



A University of Sussex PhD thesis

Available online via Sussex Research Online:

<http://sro.sussex.ac.uk/>

This thesis is protected by copyright which belongs to the author.

This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the Author

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the Author

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given

Please visit Sussex Research Online for more information and further details

When women abuse
Female violence in the long-term
relationships in Poland

by

Dorota Ewa Zukowska

Submitted for the award of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Sussex

July 2019

Dedication

To Ryszard (1974-2018), who was the rock I could build on

Acknowledgements

The idea for this research was born during my studies in Wroclaw when Ryszard brought home the information about a man reporting victimisation by his wife at the police station, where my husband worked at the time. My questions regarding that case evolved to what is now this study; all with his constant love, support and belief in my abilities.

Finding the university interested in controversial research, time and resources to juggle this project when unsuccessful in my funding applications, I resumed full-time employment, along with the other and more personal matters the life decided to throw at me, took me to three continents, six countries and several cities; proving to be quite a learning experience.

In my journey, I met a vast number of people without whom this work would have never been finished: Dr Lizzie Seal, who took the risk of being my Primary Supervisor, has always been in my corner, offering me to transfer with her from Durham to Sussex just to start with, and whom I can vote the most patient and understanding advisor in the world anytime; the Police Officers, Prosecutors, Judges and their office staff from all the places where I collected samples, who granted me access to the sensitive information as well as answered a number of questions when having busy work schedules themselves; Rehema Clarken, whose advice on the thesis outline saved, if not my life, then my sanity for certain; Suzana Hasani, for introducing me to Laerd Statistics, which was like the light at the end of the tunnel; and all the people at Sussex University responsible for granting me additional time, when I desperately needed it.

Special thanks go to these who supported me during the darkest of times: Ray and Julie Husthwaite, Katie and Carlos Lira with their boys: Adam and Luke; and my parents who (wo)manned the home front.

Finally, I would like to thank Konrad, for providing me with a safe harbour when the world around me fell to pieces.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis has not been and will not be submitted in whole or in part to another university for the award of any other degree.

Signature:

Abstract

This exploratory research investigates the reasons for and perpetration of domestic violence and coercive control by women towards their long-term current or former male partners. It identifies several measurable characteristics of the alleged perpetrators, victims, their relationships, and the Judicial System's response to the cases reported.

It aims to identify the key variables that play a role in abuse perpetration and the areas for further research. Non-random, consecutive samples of data were retrieved from the prosecution and court case files: of 50 cases in Warsaw and 134 in Lublin, Poland. The areas with a similar number of inhabitants were sampled.

A mixed-method was applied to record the information; qualitative data were converted into categorical variables to conduct descriptive and inferential statistics: χ^2 test of association and multiple Z-tests of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment. The samples were compared with the non-criminal population of Poland for the number of children and the structure of education.

Results showed the main themes emerging: economic issues, women empowerment, alcohol, age and age difference between the partners, self-defence and defending children.

Many similarities between the criminal samples from both places in the age structure of partners, number of children, patterns of age and income differences, and alcohol use during the perpetration were found, however, the differences in reporting self-defence, and education structure were present.

The abuse was mostly bidirectional; a mixture of more than one kind of coercive control tactics and physical abuse; while the reasons related to the use of the family property and monetary resources. The reasons for violence use varied for the women with three and more children depending on whether they enlisted the accomplices or abused alone.

The implications of the findings and areas for future research are discussed.

Contents

| | |
|--|----|
| Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study | 17 |
| 1.1 Conceptual basis for the research | 17 |
| 1.2 Definition of terms | 24 |
| Recognition and definition of domestic violence in Poland | 28 |
| 1.3 Problem statement and purpose of the study | 31 |
| 1.4 The aim and objective of research | 33 |
| 1.4.1 Research questions | 34 |
| 1.5 Advancing scientific knowledge and significance of the study..... | 34 |
| 1.6 Rationale for methodology | 35 |
| 1.7 Assumptions, Limitations and Delimitations | 37 |
| 1.7.1 Assumptions | 37 |
| 1.7.2 Limitations | 38 |
| 1.7.3 Delimitations..... | 39 |
| Research Questions and variables of interest | 39 |
| Theoretical perspectives adopted..... | 39 |
| 1.8 Summary and organisation of the Reminder of the Study | 40 |
| Chapter 2: Transitional Society in Poland: the overall changes and sources of information | 43 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 2.1 Well-being and level of happiness in Poland | 45 |
| 2.2 Constituents of transition..... | 46 |
| 2.3 Gender Equality: law and reality | 49 |
| 2.3.1 Women, parities and politics | 53 |
| GDP feminisation index. | 54 |
| Parities..... | 56 |
| 2.3.2 Aspirations, education and the job market | 57 |
| Aspirations | 57 |
| Education..... | 58 |
| Sex education..... | 59 |
| Job market | 61 |
| Gender pay (wage) gap | 64 |
| Gender Equality index | 67 |
| 2.4 Religion, morals and the Catholic Church | 68 |
| 2.5 Health, reproduction and family matters..... | 71 |
| 2.5.1 Reproductive health..... | 71 |
| 2.5.2 Abortion..... | 74 |
| The Law | 74 |
| The Black Protest (Black Monday) | 77 |
| Abortion experience..... | 78 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 2.5.3 Rate of reproduction: preferences and reality | 79 |
| 2.5.4 Relationships: models, formation and breakup..... | 82 |
| Sexual jealousy and infidelity in Poland | 84 |
| Divorce matters..... | 84 |
| Child support and Child Support Fund | 85 |
| 2.6 Women and domestic violence: police statistics and population polls | 86 |
| 2.6.1 Police Data..... | 87 |
| 2.6.2 Population polls | 87 |
| Admitting to domestic violence/abuse perpetration | 89 |
| Experiencing victimisation by domestic violence | 90 |
| Risk factors associated with domestic violence | 91 |
| Knowledge of families where IPV takes place..... | 93 |
| Views of respondents on matters of domestic violence perpetration, victimisation and help-seeking in Poland | 94 |
| 2.7 Summary..... | 95 |
| 2.8 What to expect of Chapter 3 | 96 |
| Chapter 3: Criminal Proceedings in cases of domestic violence in Poland. | 98 |
| 3.1 Introduction | 98 |
| 3.2 Legal base and definitions in Poland | 99 |
| 3.3 Judicial System | 102 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 3.3.1 Judicial system recognition and the role of NGOs in Poland | 103 |
| 3.3.2 Stages of investigation and Judicial Process | 106 |
| Incident..... | 106 |
| Investigation and Prosecution..... | 108 |
| Courts | 110 |
| 3.3.3 Preventive measures | 111 |
| 3.3.4 Trial and sentencing | 112 |
| 3.4 Summary..... | 113 |
| Chapter 4: Women as perpetrators of domestic violence (a literature review) | 115 |
| 4.1 Theoretical Foundations and/or Conceptual Framework | 115 |
| 4.1.1 Sociocultural frameworks..... | 115 |
| Feminist perspectives..... | 115 |
| Power and resource theories | 121 |
| Theories based on the individual | 122 |
| The nested ecological framework theory and a three-level model of perceived influences on the violence/aggression against one's partner | 123 |
| 4.1.2 Evolutionary frameworks | 124 |
| 4.2.2 Pioneer research on measuring domestic violence and abuse | 126 |
| 4.2.1 Conflict Tactics Scales | 126 |
| Strengths of the CTS1 and CTS2: | 128 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Limitations and criticisms of CTS: | 129 |
| 4.2.2 Measurements with the context of aggression | 131 |
| Johnson's typology as an alternative measure of the IPV | 131 |
| 4.3. Aspects of IPV/abuse addressed in the research..... | 133 |
| 4.3.1 Prevalence..... | 133 |
| 4.3.2 Violence/abuse recognition | 134 |
| Reporting female perpetration of IPV..... | 135 |
| Reasons for men reluctance to report their victimisation by the IPV | 136 |
| 4.3.3 Reasons for and the consequences of abuse | 138 |
| Reasons and risks factors for abuse in men and women..... | 138 |
| Consequences of abuse | 140 |
| 4.3.3 Reports from the general population and empowerment of women | 141 |
| 4.4 Summary..... | 142 |
| 4.5 What to expect of Chapter 5 | 143 |
| Chapter 5: Methodology | 145 |
| 5.1 Introduction | 145 |
| 5.2 Expectations of the chapter | 145 |
| 5.3 Statement of the problem | 146 |
| 5.4 Aims, objectives, Research Questions, variables and data..... | 148 |
| The variables | 148 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 5.4.2 Description of data sources..... | 160 |
| 5.4.3 Justification of research design as being the best approach to answering the Research Questions | 161 |
| 5.4.4 Approaches to collecting the data to answer the Research Questions for each of the variables tested | 163 |
| 5.5 Research Methods and Research Design..... | 164 |
| 5.5.1 Description of the research methods used | 164 |
| Mixed methods research design | 164 |
| Types of information recorded in the pro forma and the database | 166 |
| Judicial System Statistics measures | 170 |
| Demographic measures | 171 |
| Physical violence measures. | 172 |
| Scoring the physical abuse scales | 173 |
| Psychological/Verbal abuse | 173 |
| Reasons for abuse | 175 |
| 5.5.2 Rationale for choosing this type of methodology and not others | 175 |
| 5.6 Population and Sample Selection..... | 176 |
| 5.6.1 Sample selection and population researched | 176 |
| 5.6.2 Authorisation site process, confidentiality measures, participation requirements..... | 177 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 5.7 Instrumentation or Sources of Data | 178 |
| 5.8 Validity | 179 |
| 5.8.1 Was what was set to be measured actually measured? | 180 |
| 5.8.2 External and internal validity of the study..... | 180 |
| 5.9 Reliability | 183 |
| How my procedures ensured the reliability of the data collected..... | 183 |
| Am I likely to replicate the procedure?..... | 183 |
| Would the data collected in replication be similar?..... | 183 |
| Reliability of the statistics used | 183 |
| 5.10 Data Collection and Management..... | 184 |
| 5.11 Data Analysis Procedures..... | 185 |
| Preparation of raw data | 185 |
| Data coding information | 185 |
| Data analysis procedures..... | 194 |
| Descriptive statistics | 194 |
| Profiles of the alleged perpetrator, victim, couple dynamics and legal proceedings | 197 |
| Chi ² and multiple Z-tests of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment | 197 |
| 5.12 Ethical Considerations..... | 199 |
| Respect, justice and beneficence of the study design | 199 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Data storage and safeguarding..... | 200 |
| 5.13 Limitations and Delimitations | 200 |
| Limitations of the research methodology and research design | 200 |
| Formulation of research aims and objectives | 200 |
| Type of data and implementation of the data collection method | 201 |
| Type of data limitations | 201 |
| Implementation of the data collection method | 202 |
| Methodological limitations | 202 |
| Sample size and profile | 202 |
| Lack of previous studies in the research area and access to the literature | 203 |
| Impact limitations | 204 |
| Delimitations of the research methodology and research design | 204 |
| Scope of research | 204 |
| Choice of objectives..... | 205 |
| 5.14 What to expect of Chapter 6 | 207 |
| Chapter 6: Results and Data Analysis..... | 209 |
| Part 1: The Results..... | 209 |
| 6.1 Introduction | 209 |
| 6.2 General Characteristics of the Samples..... | 211 |
| Part 2: Analysis of data | 252 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 6.3 Processed data..... | 252 |
| 6.5 Summary..... | 301 |
| Chapter 7: Summary of the Findings, Theorisation, Conclusions, Implications of the study and recommendations for the future..... | 308 |
| Importance of the topic | 308 |
| 7.2 Theorisation | 310 |
| Recognition of male victimisation and the problem of coercive control | 310 |
| 7.2.2 Themes emerging from the data analysis | 316 |
| 7.5 Methodological and theoretical limitations of this study | 341 |
| Theoretical limitations | 343 |
| 7.6 Implications of the study and recommendation for further research | 345 |
| 7.7 Conclusions | 348 |
| Theoretical implications and recommendations | 352 |
| Bibliography | 353 |
| Appendices | 380 |
| Chapter 3 | 380 |
| Ch.3 Appendix 1: Information on the Blue Card Forms..... | 380 |
| Ch.3 Appendix 2: Instructions for the aggrieved party's principal rights and duties..... | 382 |
| Ch.3 Appendix 3: A model of the Criminal Proceedings in Poland | 385 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Chapter 5 | 387 |
| Ch.5 Appendix 1: Variables recorded in the database and used in the data analysis | 387 |
| Ch.5 Appendix 2: Access Letters | 390 |
| 1a. Letter of data access request to the Lublin District of Public Prosecution Office | 391 |
| 1b. Letter of the data access request to the Lublin District Court Judge | 392 |
| 1d. Letter granting the access to data at the Regional Prosecutor's Office (in Polish) | 393 |
| 1e. Letter granting the access to data at the Lublin-North Prosecutor's Office (in Polish) | 394 |
| 1f. Letter granting the access to data at the Lublin-East Court (in Polish) | 395 |
| 1g. Letter granting the access to data at the Lublin-West Court (in Polish) | 396 |
| 2a. Access request letter to the Public Prosecution office in Warsaw | 397 |
| 2b. Access request letter to the Warsaw District Court in Warsaw | 399 |
| 2c. Letter granting the access to data from the District Prosecutor's Office (in Polish) | 400 |
| 2d. Letter granting the access to data from the District Court Judge (in Polish) | 401 |
| Ch.5 Appendix 3: Declaration of confidentiality (in Polish) | 402 |
| Ch.5 Appendix: 4 Data recording <i>pro forma</i> | 403 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Ch.5 Appendix 5: Gender neutral Power and Control Wheel..... | 406 |
| Ch5 Appendix 6 Categories, types of variables and the coding information.... | 406 |
| Ch. 6 Appendix 1: General characteristics of the sample | 411 |
| Ch6. Appendix 2: Database Coding Information and Descriptive Statistics | 424 |
| Ch.6 Appendix 3: Profiles of alleged victims and perpetrators | 454 |
| Ch.6 Appendix 4: Results of Chi ² and Z-test of two proportions with Boneferroni adjustment..... | 459 |
| Appendix 4.1 Results of Chi2 test | 459 |
| Ch.6 Appendix 4.2. Results of Z-test of two proportions with a Bonferroni adjustment..... | 465 |
| Ch. 6 Appendix 5: Statistical information about the general population of Poland used for the comparison with research results using “N-1” Chi ² tests..... | 490 |

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

1.1 Conceptual basis for the research

Male victimisation by intimate partner violence has been acknowledged since the 1970s. Still, the phenomenon does not seem to have received the same attention as female victimisation, even though its rates have not decreased in time as they have for the female victims (Hines and Douglas, 2009, p.572-573). There are still many questions regarding the female use of force against their intimate partners that need further attention, including the following:

Are men and women using the intimate partner violence in different ways or different context? (Hines, Brown and Dunning, 2007, p.66-71). Are there any similarities and/or differences in female perpetration of violence in heterosexual and same-sex relationships? Is violence in intimate relationships related to gender socialisation? (Worcester, 2002, p.139-95). To what extent is female use of violence influenced by the rise of neoliberal values in societies, and how different is it in the post-communist countries in comparison with, so-called West? (Balabukha et al., 2016; O'Leary et al, 2008)

This study, exploring the female perpetration of violence/abuse against their current and former male partners, and taking into consideration several measurable characteristics extracted from the police and prosecution cases files in two Polish cities of different economic development (Lublin and Warsaw), helps to formulate answers to at least part of the abovementioned questions in the context of the post-communist criminal population in Poland. Furthermore, the socioeconomic and sociodemographic characteristics extracted from the case files are used to describe “typical” alleged perpetrators and victims, “typical” relationship where the abuse was reported to take place as well as a “standard” response of the Criminal Justice System investigating cases of alleged female-

perpetrated intimate partner violence or abuse as defined by the Polish Penal Code of 1997.

