overview of recent advances in the study of families of color and important challenges and issues that represent research opportunities for the new decade.

<http://www.blackwell-synergy.com/links/doi/10.1111%2Fj.1741-3737.2000.01070.x>

Witt, D. D. (1997 print, 2005 online): A conflict theory of family violence, *Journal of Family Violence* 2, 4, Springer Netherlands, 291-301

This paper makes a theoretical accounting of family violence in terms of the antagonistic elements in our culture and society that serve to irritate family relationships. Using conflict theory as the interpretive tool, the existence of family violence is explained as a direct effect of the economic values of the culture. To further strengthen this theoretical position, portions of other theories are included, such as some of the Feminist arguments dealing with the historical development of patriarchy and a symbolic interaction perspective on the process of socialization for the use of violence in stressful situations.

<http://www.springerlink.com/content/q466803407788424/>

Bassuk, E. L., Weinreb, L. F. et al. (1997): Determinants of behavior in homeless and low-income housed preschool children. *Pediatrics* 100, 1: 92-100.

To describe the characteristics of homeless and low-income preschool-aged children, and to identify family and environmental determinants of their behavior. An unmatched case-control design was used to recruit a sample of sheltered homeless families and a comparison group of low-income housed families who were never homeless in Worcester, Massachusetts. Seventy-seven sheltered homeless and 90 low-income housed mothers with preschool-age children were assessed using a comprehensive interview protocol. Information about mothers' housing, income, service use, par-enting practices, and children's father was obtained. Data about

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children's background, health, and life events were included. Standardized instruments were administered to assess mothers' mental health and their children's behavior. Comparisons of homeless and low-income housed families were used to describe the sample of 167 preschoolers. Multiple linear regression was used to examine the association of various stressors, such as homelessness, and family factors with their behavior.

Although homeless preschoolers were significantly more likely to have experienced stressful life events, undergone a care and protection investigation, and been placed in foster care when compared with low income preschoolers, differences in adverse behaviors were minimal. Although homeless children scored higher than housed children on the internalizing, externalizing, and total problem score on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) (52.5 vs 49.9, 54.8 vs 51.2, and 54.4 vs 51.1, respectively), approximately equal numbers of children from both groups scored in the clinical range. With regard to determinants of behavior, mothers' emotional status was one of the strongest independent predictors of negative behavioral outcomes on both subscales. Foster care placement and death of a child's friend were predictors of adverse internalizing behavioral outcomes on the CBCL. After controlling for housing status, parenting practices, child's age, child's history of physical abuse, and specific life stressors predicted adverse externalizing behavioral outcomes. For both subscales, housing status and behavior were only marginally associated in the multivariate model. Both homeless and low-income children experienced significant adversity in their lives, with homeless preschool children facing more stress. However, differences in behavior as measured by the CBCL were minimal. Mothers' emotional status, in addition to various stressors, strongly predict children's negative outcomes for both CBCL subscales. These findings emphasize the importance of preventive family-oriented interventions that address the needs of preschoolers and their mothers.

Schwartz, D.; Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., Bates, V. (1997): The Early Socialization of Aggressive Victims of Bullying, *Child Development* 68, 4, 665-675

This study reports the first prospective investigation of the early family experiences of boys who later emerged as both aggressive and bullied (i. e., aggressive victims) during their middle childhood years. It was hypothesized that a history of violent victimization by adults leads to emotion dysregulation that results in a dual pattern of aggressive behavior and victimization by peers. Interviews with mothers of 198 5-year-old boys assessed preschool home environments. Four to 5 years later, aggressive behavior and peer victimization were assessed in the school classroom. The early experiences of 16 aggressive victims were contrasted with those of 21 passive (nonaggressive) victims, 33 nonvictimized aggressors, and 128 normative boys. Analyses indicated that the aggressive victim group had experienced more punitive, hostile, and abusive family treatment than the other groups. In contrast, the nonvictimized aggressive group had a history of greater exposure to adult aggression and conflict, but not victimization by adults, than did the normative group, whereas the passive victim group did not differ from the normative group on any home environment variable.

Collins, M. E. (1996): Parents' perceptions of the risk of child sexual abuse and their protective behaviors: Findings from a qualitative study. *Child Maltreatment: Journal of the American Professional Society on the Abuse of Children*, Feb 1996.