Additionally, the correlations between four characteristics: the use of accomplice(s) in the perpetration of violent acts towards the current or former male partners and reasons for abuse, the use of accomplices and general types of abuse, the number of children and reasons for abuse, mode of abuse perpetration and reasons for abuse are examined in search for the possible key abuse risk factors, that increase the chance of or trigger the violent acts. Finally, the key themes emerging from the interviews of the proximate and ultimate reasons behind the use of violence towards their current or former intimate partners are identified and compared with their occurrence in the context of existing literature.

Since the fall of communism in Poland in 1989, the country had undergone a number of rapid changes in many areas, including the politics, economy and society; including development of several aspects seen as a key to women empowerment and measured by their level of education, access to the highly-paid jobs or jobs providing similar or higher status than their partners'. All this, combined with redefining masculinity and a change in paradigm of man as a bread winner and a go-between his family and the society, largely disengaged in the house work and upbringing of the children (perceived as the women's work) (Perkowski, 2008, p.101-103), could have influenced the rates and recognition and acceptance of women victimisation by their intimate partners.

Accompanying a number of societal changes during the fall of communism and rise of neoliberal values, the recognition of family violence/abuse as an important problem that should be moved from the private to public domain emerged. The most widely recognised was the social campaign of November and December 1997, run by The Polish Nationwide Emergency Service for Victims of Domestic Violence „Blue Line", with its series of "Stop Domestic Abuse" billboards, posters and television clips pictured women and children as the victims of domestic violence. The success of this

action, measured by the increase of the number of calls to “The Blue Line” help line¹ by 170 percent (Kampanie Spoleczne.pl, 2020), resulted in a long-lasting societal awareness, and was followed by supplementing the Polish Penal Code of 1997 (Polish Penal Code, 1997 p.82-83) the first unified and formal definition of domestic violence (art.207.1) for the purposes of criminal proceedings by The Act of 29 July 2005 on counteracting domestic violence and abuse (Ustawa z dnia 29 lipca 2005 r. o przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie, 2005). Contrary to the social campaigns, Polish legislation uses a gender neutral language when addressing the domestic violence and abuse. The characteristics of domestic violence as described by the Polish Penal Code of 1997, however do not incorporate several aspects of psychological abuse and coercive control, such as distinguishing between the higher income of one of the partners (which is recognised) and control over the income distribution in definition of domestic violence/abuse. There is no recognition of a primary abuse perpetrator in cases where both partner report or are reported to use physical violence and/or controlling behaviours, and the incidents where both partner report victimisation are investigated separately and in some cases failing to address the separately reported events as a single course of conduct, especially in cases that have been previously discontinued. In practice, the mention of an ongoing (or concluded) investigation of alleged domestic violence/abuse against a male partner is usually enough to discontinue the case of alleged violence/abuse against a female partner as it shows the resistance of the alleged victim, which is often interpreted as not the features the victim of violence/abuse can be identified by (Sledziwski, 2016, p. 150-151; Wrona, 2016, p.143-145). Abovementioned are the main reasons of men’s disadvantaged position during the criminal investigations of cases of alleged violence/abuse perpetuated by their female partners or other family members.

¹ Run by the Instytut Psychologii Zdrowia (Psychology of Health Institute)

The prevalent local gender norms, along with the lack of awareness of male victimisation by the intimate partners in heterosexual relationships (OBOP, 2010; CBOS, 2009b; CBOS, 2012c) seem to be the main reason for the lack of research on the topic, and marginalisation of the victims by their inability to access justice. Thus, despite the growing number of men reporting the victimisation by their intimate partners in the population polls as well as to the police forces (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019) there is still little available data that would allow the estimates of prevalence of this type of abuse in the general Polish society. These factors, along with the interpretation of the Polish Penal Code definition of domestic violence/abuse by the police officers, prosecutors and judges, are most likely contributing to the over 98 percent rates of attrition of cases of alleged male victimisation by intimate partners in the Polish justice system (See Chapter 3, Chapter 6 and Chapter 7).

There are several reasons for using a criminal sample and data extracted from the prosecution office and court files. First is making use of the data already collected to be used in the criminal proceedings, largely underused in the research projects in Poland. The wealth of information recorded in a standardised manner in the prosecution and court case files, allows the construction of an extensive database, which in turn enables the statistical analysis of measurable characteristics; and as such shedding more light on the characteristics of women, and the circumstances under which they are being recognised and reported as perpetrators of physical violence and coercive control towards their partners. Response of the justice system allows identification of the points of attrition for cases as well as the ineffectiveness of the system, designed to assist the victims regardless of their gender, yet, in practice, creating a justice gap.

An innovative classification of the prevalent reasons for abuse, as either directly reported by the persons interviewed or concluded from the situations that were reported to have taken place, and divided to nine specific categories was based on the themes uncovered in the existing literature and

police officers interviewed prior to the pilot study. These are a mixture of proximate and ultimate reasons for violence/abuse; some (such as jealousy) rooted in the evolutionary psychology, others (such as the substance abuse or alleged perpetrators' self-defence) recognised as the immediate triggers for violent acts. Identification and combining of the proximate and ultimate reasons for the violent acts allowed an assessment of the explanations by offered by different (and not necessarily mutually exclusive) theoretical frameworks: the feminist perspectives² (e.g. Gilfus et al. 2010, Dobash and Dobash, 1979, Dobash and Dobash, 1992; Kellman and Mercy, 1992; Cascardi & Vivian, 1995; Barnett, et al., 1997); power and resource theories (e.g. Straus, 1997; Coleman and Straus, 1986; Gray-Little et al., 1996; Bell and Naugle, 2008); a number of theories based on the individual³ (e.g. Bandura, 1971 and 1973; Riggs and O'Leary 1989; Mihalic and Elliot, 1997, Riggs et al, 2000; nested ecological framework (Heise, 1998; Bhandari et al., 2008; Odgers et al; 2008; Cross and Campbell, 2011; 2012) and three-level model of perceived influences on the violence against one's intimate partner (Flynn and Graham, 2010) ; as well as the intimacy with the target) described by Cross and Campbell (2011, 2012).

1.1.1 Basic research design and significance of the study

This research project was inspired by the findings of a **pilot study** completed for the author's Master's Dissertation in 2004; based on the convenience Judicial System sample from Wroclaw, Poland. The pilot study analysed 108 case files from the years 1990 to 2003, accessed at the local prosecutor offices and courts. Data was collected using a simpler version of the current *pro forma* and recorded the sociodemographic and socioeconomic information about the alleged female perpetrators and male victims in the cases of reported intimate partner violence/ abuse. The note

² with the cycle of violence and learnt helplessness, the battered woman syndrome, coercive control and the Power and Control Wheel

³ such as the social learning theory, the contextual/situational model or three-level model

section of *pro forma* was used to record the additional information regarding the incident, including details of physical violence allegedly used against the victim, couple dynamics and the conduct of the judicial proceedings. The presence or absence of other types of violence such as verbal or psychological violence/abuse was also noted. Mixed method approach allowed the enrichment of data base and later statistical analysis of the factors the researcher was originally not aware of when planning the study. The types of the physical violence/abuse were recorded using a slightly modified CTS 1 scale, with the categories “hitting with fist” and “kicking” added. The general categories of reasons for abuse were developed as an original contribution using the reported reasons for divorce in Poland as reported by the Demographic Yearbook of Poland (Central Statistical Office, 2002), police officers interviewed prior to the research, and (originally) as an antithesis of features of desirable male partner as described by the evolutionary psychology (Buss, 2008).

Descriptive statistics, followed by the statistical data analysis, completed using parametric (t-test) non-parametric (Cohran-Cox, Wlad –Wolfowitz and F-test) tests, suggested that the age, age difference, education of the partners, relative differences in income as well as the marital status of the couples, substance abuse and the number of children could have played a significant role as underlying causes or triggers for the women’s violent behaviour towards their partners. Regarding the reported reasons for violence, financial problems (caused by either man’s lower-than-expected investment in the family needs or woman’s budget mismanagement), jealousy and alcohol abuse or problems were reported most often, although the latter were reported at the lower-than-expected rate of occurrence.

The finding that the most prevalent type of relationship was marriages followed by the former marriages suggested that in Poland the male partner-directed and female partner-perpetrated relationship abuse was either perpetrated or reported more often in the state-sanctioned relationships rather than in the common-law marriages or by dating partners.

During development of the pilot study into a current research project, the initial *pro forma* has been reviewed, enriched with the additional categories of physical violence, gender-neutral Power and Control Wheel to record psychological abuse and coercive control as well as the additional categories of socioeconomic and sociodemographic information (including the details of alleged violence/abuse towards the couples' children by each of the parents, number, age and sexes of children) (Zukowska, 2004).

The current research also used a mixed method approach, where extraction of the primary data from the case files was conducted using a *pro forma*, the details of which are to be found in Chapter 5 and Appendices 4 and 5 for this chapter.

The qualitative information was recorded in the form of notes in the last part of *pro forma*, providing details of the violent incidents, the conduct of alleged perpetrators, victims as well as information about these provided by the witnesses and court-appointed specialists if applicable; along with the judicial system procedures applied and the case outcome (Chapter 5, Appendix 1). All data was initially recorded as a number or assigned distinct categories (making it either numerical or categorical variables) in the Excel database (for convenience), then coded and transferred to SPSS database (Chapter 5, Appendix 7) for more in-depth statistical analysis using descriptive statistics, Chi² (or Fisher's exact test) and multiple Z-test of two proportions (Chapter 5, Appendix 4).

This design, providing a wealth of information and allowing flexibility in recording of the possibly relevant information, could be described as an enquiry study with analytical components. As such, it allowed gathering of as much relevant data as possible and was chosen in hope to identify the variables that could provide a more complete description into of the alleged abusers, victims, their relationship, and judicial proceedings of the cases.

Such a broad focus of this research allowed making some valid conclusions as well as identified areas, where no complex prior studies existed, for further exploration in the future.

1.2 Definition of terms

According to the uniform definitions by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention of Department of Health and Human Services USA (Satzman *et al*, 1999), **violence** in general is divided into four major categories: physical, sexual, threat of physical or sexual violence and psychological/emotional abuse, the latter including the coercive control tactics. The relationship between these subtypes in the cases of domestic violence or abuse is still the matter of academic discourse. Currently, the majority of researchers agrees that these types of violence can be perpetrated by either men or women and aimed towards male or female victims of domestic violence/abuse; however, not with the same frequency, and that the consequences for female victims of intimate partner violence are usually more severe (Walby and Towers, 2018; Walby and Allen, 2004).

Information on the male victimisation and female perpetration of the Intimate Partner Violence or abuse is based on contradictory research findings. Kimberg (2008), when addressing the dilemmas in interpreting the IPV research, points out that the behaviours and relationship dynamics are measured in a number of ways, which makes them inconsistent. The same principle applies to abuse definitions, resulting in the meaning of different behaviours interpreted differently in different cultures or by different individuals (Kimberg, 2008).

Intimate partner violence or **IPV** is defined by the WHO (e.g. Krug *et al*, 2002, p.89) as any type of behaviour within a relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to its recipients. It could include all or some of: physical aggression, psychological abuse sexual coercion, and various controlling behaviours, including progressive social isolation, stalking, deprivation of basic human

needs, intimidation and threats (Satzman *et al*, 1999). It occurs repetitively, as a pattern, perpetrated by who “is, was or wishes to be involved” in the intimate relationship with a victim, and its aim is establishing or maintaining a control by one partner over another (Kimberg, 2008). IPV is also referred to as **battering** (implying also the existence of physical violence), in cases where it is repetitive; as well as “marital violence” (Krug et al., 2002).

Domestic violence (or rarely used **marital violence**), was initially named and defined by Straus and Gelles in 1979, as intentionally hurting another person living in the same household and usually by a member of the family and as such is a broader than the IPV. Domestic violence includes mildly and severely aggressive behaviours causing stress and/or injury to another person.

Finally, the term **abuse** is used as an umbrella for all of the forms of wrongful treatment, when behaviour is unacceptable to the large percentage of population and goes against its standards of conduct (Rouse, 1989).

Physical abuse, used interchangeably with the term physical violence in this study, is characterised by the use of physical force with intention to hurt the partner and potential to cause physical harm, injury, disability or death (Rouse, 1989). Scales for measuring the extent of physical violence/abuse are introduced in Chapter 4 and the use of Conflict Tactics Scales for measuring physical violence is discussed in Chapter 5.

Psychological or emotional violence/abuse is more problematic to define as some individuals may perceive certain behaviours as acceptable while others see them as offensive or abusive and as such violent; hence, psychological violence is, to some degree, evaluated intuitively (Winstock and Sowon-Baheer, 2015). Psychological abuse is also identified by frequency and persistency (Follingstad, 2007) as well as the intent to cause harm (Murphy and Cascardi, 1993); and greatly depends on the context to the effect of traumatising victims by acts, threats of acts and cohesive tactics.

Published research identifies six subtypes of psychological violence: verbal abuse, threats of physical or sexual violence, economic abuse, stalking, deprivation and/or neglect, social isolation of the victim (Winstock and Sowan-Barheer, 2015; Satzman et al, 1999).

Verbal abuse or intimidation is described as belittling a spouse by using negative defining statements, while **social isolation** is conducted by controlling the spouse's contact with outside world, using jealousy to justify these actions (Johnson, 1995).

Stalking is repeated harassing or threatening behaviour in the form of unwanted contact or communication between two people and may include damage to the victim's property (National Institute of Justice, 2007). **Deprivation** or neglect is characterised by not meeting the basic needs of a dependent (Krug et al., 2002), while **economic** or dependence **abuse** as preventing the spouse from having his or her own income, making him or her ask for money while the perpetrator controls the family budget (Johnson, 1995).

Psychological violence/abuse can overlap with the acts or **threats of physical or sexual violence**, the latter being mostly feared form of violence reported by the women interviewed in the British Crime Survey of 2001 (Walby and Allen, 2004).

Sexual violence is as any form of undesired sexual behaviour (Walby and Allen, 2004) and in intimate relationships can be used as means of expressing dominance (Johnson, 1995) and/or anti-cuckoldry strategy by a long-term sexual partner (Buss and Duntley, 2006). It can also be divided into three categories: the use of physical force "attempted or compelled sexual act involving person (...) unable to understand the nature or condition of the act" and "abusive sexual contact" (National Institute of Justice, 2007).

All forms of psychological or emotional as well as a physical and sexual violence can be used as forms of **coercive control** over one's partner (Walby and Towers, 2018); which is "an act or a pattern of acts of assault, threats, humiliation and intimidation or other abuse that is used to harm,

punish, or frighten (...) victim” (Women’s Aid, 2020). The tactics of coercive control include: treating the partner as if the he or she was inferior or a personal servant; ordering around; shaming in front of others; putting down mental abilities and /or appearance; being suspicious about friends, other men or women; controlling partner’s time and whereabouts; being insensitive to partner’s feelings; withdrawal (Kasian and Painter, 1992). Abusing one’s partner by coercive control has been identified as different to the assaults or “fights within couples involving physical force” and linked with gender inequalities between men and women and found to be a motivation behind the use of IPV. It has been found to be perpetrated more often by men than by women, and identified more often in the agency rather than community or population samples (Stark 2009, Walby and Towers, 2018). The measurement of psychological violence and coercive control tactics using the Power and Control Wheel are introduced in Chapter 4, section 3.1 and described further in Chapter 5, section 5.1 and 5.3).

The presence or absence of coercive control has been one of the key concepts taken into consideration by **Johnson** (1995, 2006), who proposed a **division of intimate partner violence/abuse** into four different types: intimate terrorism, violent resistance, common couple violence and mutual violent control; based on the presence or absence of coercive control tactics used by one or both partners. In this division, the coercive control is present in two types of violence: the intimate terrorism (where is used by one partner over another) and in mutual violent control (where it’s used by both partners). (Johnson’s typology of violence is discussed further in Chapter 4, section 3.2).

Taking into consideration multiple factors in perpetration and context of domestic violence and their link with the coercive control, Walby and Towers (2018) proposed an alternative approach and the concept of **domestic violent crime**, as perpetrated by the person in a “domestic” relationship with

his or her victim: current or ex-intimate partner, or other relative, including children and son or daughter-in-law. They identified seven issues related with this type of crime: violence and coercion, violence and harm, repetition, seriousness, motivation of the perpetrator and resilience of a victim, different types or escalation, and gender. The proposed approach is that all physical violence are to be considered instrumental (controlling) and harmful; and seriousness dictated by the harm caused to the victim. Findings from Analysing the Crime Survey for England and Wales revealed gender asymmetry in all forms of violence, including all levels of seriousness, frequency and escalation linked with the vulnerability of the victims and their situation. These will be discusses further in the Chapter 4.

The concept of domestic violent crime assumes treating each incident separately, making it an approach similar to the Polish Penal Code of 1997.

During the occurrence of **violent episodes**, a single or series of acts that are perceived to be connected and can last over a period of minutes, hours or days the acts of violence can form different **patterns**, with different severity or violence type (Saltzman *et al.* 1999, p.13-14). The violence/abuse can also be **unidirectional**, with one partner perpetrating all violent acts, or **bidirectional** (or dual), in the instances where both partners are involved in the physical, psychological or other forms of violence perpetration (Straus, 2011, p.280).

Recognition and definition of domestic violence in Poland

The research interest in domestic violence in the communist Poland was marginal, mostly conducted by the lawyers, and increased slightly in the late 1960s, before and during the construction of the Penal Code. Chapter XXI of the Penal Code of 1969 addressed the offences against the person and health, but has not defined nor described domestic violence as a separate crime (Klich-Kluczevska, 2014; PPC, 1969).

Since 1970s, the interest in the topic of domestic violence increased further, and the problem was tackled by the media (with one radio show and one film about domestic violence), criminologists, sociologists, social psychologists and pedagogists; however the first centre offering psychological advice and aid to women experiencing domestic violence has been opened in the 1980s at the Medical School in Cracow; and the first Crisis Intervention Centre - in 1990, also in Cracow (Klich-Kluczewska, 2014).

The analysis of selected court files, and letters to the editors of "Przyjaciółka" and "Kobieta i Życie", two nation-wide magazines for women in the communist Poland by Klich-Kluczewska concluded that domestic violence against women and children was widespread, treated as almost "typical", if undesirable part of marital life. Types of violence/abuse against women and children described in the letters from women asking for advice, paint the picture of domestic violence similar to these encountered after 1989, and most often perpetrated by women's long-term intimate partners (Klich-Kluczewska, 2014). Still, no legal definition of physical, psychological or sexual violence/abuse in the intimate relationships is to be found from that period (Sledziwski, 2016).

Domestic violence/abuse has been recognised as a separate crime by the Polish Penal Code of 1997 (PPC, 1997), however there was still no official definition of it developed for the purpose of criminal justice. As such, the understanding of what is or is not classified as domestic violence or partner abuse was interpreted to some extent intuitively, based on the affliction it caused to the victim, whether the victim was perceived as powerless and hindered by the abuse and whether the action against the victims included breaking of the societal norms (or norms of the societal stratum the conflicted couple came from) by the perpetrator of violent acts (Sledziwski, 2016, p. 150; Wrona, 2016, p. 145-147). Whether certain behaviours qualified as domestic violence was most often deemed on the basis of interpretation by the respected law practitioners and judged by the

effect it had on its victims; stressing its repetitive character (PPC, 1997, § 207, p. 82; Sledziwski, 2016, p.143-144) and intent (Wrona, 2016, p.76-77, 145-148).

According the ruling in a precedential case by the Supreme Court of Poland, the specification of domestic violence/abuse assumes the existence of predominance of power the perpetrator has over his/her victim, the latter having none or limited ability to oppose the violence/abuse experienced (Sledziwski, 2016, p.145). As such, the bidirectional (or dual) perpetration of domestic violence/abuse is deemed impossible (and as such not recognised) by the Polish law (Sledziwski, 2016, p.145-151, Wrona, 146-150).

The first uniform specification of domestic abuse for the judicial system in Poland, was introduced in the Act on Prevention of Domestic Violence in 2005 (Ustawa o przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie, 2005). Here, domestic violence/abuse was defined as: " a single or recurring wilful action or negligence infringing upon the personal rights or wellbeing of persons listed in point 1, in particular exposing these persons at the risk of losing life, health, compromising their dignity, physical integrity, freedom, including sexual freedom, causing damage to their physical or psychical health, and causing pain and moral suffering in persons subjected to violence" (Ustawa o przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie, 2005, Article § 2, p. 2)

The current Polish Penal Code of 1997 recognises two subtypes of marital violence/abuse (or abuse towards one's cohabiting partner) -physical abuse and psychological abuse.

They are addressed by article 207 §§ 1, 2 and 3 and punishable on conviction from 3 months to 12 years of imprisonment. In order to fall under article 207, the abuse must be proven to take place repetitively and/or off for a length of time, which means it has to be reported and recognised by the police or Forensic Medicine Unit on at least two occasions. If this cannot be proven, the actions of a

perpetrator may fall under article 156 or article 157 of Polish Penal Code that addresses bodily injury and disruption of body organs. The convicted perpetrators are punishable between 1 to 12 years of imprisonment (article 156 §§ 1, 2) or 3 months to 5 years of imprisonment (article 157 §§ 1,2). Sexual abuse within a relationship is addressed by the penal code separately in article 197 §§ 1 and 4 and punishable on conviction from 2 to 12 years of imprisonment. Psychological violence/abuse can be classified as threats article 190 § 1 and 3, and punishable on conviction up to 3 years of imprisonment, while Sexual abuse is addressed by the article 197 § 1, 4 and 5 (PPC, 1997). The criminalisation of abuse by the Polish Penal Code and response of the Polish Judicial System is discussed further in Chapter 3, section 4.2.

1.3 Problem statement and purpose of the study

This research focuses on the female perpetration and male victimisation by IPV/abuse in their long-term relationships as reported to and processed by the Polish Judicial System. According to the internal police statistics used for the Blue Card procedure (Chapter 4, section 4.3.1), the number of reported male victims of domestic violence increased from 4239 to 10718 between the years 1999 and 2011; while the female victimisation rose from 55214 in 1999 to 70730 in 2011 (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019). The extent of a problem in general population of Poland, as in the general population of a number of many countries is still unclear and fiercely debated, as some of researchers suggest that the prevalence of intimate partner abuse by women increases with the women empowerment (Archer, 2006) and may be as high as the prevalence of abuse towards women (Straus and Gelles, 1986), while others (e.g. Dobash and Dobash, 1992; Johnson, 2006; Walby *et al*, 2017) argue for the higher rate of female to male victimisation by the intimate partner violence. (Which is further discussed in Chapter 4, section 3.3.1)

The Polish population polls from the years 2009 and 2012 (CBOS, 2009, 2012) revealed 11 percent of women and 10 percent of men (the number growing for 4 percent since 2009) declaring general victimisation by partners' physical violence. Another population poll from 2011 revealed the view of interviewees 67 percent that domestic violence can be triggered by partner's infidelity (Millward Borwn, 2011); and this study investigated whether this is true in the couples reporting the alleged violence against male partners.

As established in the author's pilot study (Zukowska, 2004), the cases files of Polish Judicial System, where men considered themselves (or were considered as) victims of IPV, are a rich source of information on socioeconomic measures as well the modes of perpetration, reasons for abuse and couple dynamics. The extraction of information from cases files, conversion from qualitative to quantitative variables allows certain simplification enables the descriptive statistical analysis, and further testing in search for the associations between the perceived key variables in this form of violence/abuse, the significance of which is discussed in the methodology section of this study (Chapter 5, sections 5.4.3 and 5.5.1.2.1).

The importance of this research ranges from adding to the general body of knowledge by recording and summarising the occurrence of sociodemographic, socioeconomic and additional measurable characteristics of the alleged perpetrators, victims and their relationship; through examining the potential triggers or underlying reasons for abuse by analysing the relationships between some of the measurable characteristics and reported reasons for violent acts; the response of the Polish Judicial System, including the points of attrition; to examining which theoretical frameworks to find the one which best explains the use of domestic violence in the analysed cases. As an exploratory study, this research also identifies the areas for more in-depth analysis in the future. Extending this

project to different countries would allow verification to what degree this type of domestic violence is influenced by the cultural differences, political changes and the emergence of neoliberal values.

The practical application of this study is raising awareness of the female perpetration of and male victimisation by the IPV, with the possibility of setting foundation for making provisions for adequate counselling and support for the victims, perpetrators as well as other family members involved or witnessing the abuse in the future. Providing information to the people working in the Judicial System may enhance their understanding of this rarely reported problem and promote changes within the legislation and judicial system proceedings to make them better fitting to the needs of the victims of domestic violence, no matter what gender they are.

1.4 The aim and objective of research

The aim of the research was an exploration of two sets of data from the cases of alleged domestic violence/abuse perpetrated by women and directed at their male long-term partners or former partners.

The objective of this study was to describe the characteristics of couples where the female-perpetrated and male-directed IPV/abuse was reported to the Judicial System and to compare the measurable characteristics between two samples from the cities of different economic development offering different chances of women empowerment in order to:

1. Identify the key themes emerging from the socioeconomic and sociodemographic data
2. Construct the profiles of “typical” perpetrator, and victim, “typical” couple, where the abuse takes place in these cities
4. Identify the key measurable characteristics being the underline (ultimate) causes or triggers (proximate causes) of the partner violence/ abuse.

Additionally, the author was interested in the response of Polish Judicial System to these reported cases and outlining the areas that should be explored in the further research projects.

1.4.1 Research questions

Since this research is original in more than one aspect, using previously unexplored data sets from the Judicial System, there are no hypotheses stated. Research is exploratory. Its goal is to provide an overview of characteristics of alleged perpetrators and victims of partner abuse in the current and former long-term heterosexual relationships in Poland. The broad research questions of this research were:

1. What are the socioeconomic, sociodemographic and additional characteristics of the samples as recorded by the Polish Judicial System in cases of reported female-perpetrated and male-directed cases of the Intimate Partner Violence/abuse in Lublin and Warsaw, Poland?
2. What are the profiles of a “typical” alleged perpetrator, “typical” alleged victim of partner abuse, “typical” couple, where the abuse is reported to have taken place and “typical” response of the Judicial System in the cases from Lublin and Warsaw? (For the justification of the sample choice see Chapter 5, section 4)
3. Which variables could best explain the mode of perpetration, reasons for, occurrence and severity of physical and emotional abuse against men in long-term heterosexual relationships?

1.5 Advancing scientific knowledge and significance of the study

The findings of this researcher may widen our research horizons to provide a fuller understanding of the female or dually perpetrated IPV/abuse as well as help to understand the impact of women's empowerment on its development (and persistence) in Poland; and perhaps in other societies. This

study can inspire and help to design the future research projects in various areas of science such as: anthropology, classical and evolutionary psychology, sociology, criminology and feminism along with justice and law.

The world report on violence and health from 2002 stressed the importance of societal and economic forces in triggering domestic violence against women and the IPV against women being highest when women begin to assume non-traditional roles or enter the workforce (Krug *et al*, 2002); however, the IPV in post-communist countries, especially female –to male partner is still rarely investigated. Apart from two studies completed on Ukrainian samples (Balabukha, *et al.*, 2016; O’Leary, D.K., *et al*, 2008) there isn’t any published study on female perpetrated IPV taking place in the transitional, post-communist societies like Polish, and none based on the analysis of judicial system sample. As such, this research can allows drawing some conclusions how the changes within the country’s economy, and regional differences in women empowerment within Poland, spilled into influenced the female acceptance of victimisation and perpetration of IPV. Additionally, the reasons for using the violence/abuse against one’s partner by Polish women can be compared with the reasons examined by other scientists in different societies.

1.6 Rationale for methodology

Access to the Judicial System data is largely restricted because of a number of ethical concerns, including confidentiality of data, making use of the information already collected for the purposes of criminal investigations. Therefore, having a permission for access granted for the purpose of this study is a rare opportunity to address a number of research questions which, hopefully, provide a clearer picture of an underresearched problem and map the areas for further and more in-depth research in the future. Using this particular sample is a good way to not only advance the scientific

knowledge but also address a specific social problem, the extent of which we still don't know much about.

Still, choosing Prosecutor Office and Court files is a compromise between the researcher's desire for accessing the most relevant information on the topic and the possibilities of gathering this wealth of data in a relatively large sample, while and overcoming the ethical, financial and time constraints faced by the researcher.

Additionally, utilising the information gathered by a number of trained professionals is, in some cases, the last chance to analyse this set of data before the files are disposed of, as per governmental regulation (Dziennik Ustaw No. 2014, item 991, 2014, §8)⁴.