Examined parents' perceptions of the risk of child sexual abuse and self-reported protective strategies. Qualitative interviews were conducted with a sample of 24 parents of preschool-age children, purposefully selected to be diverse in gender, race/ethnicity, age, and personal experience with sexual abuse victimization. The findings support earlier research showing little congruence between perceptions of risk for the general population and perceptions of

personal risk (i.e., risk to one's own child). The qualitative methodology provided some reasons for the discrepancy: comparisons parents make between themselves and other parents, characteristics of sexual abuse that affect perceptions, and the tendency of parents to blur the boundaries of sexual abuse with other forms of victimization. Parents identified strategies they used to protect their children from abuse and their underlying thoughts regarding protection. The exploratory results indicate the importance of understanding parents' cognitive processes in estimating risk and acting protectively and suggest further avenues for research.

Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., Neidig, P., Thorn, G. (1995 print, 2005 online): Violent marriages: Gender differences in levels of current violence and past abuse, *Journal of Family Violence* 10, 2, Springer Netherlands, 159-176

Military couples mandated for marital violence treatment ($n=199$) self-reported pretreatment levels of marital violence. This sample is unique in that data from both partners in severely violent marriages were available. Spouses were interviewed conjointly about past and current marital violence, childhood victimization, type of parental violence witnessed, and subjective impressions of childhood emotional and/or physical abuse. Results suggest that in the majority of these couples both husbands and wives reported engaging in acts of current marital violence (83%). However, significant gender differences were found such that husbands were more likely to use severely violent tactics, less likely to receive a marital violence injury, and less likely to report being afraid during the last incident of marital violence than wives. Surprisingly, wives were more likely than husbands to blame themselves for the first incidence of violence in the marriage. Husbands and wives did not differ in the prevalence of witnessing parental aggression, but wives were more likely than husbands to report being beaten as children and to perceive themselves as abused. For both genders, victimization from mother predicted marital perpetration, whereas victimization from father predicted marital victimization. <http://www.springerlink.com/content/h72r403986072rp1/>

Margolin, L: (1992): Beyond maternal blame. Physical Child Abuse as a Phenomenon of Gender; *Journal of Family Issues* 13, 3, 410-423

This study begins with an examination of why men have been left out of physical child abuse research. An attempt is then made to include them by focusing on the motivational processes and social structures that differentiate men's physical child abuse from women's. It is argued that widespread gender imbalances in power, men's lack of role models and rewards for nurturant activity, and their socialization to violence, bear a direct relationship to children's risk of physical abuse. The methodological problems involved in accurately comparing male and female caregivers' rates of physical child abuse are discussed and a strategy for assessing these gender differences is introduced. <http://jfi.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/13/3/410>

Smith, J. P., Williams, J. G. (1992 print, 2005 online): From abusive household to dating violence, *Journal of Family Violence* 7, 2, Springer Netherlands, 153-165

Social scientists have theorized about the cycle of domestic violence in family abuse. Little research has addressed dating violence as a consequence to the experience of domestic violence by children. This article deals with the self-reported experience of dating violence by high school students from abusive and nonabusive households. A survey was conducted of 1,353 students in a rural area of North Dakota. Results indicated that students from abusive households showed significantly higher incidence of dating violence than those from homes where no abuse was evident. However, less than one in five of the students from abusive home reported dating violence, providing little support for the cycle of violence hypothesis.

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Students from abusive homes viewed violence as negatively as students from nonabusive homes. Thus, while there are significant differences between the two groups, there are also important similarities. Although there is apparently a greater risk of dating violence among students who have experienced violence at home, these data do not support the idea of an inescapable pattern of violence among adolescents who have experienced violence themselves. <http://www.springerlink.com/content/r6l55w3766723784/>

Kalmuss, D.; Seltzer, J. A., (1989): A Framework for Studying Family Socialization Over the Life Cycle, The Case of Family Violence, Journal of Family Issues 10, 3, 339-358

Theoretical and empirical work on family socialization focuses on the process of how current rates of divorce and remarriage affect the process of family socialization. This article uses a lifetime perspective on family socialization to develop a framework for understanding the effects of divorce and remarriage on family violence. We identify three sources of family socialization experiences: socialization that occurs early in family life and creates a repertoire of behavior that may be carried into subsequent family relationships; lessons learned as a result of transitions from one family to another; and socialization experiences in a person's current family. Although the discussion focuses on the specific case of how the transitions of divorce and remarriage affect family violence, the framework can be extended to other family transitions and behaviors.