The mixed method design of data collection, involving the use a *pro forma*, with an option to record additional information in the notes section, enabled not only recording a number of variables foreseen as important by the researcher during the original design of the study (some of which might have not been measured by the previous published studies) but also the flexibility of adding the variables commonly occurring in the judicial system interviews of the alleged perpetrators, victims, witnesses and court-appointed experts. This resulted in fuller picture of the alleged perpetrators, victims and their relationships and as such was a base for more purposeful descriptive statistics and further, more in-depth data analysis.

Using descriptive statistics of the variables recorded, allowed the general information about the percents of occurrence and comparison of them between the samples, but also a construction of the profiles of a "typical" alleged perpetrator, her victims and a relationship where the male-directed IPV has been reported to occur.

⁴ according to which the files of cases where the convicted person was sentenced to 5 years imprisonment are archived for 20 years, the cases where the convicted person was sentenced to lower length of imprisonment, suspended sentence or found not guilty or files recording the implementing act are archived for 10 years, while the other files (of lesser sentences or of the cases where the alleged perpetrators was found not guilty) are archived for 3 years are before their destruction.

The initial stages of data analysis made possible examination of the possible association between the pre-selected measurable characteristics that might have increased a chance for abuse. The quantitative character of variables allowed using the non-parametric tests such as Chi², followed by multiple Z-test of two proportions with Boneferroni adjustment.

The method was designed the way it could be replicated, and as such used on the similar populations in the future or modified to sample the contemporary populations in Poland and other countries.

1.7 Assumptions, Limitations and Delimitations

1.7.1 Assumptions

It is assumed that the respondents interviewed by the police and Prosecution and Courts told the truth, as they are warned of legal consequences of giving an untrue or misleading account, and provided a full account of the perpetration, reasons and circumstances of the alleged cases of abuse as the research.

In order to overcome the issue of disagreement regarding the occurrence and severity of violent acts, which is often occurring when interviewing both: perpetrators and victims of the IPV/abuse, as shown by the number of studies reporting low to moderate agreement (Simpson and Christensen, 2005; O'Leary and Williams, 2006), this research follows the recommendation by some scholars (e.g. Cuenca et al., 2018; Leonard et al, 2014) and uses combined data, obtained from interviewing both partners in order to estimate a more accurate information about the violent acts.

This research uses the WHO definition of abuse, which is broader than the one used by PPC.

Since the definition of domestic violence/abuse as stated by the Polish Penal Code and assessed by the Police and Judicial System is narrower than the definition of abuse used in this research (See

Chapter 1, section 1.2) and in order to be deemed (and filed) as such it needs to be proven beyond the reasonable doubt using the evidence presented to the police, prosecution and court (see Chapter 1, section 1.2 and Chapter 4, section 4.2), most of the cases processed by the Judicial System were discontinued. This does not imply that the violence/abuse has not taken place, only that it did not meet the criteria set by the Judicial System. Therefore, the cases which were concluded as not fulfilling all the criteria for abuse stated by the Polish Penal Code can still be used for this research.

This study assumes that during the interviews by the police officers, court-appointed specialists and/or prosecutors the maximum information regarding the perpetration and reasons for abuse as well as additional circumstances was extracted and recorded as the trained professionals conducting the interviews fulfilled their professional duties to the best of their abilities.

1.7.2 Limitations

The Judicial System sample may not be a full representation of the general Polish population as it is likely to be skewed towards more extreme cases of violence; cases of less extreme or short-time violence perpetration are often not perceived or recognised as abuse and are underreported (Moffit and Caspi, 1999).

Lack of a personal contact with the research subjects and the opportunity to ask the questions personally means relying on the proficiency of people employed by the Judicial System, who conduct interviews and assuming that it was done in a professional manner and to the best of their abilities.

Even with the extensive analysis of sociodemographic measures and variables encompassing the reasons for and perpetration of violence/abuse this analysis is likely to miss some of the context in

which violence/abuse took place. (Detailed limitations of the study are discussed further in Chapter 5, section 5.13).

1.7.3 Delimitations

Research Questions and variables of interest

The broad research questions have been chosen in order to explore the samples in search for the key variables that may be responsible for increasing the risk of or triggering the act of IPV/abuse.

(More details on delimitations of the study are discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.13)

Theoretical perspectives adopted

Following the distinction of proximate and ultimate roots of IPV as introduced by Chester and DeWall (2018), this research tests which of the sociocultural and evolutionary theories introduced in the literature review section of Chapter 3 (section 3.1) best explain the use and causes of the IPV against male partners in the heterosexual relationships.

Additional sociological frameworks, including feminist perspectives, power and resource theories are argued to offer the proximate explanation of IPV are also introduced and considered whether they provide an explanation of the reasons for the use of violence in the researched couples. These refer to the power imbalance between men and women in the society and in the relationship as causes leading to the violence and/or abuse of the less-empowered partner (e.g. Gilfus et al. 2010, Dobash and Dobash, 1979).

Other theories, based on the individual, such as social learning (e.g. Bandura, 1971 and 1973; Riggs et al, 2000), contextual/situational model (Riggs and O'Leary, 1989 and 1996) relate to the social learning of violence as a conflict resolution tactic, paired with the certain personality traits in case of the latter.

Whereas the nested ecological framework theory by Heise (1998) considers a number of individual, relationship and societal factors, while the three-level model groups these factors into three distinctive levels; the factors in Level 1 and Level 2 could be linked with the ultimate reasons for abuse, while factors grouped in Level 3 are seen as proximate reasons (or triggers) for violence.

The ultimate (or underlying) reasons for violence/abuse towards ones current or former intimate male partner can be linked with the evolutionary mechanisms (Mayr, 1961) and advantage the use of violence against the intimate partner as a conflict resolution tactic. Here, the theory of women's intimacy with the target is being examined in the context of female-perpetrated IPV (Cross and Campbell, 2012) provides an explanation of higher rate of perpetration of the violent act of women towards their male partners in comparison with other men and can help explaining why resolving to violence is perceived by women as one of the conflict resolution tactic. (More details on theoretical perspectives adopted are discussed in Chapter 4, section 1)

1.8 Summary and organisation of the Reminder of the Study

Chapter 2

Chapter 2 describes the various aspects of women's lives in contemporary Poland, highlighting the changes that occurred after the fall of communism and processes of transition into modern, European society. The situation of women and the level of their empowerment is one of the key factors influencing their perpetration of intimate partner violence and abuse.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 presents a review of the current research on interpersonal violence and identifies the studies with similar aspects to this project, as well as discussing relevant theoretical concepts.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4: describes the criminal proceedings in cases of domestic violence in Poland and compares them with the Judicial System response in England. This chapter provides the background for understanding how the cases that are being reported to the Judicial System are investigated as well as explain the complexity of proceedings and shed light on the reasons why there is a low number of cases of marital violence perpetrated by women being forwarded for the further investigation by Prosecution and Family Courts.

Chapter 5

Chapter 5, starting with the research problem's statement, describes the variables being researched and sources of data. In the later section, it introduces and justifies the methodology used in research design, data collection and data analysis. Validity and reliability, ethical considerations along with limitations and delimitations of the study are also being discussed.

Chapter 6

Chapter 6: presents the findings of data analysis. The first part introduces general characteristics of the sample, including raw data. The second part presents processed data: a comparison of the differences in occurrence of sociodemographic and other measureable characteristics between the samples and within each of the samples; followed by the profiles of a typical perpetrator and victim, a relationship where the violence/abuse allegedly took place, and typical legal proceedings of the case. The results of statistical analysis examining the possible relationships between assumed key variables as proximate or ultimate causes of the IPV and limitations of data analysis are presented the last.

Chapter 7

In Chapter 7 the results are summarised and explained using sociological and evolutionary frameworks. The suitability of both models is examined, conclusion of the study presented along with recommendation for the investigations possible in the future.

Chapter 2: Transitional Society in Poland: the overall changes and sources of information

Since WWII, Poland experienced two significant shifts of the political system, the first one from the parliamentary republic to the communism, and the second into the neoliberal democracy. The shifts resulted in complex changes of not only the political systems and economics but also of the law and the society (Grabowska, 2018). These affected Polish citizens in several ways. Women were found to be bearing more costs of the economic transition (Bystydzienski, 2005 p.241-242), due to the effects of uncertainty of the job market and reduction in state welfare. Changes shook the family dynamics, the women empowerment, and their experience of falling victims to and/or perpetrating family violence (Grabowska, 2018).

After 1945, the introduction of communism resulted in an increase in the status and opportunities for women. It is attributed to the implementation of the new civil and family laws. Introduction of the unified divorce and custody as well as the labour laws was also to women's benefit. These guaranteed the equal the status of men and women as the spouses, parents and employees. Although the full implementation of the employment law has never occurred, the communist information (or propaganda) campaigns encouraged women to participate fully in the recovery of the country after the war. Increasing their level of education and aspirations to hold professional careers, served the government's political and economic as well as women's personal goals. As such, one of the successes of the communist regime was equalising the chances for getting an education for people from the lower social strata despite their gender, leading to the fundamental changes in the structure of women's employment and demography of the country (Grabowska, 2018 p. 174-175).

Despite Polish women missing the typical three waves of feminism their western counterparts benefitted from they gained an increase of their status and empowerment and acquired some statutory rights earlier than women in the West (Grabowska, 2018 p. 184-190).

Changes after 1989, were a mixed blessing for women because the rise of new opportunities for development and increasing their empowerment was paired with the decrease to the status of women as employees and mothers. During the transition to neoliberal democracy, Polish governments not only ceased the control over the forms of employment but also have not included the needs and interests of women into their version vision of democracy by decreasing the state provisions⁵ for children, which used to be opened long hours and helped mothers working shifts, was reduced; resulting in the decreased women's employability of many women.

Women's power to make decisions regarding their fertility has been dramatically reduced by implementing one of the most restricted abortion laws in Europe (Ustawa o planowaniu rodziny; 1993) as well as by an introduction of the conscience clause in 1996 (Ministerstwo Zdrowia, 2017). The clause allows any medical professional to refuse the patient contraceptives, but also abortion, in cases where it is legal if it does not correspond with his or her Christian beliefs (Ministerstwo Zdrowia, 2017).

Moreover, the "family planning" education was made a subject of politics and propaganda rather than providing scientifically correct information (Brzozowska; 2011).

Decreasing the employability and power to make conscious reproductive decisions of women from disadvantaged backgrounds resulted in the lapse to the more traditional family roles in large part of the society. Leading to men being perceived as more employable and re-establishing their role as

⁵The number of state-owned nurseries, preschools and after school clubs

the primary breadwinners for their families and women resuming their roles of primary caregivers of children and elders (CBOS; 2005; Grabowska, 2018 p.51-53) (see sections 2.3 of Chapter 2).

After 1989, Poland also faced the problems common to all post-communist countries such as the unemployment of women, women trafficking, and increasing level of domestic violence (Grabowska, 2018 p.279-280).

This chapter describes the aspects of women's lives in contemporary Poland, as in author's belief, the problem of their perpetration of domestic violence towards the current and former partners needs to be put into a broader context to be better understood. Examination of the aspects and forces shaping women's lives, expectations, opportunities and empowerment should aid our understanding of the reasons women resolve to the use of force and/or coercive control tactics against their current and former partners.

2.1 Well-being and level of happiness in Poland

Poland, as a country still undergoing economic and social transition, is currently amongst the most developed countries in the world in judging by the Gross Domestic Product, purchasing power per capita (PPP) (World Bank, 2018; CIA, 2018; Index Mundi, 2015) and the Human Development Index⁶ (Summary Human Development Report, 2013). Income inequality is moderate and just slightly higher than the EU average with the Gini index of 3.11 (Kurowska 2011), and the literacy rate was estimated to be 100 per cent in 2008 (UNESCO, 2019).

Despite this, Poles are not a very happy nation. Findings of the World Happiness Report (2019) place Polish citizens on the 41st happiest place in the world, after the other post-communist countries

⁶ 0.83 for Poland. The UNDP calculates the index value between 0 (lowest) and 1 (highest) based on education attainment index (1/3 of HDI value, with the literacy rate in Poland of 99.6% [UNESCO, 2013]), life expectancy at birth (1/3 of HDI value -approx. 77years in 2011[World Bank, 2013]) and GDP income in US\$ measured in Purchasing Power Parity per capita (PPP) – currently \$20,900 for 2012 [Index Mundi, 2013]. HDI, used by the United Nations, provides evidence that allows concluding the country's development in terms of economic as well as social well-being.

such as the Czech Republic (on 21st place) and Slovakia (39th place) but higher than Lithuania (43rd place), Latvia (54th place), Belarus (82nd) and Ukraine (134th place in the world).

2.2 Constituents of transition

The transition to democracy that occurred after 1989 had three significant aspects: political, economic and societal.

Politically, democracy took the place of communism: more than one political party and free trade unions had been legalised, a citizen-voted constitution became the basis for the country's laws and regulations, freedom of speech and public meetings was guaranteed (Parysek, 2004 p.109-110).

Economically the transition led from a planned to a free-market economy, controlled by the supply and demand of services, that severely affected the heavy industry and several branches of production, state-owned businesses, many of which closed down. Privately-owned businesses emerged when this type of activity stopped being considered illegal by law (Parysek, 2004 p.109-110, Leven, 2008). Privatisation of state assets occurred on a large scale. Independent central banks, commercial banking systems and stock exchanges formed, and the taxation and legal systems have been restructured to support the market economy (Leven, 2008 p.123-136).

The economic transformation led to the rise of more considerable income disparities due to the market pricing of goods and services as well as reduction of government subsidiaries. Divergence of incomes was promoted by the increase of productivity in the private sector and better management in comparison with state-owned sectors such as education, health care, and central and local administration, which were still managed rather poorly and as such unable to create a profit on a commercial basis (Kolodko, 1999 p. 32-33)

The process of economic transition in Poland has been gendered, favouring employment of men and as such, increasing the economic inequalities between the sexes. This led to women experiencing more negative consequences of the free market economy paired with a decrease of the state protection of the forms of employment. Between the 1989 and 2005 the situation of most families, especially those headed by women worsened (Bystydziński, 2005 p. 241-242, 261)

In terms of **social transition**, the most apparent changes were: the increase of economic inequalities (from minimal in the communist state- as the citizens generally did not own very much to slightly higher than average for the EU); a dramatic drop of the birth rate (from 2.98 children per woman in 1960 to 1.30 children per woman in 2011 [Baza Statystyk Międzynarodowych, data from the World Bank, 2014] connected with changing models of reproduction and increased use of the birth control), increased employment opportunities in some areas (as some branches of heavy industry bankrupted and were replaced by a constant and steady growth of others⁷) and a dramatic drop in others combined with new types of forms of employment⁸ emerging that created a higher potential for development but also decreased job security, and were responsible for elevated levels of stress in connection with professional life. (Parysek, 2004, p.109-110; Grabowska, 2018)

Despite all the insecurities of living in Poland after 1989, the population poll in 2013 by Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej (CBOS) revealed that the majority of citizens in Poland (59 per cent) declared that political changes occurring after 1989 were a good idea overall. Still, the outcome of social reforms was seen as mixed but with more positive than negative changes by a large group (37

⁷ Modern electronics and computer games, machinery production (machinery for the production lines –e.g. in mining; civilian and military transport vehicles and their parts, trams, busses, train coaches); products of crude oil processing; mining, processing and recycling of copper and recycling of precious metals; home appliances, furniture; food production and processing; clothes and fabrics (Krajewski, 2013). These products supply the internal market as well as export to the various countries around the world

⁸ Permanent contracts of employment in many cases have been replaced by various form of temporary jobs including freelancing and specific-task contracts. The later is a common form of employment offered to the young people just entering the job market as well as women in child-bearing years (especially working for the small firms).

per cent) of respondents. Slightly more than a half of society declared that the political changes did not affect their family lives, and about a quarter (23 per cent), in their view, benefited from the changes (CBOS, 2013a).

In this socioeconomic and cultural climate, the context of family lives has changed in comparison with life before 1989. The state-controlled most of the main areas of life but also provided aid in others, like stable employment, affordable childcare for preschool and elementary school pupils, medical care free of charge with very low medication prices and state-regulated prices of staple food items. Between 1976 and 1989, many of essential goods for mothers and children like baby prams, clothes as well as many of the everyday food and personal hygiene items (e.g. meat, sweets and sugar, milk, powdered milk, butter, washing soap, car fuel, furniture, house appliances) were rationed. Because of the shortages, women spent hours if not days queuing to buy these and keep their families relatively looked after, especially when most of the items were not in constant supply (Bialy, 2004).

Despite the uncertain supply of many goods and some services, 37 per cent of respondents in the CBOS population poll believe that the transformation brought them more disadvantages than advantages. Many Poles remember the apparent equality, community spirit and job security of communist society they miss in the much more competitive and uncertain everyday life in the neoliberal democracy; and revalue the shortcomings of living under communist management (CBOS, 2013a).

2.3 Gender Equality: law and reality

In Poland, gender equality between men and women within marriage was firstly guaranteed by law in 1945, with The Marriage Act of 25th of September, which also introduced the secular form of marriage. With The Family Law Act, an equal right to the custody of children, in case of divorce and equal rights of children born in marriage and out of wedlock were established (Grabowska, 2018, p.193).

Male and female employees were guaranteed equal pay for equal work by the communist government postulating. In practice, however, the structure of education and employment was highly gendered, and even women who undertook the profession in the highly feminised occupations experienced a gender pay gap between of 30-35 per cent and lower chances of promotion and training in comparison with their male counterparts (Zawistowska, 2015)

The initial ideas about equalising the input into the domestic chores and upbringing of children, postulated by the fathers of communism like Engels (Grabowska, 2018, p. 66-68) were never applied in the Polish communism and replaced with the initiatives aimed at making the housework and upbringing of children by women less time and energy-consuming. These initiatives were as follows: paid maternity and unpaid child-rearing leaves with the guarantee of a return to resume the same job position, nurseries and preschools in the places of work and/or the neighbourhoods women lived to allow the free-of-charge childcare, child support money from the state for each child (although rather modest sums), children camping summer camps organised by the workplaces. The goal was promoting women to join the job market and maintain their input into the housework and child-rearing, creating so-called "double shift" of paid professional and unpaid housework. (Grabowska, 2018, p.74-77)

To summarise, women living in communist Poland experienced a significant degree of emancipation in education and professional life in comparison with the situation before WWII; however, very little equality in private life. This discrepancy is argued to have indicated the underlying sexism and the view of women's inferiority as contended by some of the Polish feminists in 1990s (Grabowska, 2018, p. 47).

One of the effects of political and economic transformation to neo-liberal democracy after 1989 was de-emancipation of women, especially living in smaller towns and villages, as some of the state-regulated protection disappeared. Women found fewer options for the childcare, as there was a substantial reduction of state-provided and subsidised nurseries, preschools and after school childcare centres. The increase of unemployment, mostly in the first years after the changes in the political system and the emergence of new forms of employment contracts offered more flexibility. Still, it reduced the protection of employee rights reduced job security. All these resulted in the return of the traditional family models, with the man as a primary breadwinner and woman involved in the unpaid housework and childcare (Grabowska, 2018 p.51-53)

Part of the process of joining the European Union in 2004 was a continuous attempt to guarantee gender equality in all aspects of work, life and the law that have been and are being made: some by consecutive governments (the shape, and understanding of which much dependent on the governments' dominant political options), others by NGOs, or activists.

This part of the chapter examines the legal framework relevant to gender equality and assesses how far these mechanisms have been successful in bringing equality about.

Article 32 of the Constitution of The Republic of Poland from 1997 guarantees the equality of all persons before the law, with the right to equal treatment by public authorities.

Article 33 specifies that men and women have equal rights in 'family, political, social and economic life'. With a specification that the rights for men and women are equal particularly 'regarding education, employment and promotion and 'shall have the right to equal compensation for work of similar value, to social security, to hold offices, and to receive public honours and decorations' (The Constitution of Republic of Poland, 1997, Article 33).

The Constitution is the regulation that is currently at work. All other regulations (The Family and Custody Code, Criminal Procedure Code, Penal Code, Petty Offences Procedure Code, Violations Code, Labour Code, Domestic Violence Countermeasures Act, EU regulations regarding the equal treatment implementation Act, Mental Health Protection Act, Tenant Right Protection Act, Child Support Act and Benefit Rights Act) are based on the fundamental right for equal treatment and opportunities guaranteed by the Constitution (Fundacja na Rzecz Równosci, 2013). The need for additional regulations is a subject of a fierce dispute between the policymakers, different groups of feminists, politicians and the public (Rzeczpospolita, 2013).

The matter of gender equality, one of the key factors shaping the lives of women in Poland, is seen as important enough to make it a subject of the general population polls. In 2013, several questions regarding the public views on the statutory equal rights provided by the Constitution, along with the perception of the reality of equal treatment of men and women in Poland were asked. Women's statutory equal rights, as per government regulation, had almost same approval as disapproval in society (34 to 36 per cent) and this had not changed much since the year 2002 (CBOS, 2013b). Although almost 100 per cent of Poles supports the equal rights of men and women (97 per cent in politics, 96 per cent in the family life, and 96 per cent in professional life), views on the need for additional legislation regarding the equal rights depend on the sex of respondent (CBOS, 2013b) (see Chapter 2 section 2.3).

A higher number of women felt that –in their opinion- the current regulation did not provide them equal enough treatment in their family life (31 per cent in comparison with 19 per cent of men). Still, an even higher percentage of women were unhappy about the regulations regarding the public (46 per cent of women and 34 per cent of men) and professional life (44 and 32 per cent). In general, 66 per cent of Poles were happy with the regulations regarding equal treatment in the family life, 51 per cent in the regulations about the public sphere and 52 per cent about professional life (CBOS, 2013b).

The lack of consensus regarding views on gender equality in Poland by the general public was consistent with the lack of consensus whether the women in Poland experience discrimination. The same population poll (CBOS, 2013b) revealed that almost the same percentage of respondents thought that discrimination based on gender does not exist in Poland (44 and 46 per cent), and the view on the matter didn't change significantly between 2002 and 2013. However, a higher percentage of female respondents felt that discrimination against women takes place in Poland (52 per cent in comparison with 35 per cent of men), and the rate was similar between 2006 and 2013. The frequency of discrimination witnessed by the respondents towards men and women varied as only 4 per cent reported it to have often been occurring women (in comparison with 2 per cent of discrimination towards men). In contrast, and 22 per cent witnessed it rarely happening (in contrast with 15 per cent witnessing rare discrimination of men).

When occurring, in more than 75 per cent of cases discrimination of women was related to their professional life: lower payment for the same job, smaller chances of promotion in the company and gender, rather than the competences of the candidate, being a decisive factor when appointing for a job position. More women than men also experienced or witnessed discrimination of women in relation to their reproductive function: ignoring job applications by young women in the prime of their

child-bearing years, reducing the salaries of young mothers because of their lower flexibility in terms of working long hours or making female employees sign a declaration that they would not get pregnant during a particular time when appointed for a job.

Despite all this, the majority of respondents agreed with the statement that men and women lead similar lives and experienced identical treatment (46 per cent). Those who saw the differences thought that men experience a higher quality of life and better treatment (40 per cent). Only 4 per cent of respondents believed that the overall quality of life in Poland is better for women.

In the commentary for this poll, the author speculated that the power of media as opinion-makers is very substantial in Poland as the majority of respondents have not witnessed nor experienced discrimination themselves, but when asked about the examples stated they 'heard or read of it'. Also, the overall views about the situation of women in Poland seemed to be based on news reports that overrepresented cases of discrimination rather than personal experience (CBOS, 2013b).

The social determinants such as gender inequality and socioeconomic status have been found to increase a chance to experience the Intimate Partner Violence by women in India (Ackerson and Subramanian, 2008). Therefore, the experienced or perceived discrimination based on the gender in the family and workplace might be one of the constituents for the choice of the IPV as a conflict resolution tactic in the heterosexual couples in Poland.

2.3.1 Women, parities and politics

Under the communism, there was some form of parities in politics and workplaces determined by the Communist Party and often encouraged by Women's League to take place on different levels, including the workplaces (Grabowska, 2018, p.155-161).

GDP feminisation index.

In 2013, *Gazeta Prawna*, one of the leading Polish newspapers, developed a GDP feminisation index that shows the percentage of women in executive and leadership job positions: country leaders and government members (presidents, monarchs, vice presidents, prime ministers, parliament leaders and the leaders of central banks), parliament members, local governments' leaders, managers of big companies. The higher the index, the more positions of power women occupy. And so, Poland is in the 6th position amongst all countries in the EU; having a higher index than Finland, Austria, Belgium or France. Women occupy a higher percentage of leading job positions in the places where the government has less influence, e.g. 39 per cent of managers in companies are women. Also, 38 per cent of leaders of voivodships (provinces/states) in Poland were female (6 of 16) in 2013; which placed Poland in 3rd place after Sweden and Denmark for female political leadership. In the Polish government, there were 4 (21 per cent) female ministers, which is far below the average, in the 18th place in the EU. Even so, Poland has had a female leader of the Polish parliament (Ewa Kopacz was a marshal of the Sejm, the lower chamber of the Polish Parliament, between 2010 and 2014) (Potocki, 2013).

Information regarding the percentage of women working for the Polish Stock Exchange and being members of its board of directors, however, supports the findings of the GDP feminisation index. The Polish Stock Exchange, with 50 per cent of female employees and 2 (50 per cent) women in its board of directors in 2009, had the highest per cent of women employees of 13 Stock Exchanges in European countries taken in consideration (Adamska et al., 2009).

Despite the encouraging statistics showing a number of women in positions of power rising since the 1990s, Poland experiences the feminisation of poverty with more women than men were receiving social benefits, a higher rate of single mothers than single fathers falling below the poverty line, and

greater extent of poverty in female-lead households. Women who receive the government financial aid because they are younger, better educated, more often non-manual workers and more often employed than men on benefits (Bystydzienski, 2005). On average, women spend in the paid employment lower number of years than men. They tend to work a lower number of hours when employed because of their reproduction and childcare arrangements (Desperak and Rek-Woźniak, 2009) and households headed by women were found to have received less social assistance than households headed by men (Bystydzienski, 2005).

The low status and long hours of domestic work undertaken mostly by women (Titkow and Duch-Krzystoszek 2009) effect in more difficulties faced by women from low and middle-income families, who cannot afford paid help to assist them.

This situation occurs, especially in rural areas, as many women cannot enter the job market because of the lack of local and affordable childcare and their responsibility for providing care to family members. Additional problems mentioned were the lack of employment women are qualified for in some urban and many rural areas as well as their low earnings when on the job market (Sawicka, 2009, Charkiewicz, 2010)⁹Characteristic to the time of transition, there is a newly identified group of young and educated women, such as graduates to 34 years of age, experiencing poverty or endangered by it. Many of these are young professionals such as nurses and teachers, who pointed to their decreasing earnings and job security combined with the increased amount of work duties or demands by their employers (Charkiewicz, 2010).

This data strongly suggests that the gender feminisation index applies to the privileged women with higher education, as this group have benefitted from the opportunities offered by the neoliberal

⁹. All the evidence would be consistent with the increase of the Gini index for Poland, as the members of both sexes experienced the growing stratification of Polish society. Thus, the number of very successful women and women living below the poverty line increased in the last 25 years.

democracy. The degree to which a woman can benefit from these opportunities varies depending on the place she lives, the education she has received, and to at least some extent, her marital status.

Parities

There is no consensus regarding the attempts to promote women's involvement in politics. The Quotas Act signed by Bronislaw Komorowski, at the time President of Poland on 05.01.2011, guaranteed 35 per cent of female and 35 per cent of male candidates on the lists of candidates submitted by political parties when competing for representation in the different levels of local governments as well as in both chambers of Polish Parliament. The project of 50 per cent parity on the list of candidates, however, has been rejected (Stowarzyszenie Kongres Kobiet, 2013). There is also no obligation to "zip" the male and female candidates on the lists of candidates. The effect of it is that many female candidates, who were active during the political campaigns, were pushed into lower positions on the party candidates lists and the majority of them have not entered the parliament as representatives of their parties. This is queried by feminists associated in the Congress of Women, who opt for equal quotas on each level of government and the boards of companies belonging to the State Treasury (Stowarzyszenie Kongres Kobiet, 2013).

Mixed response to the idea of gender parity in politics and other aspects of the economy and science is expressed by right-wing, conservative politicians as well as some successful and influential women such as from the Gdanska Fundacja Szkolenia Managerow (GFSM, Gdansk Foundation for Management Development). They argue that parity would be a form of discrimination based on the gender and there is a danger that women will be promoted to fulfil the quotas rather than because of their competences (Blaszczyk, 2019, Ciesla 2009). In critics' views, there is also a danger of parity damaging the public image of women who earned their place by being the best specialists in their areas of expertise rather than being female specialists (Ciesla, 2009).

The introduction of parities in politics resulted in 24 per cent of women in the Polish parliament in 2014, in comparison with 40 per cent in Norway, known for having a large percentage of women in the governing bodies. Additionally, 16 per cent of women participated in the Polish government, in comparison with 50 per cent in Norway, and 20 per cent were hired by the Central Bank of Poland, in contrast with 33 per cent of women in the Central Bank of Norway (Tomczak, 2016). Additionally, the share of women between 20 and 60 years of age among leaders in 2012 raised to 35 per cent (and experienced a 0.5 per cent increase since from 2011) (Tomczak, 2016).

2.3.2 Aspirations, education and the job market

Aspirations

According to census data from 2007, women make up approximately 52 per cent of Polish society (GUS, 2007). Their aspirations are similar to those reported by men, although they value highest their own and family's health (19 per cent of respondents putting it in the first place when answering the open question). The second place was financial stability (17 per cent) and education (14 per cent), then a good profession and property ownership (both: 13 per cent) and providing quality education to one's children along with being able to assist them in the future (11 per cent each). In comparison, Polish men placed financial stability in the first place (25 per cent of respondents), followed by property ownership (15 per cent). Next came having a good profession and health of oneself and the family's (15 per cent each), education attainment and starting a family (11 per cent each) and family happiness (10 per cent) (GUS, 2007).