Howell, Marilyn J., Pugliesi, Karen L. (1988 print; 2005 online): Husbands who harm: Predicting spousal violence by men, Journal of Family Violence 3, 1, Springer Netherlands, 15-27

Previous research on spouse abuse has frequently focused on bivariate relationships between theoretically derived variables and marital violence. This study utilizes a multivariate approach in order to explore the independent and combined effects of several variables derived from the social learning and the frustration/strain perspectives on self-reported violence by husbands against wives. Data for married and/or cohabiting males are derived from a national stratified random sample of couples in the United States. Loglinear analysis is used to identify the main and interactive effects of age, occupational status, employment status, subjective economic strain, and observation of parental violence on reports of violence toward one's wife. Results indicate that age, occupational status, parental modeling and employment status affect the likelihood of violence. Employment status more strongly increases the likelihood of violence for younger men, as opposed to older men, which supports the strain perspective. The independent effect of the observation of parental violence lends support to the social learning approach. Social policy implications are discussed. <http://www.springerlink.com/content/q6065w5m03407848/>

School

Tremblay, R. E. (2002): Prevention of injury by early socialization of aggressive behavior, Injury Prevention 8, iv17-iv21

Frequent use of physical aggression by humans appears to reach its peak between 2 and 3 years of age. In the following years most children learn alternatives to physical aggression. Approximately 4% of children have high levels of physical aggression from early childhood to

late adolescence. These children can be considered to show chronic physical aggression. They are at high risk of causing injuries to others and to themselves. They are also at high risk of many other co-morbid mental health conditions, school failure, substance abuse, depression, unemployment, spouse abuse, child abuse, and suicide. There is some evidence that, because of their risky style of behavior, they are also at high risk of many other medical conditions such as cardiovascular problems, cancer, and brain damage. Socialization of aggressive behavior during the preschool years should help prevent injuries throughout the life span.
http://ip.bmj.com/cgi/content/abstract/8/suppl_4/iv17

Tillmann, Holler-Nowitzki, Holtappels, Meier, Popp (Eds.) (2000): Student Violence: A Problem in Schools—Causal Conditions, Forms of Occurrence and Pedagogical Perspectives on Courses of Action, Weinheim/Munich

Investigation of violent forms of behaviour (and the mentalities accompanying them) in the fifth form in schools. Further analysis carried out by placing these violent forms of behaviour in the context of causal conditions. Standardised interviews in the state of Hessen (representative study) with:

- Students (male and female), ages 11-16 (1995, 3540 students from 167 classes from 24 schools)
- Teachers (1995, 448 teachers were interviewed)
- School administrators (1994, 430 questionnaires completed and returned out of 727 sent = 59.1%)
- Supplemented by a qualitative school case study (problem-oriented interviews) (1997).

The authors regard schools as both a place where formal education is acquired as well as a learning environment for the acquisition of social skills and social inclusion and exclusion. Suggestions based on the study are given for successful ways of preventing violence: Developing a learning culture by student-oriented instruction, real life relation in classroom, supportive teacher involvement, avoidance of performance pressure, establishment of fair opportunity structures, facilitation of performance, prevention of failure at school, development of a social climate, both in student-student relations as well as teacher-student relations. Giving support in the acquisition of gender rolls by carrying out selective work with boys , encouraging and increasing the sensitivity of boys and girls, also media education versus media violence.

Media

Dietz, T.A. (1998): An Examination of Violence and Gender Role Portrayals in Video Games: Implications for Gender Socialization and Aggressive Behavior, Sex Roles 38, 5-6, Springer Netherlands, 425-442

Using content analysis, this research examines the portrayal of women and the use of violent themes in a sample of 33 popular Nintendo and Sega Genesis videogames. It is proposed that video games, like other media forms, impact the identity of children. This analysis reveals that traditional genderroles and violence are central to many games in the sample. There were no female characters in 41% of the games with characters. In 28% of these, women were portrayed as sex objects. Nearly 80% of the games included aggression or violence as part of the strategy or object. While 27% of the games contained socially acceptable aggression,

Media

nearly half included violence directed specifically at others and 21% depicted violence directed at women. Most of the characters in the games were Anglo.

Friedländer, BZ. (1993): Community violence, children's development, and mass media: in pursuit of new insights, new goals, and new strategies, *Psychiatry* 56, 1, 66-81

Community violence that victimizes children is an unmitigated evil that is exacerbated by vast economic and social forces that leave people in central cities and the rural countryside adrift on seas of rolelessness, hopelessness, group disintegration, and alienation. The contemporary drug scene and the easy availability of guns greatly intensify violence on a local scale, while crimes of violence, especially with guns, appear to be level or declining in the nation as a whole. Claims that the persistently high levels of violence in mass media, mostly television, are largely responsible for violence in society represent narrow views of very large issues. These narrow views overlook essential elements of both phenomena--violence and media. Direct models of interpersonal violence in families and in the community probably give rise to more violent behavior than indirect models in media. Disinhibitory and provocative aspects of media probably do as much or more to trigger violent behavior than violent narratives and violent actions. Comprehensive meta-analysis indicates that prosocial messages on television can have greater effects on behavior than antisocial messages. These data support the contention that mass media can play a strong and positive role in alleviating some of the distress of victims of community violence, and in redirecting the behavior of some of its perpetrators so as to protect the children.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=8488214&dopt=Citation