Even though these results suggest more traditional outlook with the men valuing their ability to provide for the families put in the first place, Poles reported precisely the very similar educational aspirations for their sons and daughters, with 94 per cent of respondents wanting their daughters to

achieve higher education in comparison to 97 per cent wanting higher education for their sons (CBOS, 2009a)

Education

The majority of Poles value education. Approximately 70 per cent are confident that getting a good education is worth the effort, while an additional 23 per cent is almost sure of it, which is an ongoing trend. People are attracted to attain higher education by the hope of higher earnings, an interesting occupation, more comfortable life, self-reliance and intellectual development. The minority of respondents hoped to escape unemployment, have an "easy job", high prestige, being able to fund their businesses, work abroad or take part in the governing or attaining position of power. In 2009, slightly over half of the respondents were not satisfied with their educational attainment and would have preferred a higher (than current) level of education (51 per cent). Still, over one third (34 per cent) of respondents were happy with the profile of their education. The majority would like their children to attain higher education (94 per cent for daughters and 97 per cent for sons in 2009). None of the respondents would feel satisfied if his/her children finished their education on the primary or middle school level (CBOS, 2009a).

Between 1988 and 2007, the number of university graduates increased by over 16 per cent total; from 1.8 million to 5.5 million. Women made use of this opportunity in the degree than men. Their number was rising, from 5.9 per cent in 1988 to 18.7 per cent in 2007, making it a higher increase than for men (7.9 to 14.0 per cent) (CBOS, 2009a).

Women making 54 per cent of people with higher education in 2002 (59 per cent in the EU) proved they desire education and the options it offers at least as much as men do. Between 1995 and 2006, the number of doctoral students increased from 3995 to 16 131, which was over four times. In 2006

approximately 50 per cent of doctoral students were women, proving there were no gender differences in a desire to gain additional knowledge and enter academia. This number was even higher in the arts, medical schools and physical education - over 60 per cent, while in the sciences - 40 per cent or more. In 2005, 27 per cent of university professors were women; however, only less than 3 per cent of them were the members of the Polish Academy of Sciences. Even if 43 per cent of women were employed in research and development, 20 per cent hired there were professors (same as in the EU on average), 29 per cent were doctors habilitated (37 per cent in European Union), and 42 per cent had a doctoral degree (46 per cent in the EU). The number of women is growing as it is in other European countries (Du Vall and Majorek, M. 2016).

Sex education

With all the encouraging statistics on women's education achievements, there are certain aspects of Polish education that affect women's ability to make informed decisions regarding their bodies and their future, and as such lower their empowerment. A prime example and a most pressing problem is the lack of informative sex education in Poland, delivered by staff qualified for teaching the subject, and without an underlying political or religious agenda (Ponton, 2009, 2014 and 2016).

Sex education is much politicised in Poland, and the contents of the curriculum depend on the political party prevalent in the government. The subject called "Preparation for Family Life" should, in theory, provide similar content to PSHE in the UK education system, and is still deemed by the government as adequate (Newsweek, 2019). However, the contents and way of delivery are questioned by independent, viewpoint-neutral educators, along with a large percentage of students. The report "Jak naprawdę wygląda edukacja seksualna w Polsce?" ("What does sex education in Poland really look like?"), based on the anonymous and voluntary responses of 673 Polish students in 2009, showed the scale of the problem. Forty per cent of respondents (252) reported that their sex

education lessons have never taken place despite the school's legal obligation to fulfil the curriculum requirements (Ponton, 2009).

Students who had the lessons delivered were most often concerned with the contents and quality of them as well as the value of the information provided (several students found that the information presented in lessons was not correct), and often delivered in a propaganda-like manner. Students felt they were often discouraged from asking questions regarding methods of contraception, sexuality and gender, informed consent and sexual harassment, pre-marital and non-procreation or non-heterosexual sex. Several teachers, allocated by the school to teach the subjects, were unqualified, associated with the Catholic Church, and/or promoting ultra-conservative viewpoints. They attempted to impose on their students¹⁰ (Ponton, 2009). The follow-up poll, run on a larger group of respondents of 11-30 years of age (3363) in 2014. A report on how the curriculum delivered in 2016 and based on qualitative interviews, shows that although the lessons took place in a higher percentage of cases (88 per cent in elementary schools, 94 per cent in middle schools and 62 per cent of high schools and only 14 per cent of schools did not run the program at all), the quality of lessons still varied dramatically. In many cases, students couldn't see the relevance between the contents of lessons and real-life (Ponton, 2014 and 2016).

Implications of the studies are that even though the government is obliged to provide young people with up-to-date sex education, it in many, if not most, cases fails to do so. The issue is still mainly

¹⁰ The most prevalent specialism of teachers running "Preparation for Family Life", (24 per cent), were teachers of Catholic Religion and Morals (an equivalent to Religious Studies in the Polish curriculum). Fourteen per cent of lessons were delivered by the biology teachers, 13 per cent by the school councillors; approximately 10 per cent by history teachers and 8 per cent by Polish Language teachers. The specialism of the rest of the educators varied greatly (Ponton, 2009).

treated as a “private matter of the family”, which decreases the empowerment of many young women unable to make conscious reproductive decisions and impairs their options for development.

Job market

During socialism, women in Poland were strongly encouraged to enter the job market (Grabowska, 2018). The declared gender equality was never achieved, and women not allowed in many occupations deemed to be a too potential danger to their current or future reproduction. However, the government made several provisions to aid their coping with professional and household workload instead. The paid maternity and extended unpaid post-maternity leave with the assurance of re-employment after these were completed, the free of charge nurseries and preschools, many of which run by the large employers, afterschool care provided by the state schools and subsidised holiday camps for the employees' children. All these enabled women to cope with the "double shift" of delivering most of the child care and professional work narrowing the gender gap in educational and occupational attainment (Grabowska, 2018)

After 1989 (Sin-Kwok Wong, 2002) more women than men have been affected by the changes of the job market and found mostly in the lower-paid sectors of the economy, and as such occupying the least advantageous job positions (Bystydzienski, 2005 p.241-243). During the economic transition, women faced higher risk on unemployment, including long-term unemployment and more difficulty in finding jobs, since between 1990 to early 2002 over 35 per cent of women with higher education had been unemployed (in comparison with over 17 per cent of men), with the number of people on unemployment benefits in 1990-1998 increased 20 times. Between 1990 and 1998, women's unemployment benefits were on average 36 per cent per their last salaries, and the sum decreased to and 23 per cent in 1999. Also, having higher education has not protected Polish women of the time from job loss and unemployment (Bystydzienski, 2005 p. 242-244).

Due to the changes in the job market and the current rise women's employment, measured by the Women in Work Index, placed Poland on the 8th place among the 32 countries. It meant an increase from the 9th position between 2016 and 2011¹¹), which made Poland the second most improving country between the years 2000 and 2017, moving from 19th to 8th position in the ranking (PwC, 2019).

Polish Central Statistical Office reported that the percentage of women in employment had been continuously rising since the 1950s, to reach 48 per cent of all women, in 2017. The percentage of women in employment was, however, 17 per cent lower than the rate of employed men. The percentage difference of jobs between the sexes was smallest among the group of people with higher education and the highest for people with secondary education, meaning that almost 45 per cent of all women in employment had university degrees (in comparison with less than 10 per cent of women with secondary education (GUS, 2018e).

Current government data shows that 1/3 of women are employed in the public sector, along with 1/6 of men in 2017 (GUS, 2018e). Even though the majority of women work in the private sector (approximately 67 per cent of all women on the job market in 2017, their numbers being still 16 per cent lower than male employees), they still dominate the public sector of employment. In 2012, women were approximately 71 per cent of employees on the public sector and 37 per cent of employees in the private sector, and their average gross income was 313 100 PLN - 34 per cent lower than the average gross income for men (470 500 PLN) (GUS, 2018e; Tomczak, 2016). Additionally, less than 10 per cent of women in employment in 2017 were business owners (in

¹¹ The rank of the UK rose from 14th to 13th place

comparison with approximately 17 per cent of men), and approximately 11 per cent of all female employees in Poland worked part-time (in contrast with over 4 per cent of men).

Women made up 40 per cent of public authorities, higher office workers and managers and a lower percentage of women, in comparison with men, were subjected to dangerous work conditions (53 per cent and 58 per cent respectively). Regarding the type of danger, 36 per cent in comparison with 23 per cent of men were subjected to arduous working conditions. Women showed more agility to work, as there was a higher percentage of unemployed women than men who found employment between 2011 and 2017 (unemployment rate showing a 60 per cent decrease for women and 52 per cent decrease for men). Closer analysis shows there were more unemployed women than men in only two age groups: 25-29 years of age and 55 and over in 2017). Family duties and providing care was also the second most common (after retirement) reason for women not entering paid employment. In contrast, for men the reasons for withholding themselves from the job market was education (GUS, 2018e).

There are a growing number of women in high-status professions (who earn high salaries), and some high-rank job positions in Poland are highly feminised. Between 1998 and 2002 in Poland, 50 per cent of judges working in the District (Rejonowe) Courts were female, 30 per cent of judges in the Appeal Courts and 27 per cent in the Regional (Okregowe) Courts were women (Chelstowska, 2009). These numbers steadily grew to 65 per cent in District Courts, 61 per cent in Regional Courts and 58 per cent in the Appeal Courts in 2012 (Tumidalski, 2013). The phenomenon of a high percentage of women in the judicial system could be explained in two different ways. In the places where there are more opportunities for higher income in the law related occupations, there are more females because the judges still earn less than some lawyers hired by private companies or

corporations. This situation makes working for the government less appealing for men and results in less competition for the jobs in the courts.

Additionally, the workload of the judge is less significant and the hours more steady than that of a company lawyer so is preferred by females as it helps to maintain their work-life balance. The higher the rank of the court, the more male judges work there. One of the explanations is that in the higher rank courts, there is less work and more income. Thus the job is more desirable, and more males are willing to perform it. The same is true for most types of state employment (e.g. teachers, medical doctors, office workers (Tumidalski, 2013).

Contemporary women in Poland at large still undertake a traditional role of caregivers for the family members, and as such spend a significant amount of time doing unpaid and time-consuming work, for their families. Approximately 60 per cent of Poles, over 77 per cent with higher education, supported the equal division of childcare and house labour between man and wife. This shows a high approval of the egalitarian relationships, where both partners share the childcare and household duties. However, most women in Poland are the primary caregivers to children and do the vast majority of the housework, which creates the potential for marital discord among couples with better-educated women (Titkow and Duch-Krzysztozek, 2009). Taking time off the job market to attend to the needs of children lowers the women's average pension to 30 per cent less than the average pension of a man, meaning that a large percentage of female retirees fall below the poverty line (Blicharz, 2014).

Gender pay (wage) gap

"Equal pay for equal work" was guaranteed by Constitution of Polish People's Republic of 1952. It made "one of the standard postulates of the Communist Party of Poland at the time when women were strongly encouraged to enter the job market (Grabowska, 2018, p.78-79). Despite the

declarations, women in the Polish People's Republic earned approximately 30-35 per cent less than men in the same job positions (Zawistowska, 2015)

Moreover, the social expectations of women to be the main care provider to the children and elder of the family created a phenomenon called "double shift", with a large number of unpaid work as an addition to the paid employment, rarely shared with their male partners. The social expectations of women's roles in relationships are still very traditional and likely to take years to change. In contemporary Poland, in the burden of unpaid house chores and care for children and family is still in most cases, not shared equally between the partners (Titkow and Duch-Krzysztozek, 2009). The socialist government made provisions to ease the burden by introducing a statutory paid maternity and optional, unpaid extended post-maternity leaves (Grabowska, 2018, p.78-79; Bystydziński, 2005 p.241-42). Nurseries and preschools, some with extended hours or even looking after children for seven days per week if the mother worked unusual or extended hours (p.160-161), some near the places women lived, others by the workplaces eased helped (p.163-164).

Gendered structure of employment, with a lower number of women receiving the education allowing them to perform technical or industrial jobs, many of which better paid, was paired with the preference to hire men. Men tend to be offered them more on-the-job training and promotions to (even if they were initially less educated) by the employers in not only traditionally "male occupations", but also the sectors are hiring more women than men (Zawistowska, 2015).

Gendered occupational structure persisted in 1989-early 2000s, not significantly changed during the transition to a free-market economy (Bystydziński, 2005). Most women worked in the lower-paid professions: feminised branches of the economy including healthcare, social welfare, hospitality, teaching at the primary and secondary level, while men are more involved in the industry, construction, agriculture, forestry and transportation (Bystydziński, 2005). In the public and private

sector, women were clustered in the lower and middle-level occupations; only 18 per cent were self-employed (and the majority in the firms hiring up to 5 employees. Thus, on average (taking into consideration the remuneration in the 1990s): women still earned around 70 per cent of average income in comparison to men's average wages (Bystydzienski 2005).

Currently, Poland is in 42nd place in the world regarding the size of its Gender Pay Gap, with a score of 0.728. The areas where the country scored low are: politics and economy, while education and health are at a very high level, which places Poland above the world's average but behind the countries like the UK (in the 15th place) and Lithuania (24th place) but ahead of Ukraine, the Czech Republic and Slovakia (in the 65th, 82nd and 83rd places respectively) (World Economic Forum, 2018).

According to Eurostat Statistics from 2017, the Gender Pay Gap, in Poland, which is the difference between the average wages per hour, was 7.2 per cent (Eurostat, 2018). It has increased from 2010 by 1.8 per cent as in 2010 women were earning on average 5.4 per cent less than men (European Commission, 2013), which was the second smallest gender pay gap in Europe¹². In comparison, the average gender pay gap for the UK was 19.5 per cent at the time.

Although the average pay gap in the European Union was 16.2 per cent for the year 2016, and Poland looked good in comparison, a closer look showing a specific gender pay gap for different sectors or different professions is not so encouraging and varies greatly. According to Dr Magda from the Warsaw School of Economics, whose analysis took into consideration variables, such as age, education, length of work experience, type of company and similarity in the job descriptions, the

¹² After Slovenia with 0.9 per cent.

wage gap rises to 15, 20 or even 25 per cent depending on the type of occupation (Krzykowski, 2019)¹³.

Gender Equality index

The Gender Equality Index 2017, a tool used to measure how close the EU Member States are to achieve true gender equality, and calculated based on data from 2015, and shows a change in comparison with ten years prior. Poland's score of 56.8 out of 100, puts the country in 18th position and below the EU average. The only aspect showing relative gender balance is health. The element of knowledge indicates that Polish women are more educated than men, and the gap has widened since 2005 (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2017). However, they still hold much less power (which is the lowest score for Polish women in the gender Gap, despite the increase in representation in decision-making positions in the economy and politics; possibly due to regression in the aspect of social power) and earn less than men. The subsection of the category: work, measuring work segregation and quality, places the country among the lowest in the whole EU. The amount of free time in comparison with men also regressed, because women doing the vast majority of caring, educating, and various types of housework, at the expense of social activities (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2017).

Implications of the gender wage gap to the research topic can be significant. Large wage gap creates lower empowerment of many women. Which in turn, maybe a reason for staying in an unhappy or abusive relationship. Facing a life of the single woman or single mother might be

¹³. The group with the highest difference in pay between men and women in 2017 were people working as public authorities, more senior rank office workers and managers, where women earned 26 per cent less on average (GUS, 2018e).

considered by many a higher risk than exerting force over the partner in an attempt to increase his economic contribution to the needs of the family.

2.4 Religion, morals and the Catholic Church

Catholic Church in Poland promotes the traditional gender roles during the time of communisms and after 1989 (Bystydzienski, 2005 p. 247). Under the communism, it had no political power. Its actions were, to a varying degree, counteracted by the government, which created the situation where many of church hierarchs were preaching against women empowerment on the grounds of the idea being a communist invention and as such harmful to the maintaining of "traditional family values" on principle (Grabowska, 2018).

The abortion debate in 1988-1997 resulted in the Catholic Church becoming a leader and the most influencing body in the views on gender equality. It has been achieved by linking it with the communist regime and condemning as artificial and not truly Polish, therefore not to be applied, which allows concluding that the Polish Catholic Church is antifeminist. (Grabowska, 2018, p.88-92)

Relationship between the state and the Catholic Church affected all Polish citizens. Concordat of 1993 guarantees the autonomy from the state and prevents the religious discrimination of the Catholics. The state, on its part, guarantees to respect human rights and dignity and gives the Church legal personality, freedom of religion and religious service (Dziennik Ustaw, 1998).

Important for women are four major articles of this document: article 10 giving religious marriage the same value and consequences as the civil union; section 11, where the Church and the State declared defending and respecting the institution of marriage and family, stressing the value of these and subscribing to Catholic views of the insolubility of marriage; article 12, on the basis of which the lessons of Catholic religion and morals have been introduced to the public school system while the shape of the curriculum, contents of course books and certification of teachers of the subject was

agreed to depended solely on the Church (but it's the state and taxpayers responsible for the salaries of teachers of this subject); and article 14, giving the Catholic Church the right to found and maintain its own education establishments, on every level of education (with the Catholic University of Lublin and Pontifical Academy in Warsaw having their funding by the government secured) (Dziennik Ustaw, 1998).

In practice, the Catholic Church is significantly involved in politics, education and the issue of women rights in Poland. It offers political or monetary support for right-wing politicians, NGO's and other organisations (such as *Ordo Iuris*, an organisation of young conservative lawyers, responsible for writing the project law of a complete abortion ban), in exchange for pursuing their traditional views on gender roles, marriages, families, education and women's empowerment, especially aspects related to their reproductive rights. Polish Church is seen as anti-progressive or ultra-conservative, with attempts to introduce a complete abortion ban (even in cases where the pregnancy is a result of a criminal act, the foetus is damaged or continuing the pregnancy endangers the health and/or life of the mother). It is involved in the public shaming of women who pursue their statutory rights to abortion (Szelegieniec, 2018; Janicki and Wladyka, 2009) such as Mrs Tysiac, whose health was ruined by the pregnancy she wasn't allowed to terminate. Years later, she later won a lawsuit against denying her abortion for medical reasons in the Human Rights Court. Because of this, Mrs Tysiac was regularly slandered in some of the church-controlled media. Many prominent priests of the Polish Catholic Church, are also known for public condemnation for women who choose to pursue a career and demand affordable and accessible childcare, demand reliable and scientifically correct sex education and access to contraceptives (Szelegieniec, 2018; Janicki and Wladyka, 2009).

In theory, the Catholic Church in Poland does not support family violence as it is recognised to be against Christian values. However, it is also of the opinion that marriage vows are unbreakable. The

marriages can be annulled, and many of them have been on the grounds of domestic violence. In practice, many priests see family abuse as "a cross to bear" for a woman and her children, believing that the sanctity of marriage and raising a family with two parents have higher priority than the separation of the abusers from their victims (Centrum Praw Kobiet, 2020). Catholic priests are more likely to support the victims of domestic violence by redirecting them to the parish help centres, psychologists or social aid to work on solving the family issues quietly and without involving the justice system. The priests interviewed by one of the leading catholic magazines "Gosc.PI" recognise domestic violence as not acceptable and make it the topic of their sermons, warning their parishioners against its perpetration (Puscikowska, 2017).

The right-wing politicians connected with the Catholic Church such as the current vice-minister of Justice, Marcin Romanowski, consider the Christian family values threatened by the current legislation against domestic violence enacted by the EU, and announced that Poland would renounce the Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence. The Convention, accepted in 2015, is under attack because it states that no harmful gender stereotypes, traditions or honour could be the reasons for the commonly occurring injustice to the violence against women and girls (TVP info, 2020).

A nationally representative population poll from 2012 conducted by CBOS revealed that 57 per cent of Poles would have supported a proposal for withholding state funding of the Church in favour of the additional 0.3 per cent taxation of Catholics (12 per cent of respondents had no view in the matter) (CBOS, 2012a). Another poll from 2018, revealed that 49 per cent of Poles thinks that the situation within the Polish Catholic Church is "bad" or "very bad" (While 40 per cent sees it as "good" or "very good" (CBOS, 2018).

2.5 Health, reproduction and family matters

2.5.1 Reproductive health

Under the communism “Women’s League”, the first country-wide organisation that supported women’s rights to education, and participation in the economy and politics of the country in Poland officially opened in 1913 (Liga Kobiet Polskich, 2020), advised on reproductive health as well as how to deal with the IPV victimisation of women and domestic violence against children. Since the 1950s, the League also offered advice on the quality of sex life and contraception, often asking health professionals to give guest lectures on the topics. During the times of rationing, local branches of the League helped in getting the products which were in very short supply, e.g. sweets for children or new bed sheets. In the 1980s, the League also helped women establishing additional sources of income to support family budgets by, for example, selling traditional hand-made embroidery (Grabowska, 2018 p.145-15)).

The Catholic Church in Poland has always been against any form of contraception; its views based on the *Humanae Vitae Encyclical* published by Pope Paul IV in 1968. According to the church hierarchs, any kind of family planning which is not sexual abstinence is not permitted and morally wrong, as well as any form of sex outside marriage between a man and a woman (Gosc.PI, 2012).

The efforts to provide Polish women with the access to reliable contraception after 1989 were hampered by the involvement of the Catholic Church and its influence on a number of the right-wing politicians; exerting pressure on the medical professionals to make the access to the hormonal and emergency contraception restricted. Introduction of the "conscience clause" in 2009 allowed the medical professionals and pharmacists to refuse to prescribe and/or selling the contraceptives or to perform abortions if it was against their “moral views” in the situation where the life of patients was considered to be not threatened. According to the conscientious clause and Polish law, if medical

professionals refuse to perform medical practices based on their conscience, they are obliged by law to redirect the patient to another health provider who can perform it (Radowski, 2017). In practice, the conscience clause is used almost exclusively to interfere with the reproductive health of women and is, by some lawyers argued to be in contradiction to the constitutional rights guaranteeing equal access to the national healthcare to all citizens; and considered a violation of the rights of the patients (Rzecznik Praw Obywatelskich, 2019).

Implementation of "the conscience clause" is responsible for the current situation of women in Poland. According to The Contraception Atlas 2019, funded by the European Parliament Forum For Sexual & Reproductive Rights, Polish women have the worst access to contraception in Europe. Less than 50 per cent of women in of reproductive age (15-49) uses contraceptives (Contraceptioninfo.eu, 2019)¹⁴. Moreover, encouraged by the conscientious clause, many Polish physicians and gynaecologists refuse their patients contraceptives on principal (arguably supported to by on art. 39 of the Medical Profession Act). Citing the clause, much medical personnel only refuses to sell contraceptives but also denies abortions and refuses the prenatal scanning. The reason being that in case of a foetus found suffering from the severe and/or irreparable damage, results of the scan can be used to enforce the legally guaranteed termination of pregnancy by the mother (Karwowska, 2019). Overusing the conscience clause to interfere with the legally guaranteed rights of women to access the reproductive healthcare resulted in several cases brought to the European Court of Human Rights.

¹⁴. The atlas, developed by taking into consideration several factors, including the price of contraceptives, access to it (especially hormonal contraception and a "day-after" pill), and information about contraception published by the government, shows that the country is regressing due to the politics of the current conservative Polish government. There is no publicly funded contraception in Poland, apart from the IUD (the right to which is, in many cases, denied by gynaecologists who refuse to administer it). Hormonal contraception is by prescription only, so is the "day-after" pill. The current Minister of Health (a physician by profession), spreading scientifically incorrect information, links the use of contraception by women (especially "day-after" pill) with female promiscuity, ignoring the statistics to the contrary and opinions by the world's experts (Karwowska, 2019).

Following the last relevant verdict in the European Court for Human Rights, the Polish Ministry of Health published a new interpretation, stating that “the conscience clause doesn’t apply to the cases of prenatal scanning of the foetus. Therefore, the physician who refuses to recommend or to perform prenatal scanning cannot do so claiming the conscience clause. (...) A physician cannot refuse prenatal scanning or written recommendation for scanning in cases where the foetus may be damaged, even if there is a suspicion that the woman is likely to exert her right to abortion based on the results of the scan” (Ministry of Health, 2017).

Additionally, the situation of pregnant women in Poland has improved as the result of a long battle with attempts to discontinue the Childbirth Care Standards. These have been finally re-approved by the government in 2018, giving the mother and child the right to world-quality care during pregnancy, and regulate the behaviour of medical staff before, during and after labour (Dziennik Ustaw, 2018, Childbirth with Dignity Foundation, 2018).

The implementation of the conscience clause and wrongful treatment of women during the pregnancy and childbirth results in the violation of women's reproductive rights. It has negative consequences on their physical and psychological health as well as their empowerment, which, in turn, affects their chances to attain a desired level of education and lowers their employability. Finally, lower empowerment, with the inability to support the family as a single parent, affects women's choice whether to leave the unhappy or abusive relationship. It also might be one of the reasons why women choose to use force against their intimate partners to exert the higher level of financial support rather than leave them.

2.5.2 Abortion

The Law

With the lack of quality sex education and the restricted access to contraceptives, including the day-after pill, women in contemporary Poland also are subjected to one of the most strict abortion laws in Europe.

Under the communism, the abortion was legal since 1956 when the authorities saw it as a lesser evil than illegal termination of pregnancy, done usually in the unsanitary conditions and often by the people with no medical training, which resulted in the deaths or ill health of a number of women (Kościana, 2018, p. 80-88). The socialist government acknowledged access to reliable contraception and knowledge on how to use it. It allowed abortion due to economic reasons, leaving women a choice whether to give or not to give birth to a child -a progressive view and in the 1950s - 1970s gave Polish women more reproductive rights than their counterparts in the western countries had at the time. It was also proven that having a legal abortion as an option increased women's self-esteem and satisfaction in private and sexual life (Grabowska, 2018 p.88, Klich-Kulczewska, 2015 p.245-247).

The abortion law was changed after 1989, because of the lobbying of the Catholic Church insisting on "pro-life"/Christian family values and support provided by the right-wing politicians. The current law is based on The Abortion Act of 1993 (Kancelaria Sejmu, 1993). Until then, abortion law was liberal, and the majority of societal views were also liberal and permissive, treating abortion as a private matter for a woman (CBOS, 2013c). The aggressive campaign by the Catholic Church influenced the views of many Poles towards the acceptance of the restrictive abortion law. It was deemed as appropriate by the 49 per cent of respondents in the population poll in 2012. At the

same time, 34 per cent of respondents supported liberalisation of the law; while 9 per cent wanted tightening the criteria for a legal abortion. The latter has been influenced by persons engaged in the religious life and supporting right-wing parties (18 per cent) (CBOS, 2012d). In 1994, a year after the new Abortion Act, 70 per cent of respondents supported the liberalisation of the law and making abortion legal because of the difficult living conditions/circumstances of the woman (OBOP, 1994). The ongoing campaign by the Church and right-wing politicians supporting "pro-life" organisations has been very successful in changing the declared public perception of abortion.

"The abortion compromise" is understood by leading Polish feminists to be part of a bargain with between the state and the Polish Catholic Church in order to ensure the Church's support in the EU access procedures and referendum without taking the best interests of women in consideration (Wittenberg, 2012).

According to the current Act, abortion is legal in three instances (Dziennik Ustaw, 1993, Nr 17 poz. 78):

- ☐ when the pregnancy is a severe risk to woman's health or life (this has to be diagnosed by a different doctor to the one performing abortion; the procedure has to be performed during hospitalisation of a woman)
- ☐ the prenatal screening or other medical examination shows severe and permanent damage or incurable disease or severe disability of the foetus, effecting in its future death or decreased quality of life (including a list of mental disorders, e.g. Down Syndrome) (this is legal up to 21st week of pregnancy)
- ☐ the pregnancy is due to rape. (in that instant, abortion is legally permitted up to the 12th week)

Despite the formal gender equality, the patriarchal norms and attitudes are visible in the instances where women try to use their statutory rights to legal abortion. It is impossible to estimate the number of women facing a string of obstacles when trying to enforce their right to legal abortion, as under the influence of the Catholic Church, the majority of gynaecologists, and in many cases whole hospitals, refuse to perform an abortion at all. Feminists report that in many instances, doctors also

misinformed their patients regarding abortion law or the state of the foetus in an attempt to prevent the women claiming their statutory right to abortion successfully (Siedlecka, 2011).