Felson, R. B. (1996): Mass media effects on violent behaviour, *Annual Review of Sociology* 22, New York, 103-128

The literature on the effect of exposure to media violence (including exposure to violent pornography) on aggressive behavior is critically reviewed. Evidence and theoretical arguments regarding short-term and long-term effects are discussed. Three points are emphasized: 1. Exposure to violence in laboratory and field experiments is as likely to affect nonaggressive antisocial behavior as it does aggressive behavior. The pattern is consistent with a sponsor effect rather than a modeling effect: an experimenter who shows violent films creates a permissive atmosphere; 2. the message that is learned from the media about when it is legitimate to use violence is not much different from the message learned from other sources, with the exception that illegitimate violence is more likely to be punished in media presentations; 3. the fact that violent criminals tend to be versatile—they commit nonviolent crimes as well—is inconsistent with explanations that emphasize proviolence socialization (from the media or other sources). I conclude that exposure to television violence probably does have a small effect on violent behavior for some viewers, possibly because the media directs viewer's attention to novel forms of violent behavior that they would not otherwise consider. <http://arjournals.annualreviews.org/doi/abs/10.1146/annurev.soc.22.1.103>

Intergenerational Transmission

Bobic, Natasha (2002): Adolescent Violence towards Parents: Myths and realities, http://www.rosemount.cathcomm.org/rosemount/reseach/Parent_abuse.pdf

Intergenerational transmission

The Australian movement against domestic violence has accomplished a great deal in the 25 years since its inception. The literature in the field reflects the depth of analysis into various aspects of family violence, but falls short of encouraging debate of its other “hidden forms”. With focus being on domestic violence and child abuse, other types of family violence, such as adolescent violence towards their parents otherwise known as parental abuse, are being overlooked. Parental abuse is often discussed at interagency meetings of social service agencies that work with families, many of whom describe it as widespread and on the increase. There are few statistics available to either support or contradict this belief, although the available estimates indicate that “child-to-parent violence represents a significant social problem”. Practitioners in the field have raised concerns about scarcity of information regarding parental abuse, as there is little clarity on the position of parental abuse on the wide spectrum of domestic / family violence, and inadequate research into ways of addressing it. This article comes in response to this gap.

For further Information: http://www.apv.gov.au/library/intguide/SP/Dom_violence.htm

Dowd, J. J., Sisson, R. P; Kern, D. M. (1981): Socialization to violence among the aged, *Journal of Gerontology* 36, 3, 350-361

This paper addresses the issue of the attitudinal consequences of fear and victimization by focusing on the degree to which people of different ages express approval of violent behavior. It is our argument that the experience of victimization socializes the individual to a view as constituting an effective strategy for resolving interpersonal conflict. Data from a national sample of the noninstitutionalized adult population of the United States support this argument, at least for respondents under 60. Older people are less likely to be victims of crime than younger persons, more likely to report fear of crime, and more disapproving of violent behavior. Older victims, however, do not evidence the same attitudinal response as younger victims. Younger victims are generally less disapproving of violence than youthful non-victims; the difference between older victims and non-victims, however, is in the opposite direction. This finding is explained as a specific instance of the lesser impact across the life cycle of period effects on attitudes.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=7229283&dopt=Citation

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ⁱ Risk factor assessment is also used in crime prevention. Some authors harshly criticise this development, mainly because new norms and values are established while the production of new deviant and risks groups is taking place, which has to be controlled and excluded from the hegemonic standards (for example by dragnet investigations). The “success” in terms of prevention is questionable. For further aspects concerning security see Lemke (2004).

ⁱⁱ This introduction base on the working paper: Dijkstra, Sietske (2005): The concept of resilience. Challenges and cautions.

ⁱⁱⁱ CAPCAE partners were Theresa Bertotti and Prof. Paolo Di Blasio, CbM, Italy, Prof. Angeles Cerezo, Valencia University (Spain), Dr. Marc Gerard, ONE/SOS Enfants (Belgium), Alain Grevot, ODAS (France), Klaus Kooijman, VKM, and Dr. Francine Lamers, Free University both the Netherlands, Kieran McGrath, Children’s Hospital Dublin, Ireland, Prof. David Thorpe, Lancaster University, England, Dr. Ute Thyen, University of Lubeck, Germany. CAPCAE was funded by the European Commission Biomed II grant BMH4-CT96-0829.