Until the verdicts of The European Court of Human Rights, which forced the Polish government to publish additional specification, many women were denied prenatal screening on suspicion of the foetus might be damaged and they would have a choice whether to terminate the pregnancy. Many women, trying to enforce their rights as per the Abortion Act of 1993, were sent from one doctor to another for unnecessary medical procedures. All in the hope that the time allowed for the abortion to be legal would pass. The woman would be forced to give birth¹⁵In some cases reported, a hospital or a doctor refused the abortion leaving the woman with no information regarding another place where she could perform the procedure as required by law. Often, a hospital that would perform the abortion was a long distance from woman's place of residence¹⁶

¹⁵ The case of Alicja Tysiac (currently a single mother), who won the case against Poland in the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg. Tysiac, who has severely impaired eyesight, was denied the right to an abortion of her third pregnancy for medical reasons. (Due to the condition she suffered from Mrs Tysiac was unable to use hormonal contraceptives). The woman was afraid that pregnancy and childbirth were likely to cause her to lose her eyesight completely. Three specialist doctors she consulted refused to give her a written recommendation for abortion –she managed to get a recommendation from a fourth doctor who was not an eye specialist. On arrival to the hospital, which should have performed the abortion, Mrs Tysiac was denied the procedure and left without an address of an alternative hospital. She was also denied the right to appeal this decision. After the childbirth through a C-section, her eyesight worsened (from -20 to -26 diopetre), which made her entirely dependent on the help of others and forced to live on Disability Allowance (an equivalent of slightly over 100 pound sterling per month). She won a case against Poland on the base that the hospital should not have denied her right to appeal the decision. Later, Mrs Tysiac was also slandered in one of the most popular Church-run periodicals, for which the paper had to pay the compensation as ordered by the Regional Civil Court (However, the paper but refused to print an apology despite the court order) (Brzozowska, 2011; Onet.pl, 2015)

¹⁶ The case of "Agata", a 14-years old who, in 2008, got pregnant due to a criminal act and was denied an abortion by one of the local hospitals. Some hospital employer or employers passed the girl's personal details onto a "pro-life" oriented catholic priest who published it and started a crusade to change the girl's decision, visited her in a hospital in Warsaw, where she was admitted to performing an abortion (the hospital later refused to do under the influence of "pro-lifers"), bombarded her with text messages on her personal mobile phone and organised a picket in front of the hospital. The priest was also the only person allowed to see her in the isolation room in the Emergency Care Shelter, where the girl was placed. Some of the "pro-lifers" reported the girls' mother to the Police for alleged, trying to force her underage daughter to terminate the pregnancy. Finally, "Agata" was allowed to return home (after the allegations against her mother were found unsubstantial) and terminate her pregnancy in the hospital approximately 700 km from her home town. In 2012 "Agata" and her mother won a case against Poland in the European Court of Human Rights and are to receive compensation. Persons responsible for disclosing the girl's data and contact number, as well as these who denied her the contact with her mother after putting in seclusion, remained unidentified or found not guilty by the Polish Court (Bunda, 2018).

Conducting or undergoing an illegal aborting is considered a criminal act; however, it is the doctor performing an abortion, not the woman who is criminalised according to art. 152 or 153 of Polish Penal Code¹⁷ (Lodygowska, 2018).

Despite the minimal number of legal abortions performed after 1993, an opinion poll from 2013 (CBOS, 2013c) based on a random population sample of over 3500 women revealed that 25 per cent of women in Poland had at least one abortion in their lifetime, which comes to a number between 4.1 to 5.8 million. The highest percentage of women declaring having had an abortion is in the older age groups: 55-64 and 65 and above (42 and 36 per cent in the category). The results of the poll are inconsistent with the number of legal abortions, which increased from 159 in 2002 to 669 in 2011¹⁸; CBOS, 2013c). The falling number of legal abortions indicates a vast number of illegal procedures, performed in the country and abroad. However, there are no statistics to be found showing the health problems experienced by women having illegal abortions. The Federation for Women and Family Planning (Federacja Kobiet i Planowania Rodziny) estimates the number to be no less than 80 and possibly as much as 150 000 per year, making it a business worth between 240 and 600 million PLN¹⁹ (Szymanski, 2016).

The Black Protest (Black Monday)

In 2016, a right-wing association called Stop Abortion, in cooperation with ultra-conservative lawyers from *Ordo iuris*, proposed an act of making abortion illegal under any circumstances to the Polish

¹⁷ A person performing the procedure or convincing the woman into abortion are punishable by up to 3 years of imprisonment on conviction in the cases where the abortion is performed with woman's consent or six months to 8 years if the child was able to survive outside the female's body.

Performing an abortion without the woman's consent is punishable with six months to 8 years in prison or 1 to 10 years if the child was able to survive outside the woman's body.

¹⁸ The number grew to 1098 in 2016, to fall again to 1057 legal abortions in 2017 (Ferfecki, 2019)

¹⁹ (approximately between 50.395.200 and 125.988.000 pound sterling)

Parliament. Sejm (the Lower Chamber of the Polish Parliament) decided to pass the legislation for further consideration while rejecting a bill to liberalise abortion law further.

In response to this, on Monday, October 3rd 2016 women went on strike, leaving work and/or school, and wore black clothes in the street as protest, mourning for the loss of their reproductive rights. In response, the government decided to discontinue work on the legislation, and many women were additionally enraged by the proposed five years in prison for a woman and five for a doctor performing an abortion (Wierzychowski, 2016).

Abortion experience

According to the CBOS (2013c) population poll, the highest percentage of abortions was had by women with the lowest levels of education (42 per cent for women with elementary education level), and the figures dropped consistently with the education level increase (to 18 per cent in the group of women with higher education). The percentage of abortions (34 per cent of women) was highest in small towns: up to 20 000 inhabitants, and the towns between 20 000 and 200 000 inhabitants. Not surprisingly the percentage of abortions was highest amongst women who judged their financial situation as "bad" (39 per cent) and the lowest rate amongst these with a "good" financial situation (23 per cent).

Interestingly, the highest number of abortions was had by women with right-wing political sympathies (known for their low support for such acts), which was 36 per cent of cases reported. The lowest number of women have had abortions was supported by left-wing political parties, 27 per cent of the total number of abortions declared in the poll (CBOS, 2013c).

An explanation of this could be the high level of support expressed by people with right-wing politics for the use of "natural family planning" methods and as such, opting out of more reliable forms of contraception.

In the latest report from her visit to Poland in March 2019, the Commissioner For Human Rights remarked that six years after the last verdict of The European Court of Human Rights regarding the access to safe abortion and related healthcare, the government had done nothing to improve it. The Commissioner appealed to the government to improve access to legal and accessible abortions in line with the country's legislation (Mijatovic, 2019).

2.5.3 Rate of reproduction: preferences and reality

Poland is a country in transition; however, the model of female reproduction started changing after the Second World War, so the current trend is a continuation of the decline of fertility rate rather than a new phenomenon. In 1989 the female fertility rate was 2.07 children per woman of 15-49 years of age, and it reached the lowest value of 1.3 in 2003, fluctuated slightly to go back to 1.3 in 2012 (Kotowska, 2014). In 2017 it was 1.45²⁰. Additionally, most of the new births were of the second and further children in families, and there was a further decline in deliveries of women's first children (GUS, 2018a).

Poles point to several reasons influencing the drop in the birth rate: 60 per cent of respondents of the CBOS population poll from 2012 pointed out the fear of job losses by women and 48 per cent to having insufficient living conditions for a baby. Poles were also afraid of lowering their standard of living (32 per cent), the preference of women to hire professional carers, which they cannot currently afford (26 per cent) and difficulties for women sharing professional and family responsibilities with their male partner (23 per cent). Additionally, 41 per cent of respondents held the state responsible for the drop in the birth rate pointing out the lack of support for mothers and children, which would allow balancing professional and family responsibilities (CBOS, 2012b).

²⁰. The rate was paired with a higher number of deaths and, if these trends continue Poland will be facing a steady decline in the population.

The total fertility rate in Poland is higher in rural than urban areas, 1.34 to 1.5. This gives 1.24 child per woman on average in 2005 (GUS, 2007), and is consistent with the fertility rate of Central-Eastern Europe, but lower than the fertility rate for the whole European Union (which was 1.31-1.50) and in Western Europe (over 2.0) in 2005 (ESHRE Capri Workshop Group, 2010; European Demographic Datasheet, 2020). That year, women in Poland with higher education gave birth to 34 per cent of children in urban areas and 15 per cent of children in the countryside, while women with secondary and post-secondary education –to 39 per cent of children in both areas. Since a higher percentage of women decided to reproduce later in life, the age in which the most women reproduce moved to 25-29 years and 30-34 years in the cities and 20-24 years in the countryside in 2005. The median for having the first baby increased from approximately 26 years in 1995 to 27 in 2005. Most women reproduced between 25-34 years of age. First births were 51 per cent of all births in Poland and the cumulative percentage with second births added-up to over 83 per cent (GUS, 2007).

The reasons behind the lowering birth rate are the same as for other European women: the use of contraceptives, reduction in fecundity and desire for children, delayed childbirth and inadvertent loss of fertility caused by postponed reproduction (ESHRE Capri Workshop Group, 2010). However, in Poland, a significant factor is the availability of childcare, usually provided by the partner and members of the extended family. Also, women with higher education declare interest in having children more often than women with lower levels of education (CBOS, 2013d). Most women, interviewed in the 2013 poll by CBOS who don't want to have another child or no children at all, do so because of either already having children or their financial situation perceived as not stable enough to provide for the baby.

When asked about the ideal family size in the population poll (CBOS, 2012b), 50 per cent of Poles declared a preference for two children, while 25 per cent of Poles for three children. In comparison,

10 per cent preferred one child, and 5 per cent - 4 children. The percentage of occurrence in the first two groups had increased by 2 per cent in comparison with 1996, showing emerging divergence in society. The rate of people in the last group decreased in contrast with preferences in the 1990s. Additionally, the percentage of Poles not wanting any children (4 per cent in 2002) increased by 3 per cent increase since 1996 (CBOS, 2012b), which implies that young women keep putting off their decision to reproduce until achieving their educational and professional goals; and the trend that started in early the 1990s continues.

The increase in births of second and further children is likely to be linked with a family benefits programme called Rodzina 500+. The program is a monthly payment of 500 PLN²¹ to families for every second and further child, a response of the state promoting publically a particular model of the family life. The programme was introduced in April 2016 as an attempt by the current right-wing government to increase the fertility rate of Polish women. Its effectiveness is disputed, as the initial increase in the number of births in 2017 dropped again, and continued to fall in 2018 (Ambroziak, 2019). The real and measurable effect of the programme was the decrease of women in paid employment, which affects their position on the job market when/if they decide to return in the future and the amount of money these women will receive in their pensions in the future (Ambroziak, 2019).

In 2019, Rodzina 500+ (Family 500+) was followed by a benefit advertised as MAMA 4+, a retirement supplement for women who raised four or more children, championing the role of women as child-bearers and caregivers. Its purpose is to aid women (who raised large families) financially in their old age. The decision on whether women qualify for this benefit depends on several conditions, the most important being not receiving a state pension or receiving a very low pension. If the allowance received is larger than the maximum sum of the benefit, the woman doesn't qualify for it.

²¹ per child, giving approximately 105-pound sterling

Availability of the fund depends on the state of the country's economy and once granted, the supplement may be withheld. The decision, made upon application, is made by the local ZUS (Social Insurance Institution) office, the government body dealing with pensions. It is arbitrary and final, and women don't have the right to appeal it (ZUS, 2019; Infor.PL.PRAWO, 2019).

Actions of the current right-wing government have long-term implications on the situation of women. The main of the result is making them more dependent on their partners as breadwinners during the childbearing years, lowering their employment opportunities as well as the number of years in the paid employment and in effect very low retirement causing gendered poverty.

2.5.4 Relationships: models, formation and breakup

Historically, most relationships between men and women in Poland were (Grabowska, 2018) and still are marriages. Common-law marriages, although becoming more common in the time of transition, their occurrence raising from 1.2 per cent of relationships in 1988, through 1.7 per cent in 1995, 3.6 per cent in 2001 (Szukalski, 2014 p.64) to relationships 3.4 per cent in 2013 (Mynarska and Slowinska-Roslanowska, 2015, p. 126), are still a minority of all of the long-term relationships.

Secular marriage, introduced in 1945 The Civil Marriage Act of September 25th 1945, guarantees an equal position of husband and wife in the eyes of the law. As such it downgrades the traditionally dominant position of man as a husband and father over a woman as wife and mother, additionally giving equal rights to legitimate and illegitimate children (Grabowska, 2018, p. 76, 194-199).

However, the regulations regarding the true equality in marriage are difficult to enforce because of the cultural norms (supported by the Catholic Church), which dominated especially in the countryside by fulfilling the spiritual and cultural needs of women (Grabowska, 2018 p.223) and societal norms (Grabowska, 2018, Klich-Kulczewska, 2015).

Despite the rise of common-law marriages in the general population of Poland, the population poll from 2005 shows that the group deeming them as something inappropriate increased between 2003 and 2005. Also, 85 per cent of the respondents expressed condemnation of the relationships between two members of the same sex, which would suggest that Poles are becoming more traditional in their outlook on the family types (CBOS, 2005). Interestingly, the same respondents expressed the highest acceptance for the use of contraceptives (71 per cent) in the history of public polls (CBOS, 2005).

Data from 2011 show that the percentage of common-law marriages (cohabitations) to increase from 1 per cent in 1978 to approximately 4 per cent in 2011 (Szukalski, 2014); however, the majority of children are born in state-sanctioned relationships, usually 2-3 years after the start of the marriage. The number of marriages has decreased steadily since 1990 (with a slight fluctuation in 2010). Since 2011, the number of newly formed marriages than dissolving is lower, usually due to the death of one of the spouses. The percentage of divorces has also increased from 25 in 1990 to 30 per cent in 2017 (GUS, 2018d). There were approximately 193 500 marriages contracted in Poland in 2017 (GUS, 2018b). Most newlywed women were 25-29 years of age (40 per cent); the next largest group was 20-24 years (25 per cent). Most men were in the same age group as most women (40 per cent), followed by the men of 30-34 (24 per cent) (GUS, 2018d).

The number of marriages in contemporary Poland decreases, the number of marriage dissolutions increases, and the number of common-law marriages increases since 1989. There may be changes in factors that are responsible for people making a conscious choice to live in the state-sanctioned relationships as well as factors influencing their decision to split-up with the partner. The investigation of reasons for divorce and/or implement the IPV in the long-term relationships might

shed more light on the reasons for women choosing to use force towards their long-term partners during the relationships and after they cease.

Sexual jealousy and infidelity in Poland

There were no studies of sexual jealousy in Polish couples that would establish its prevalence. The only published research on the representative sample from the general population about sexual infidelity as it is challenging to estimate the percentage of people in Poland cheating on their partners. However, a population poll from 2011 established²² that 33 per cent of men and 18 per cent of women in Poland had intimate relationships with people other than their partners (CBOS, 2011).

Suspected or perceived infidelity was one of the sole or combined reasons of divorce in 22 per cent (14185) of couples in 2017, the second after discrepancy of characters, which was reported to occur in 42 per cent (27592) cases (GUS, 2018c).

Divorce matters

Since the 1950s, the rising rates of divorce was flagged up as one of the concerns by some moral authorities and tried to link it with the "too high" level of women's emancipation. However, the other factors like the rates of domestic violence against women and children, alcoholism, lack of men's participation in the household chores and the rising women empowerment linked with the knowledge of their economic independence, civil and political rights were not taken into consideration (Grabowska 2018, p. 79-80).

In 2017, the average marriage where the divorce occurred lasted about 13-14 years before the couple decided to split-up. The average age at divorce was 42 for a man and 38 for a woman. Since

²² Using the Boolean function

then, the tendency to divorce at an older age increased the average age for both partners by approximately three years since 1990 (GUS, 2018d).

According to the Demographic Yearbook (GUS, 2018c), 65257 couples divorced in Poland²³ in 2017; 71 per cent (46840) in cities and 27 per cent (17472) in rural areas and 1 per cent (945) abroad. Also, 1569 couples, 71 per cent (1102) of which were in cities and 29 per cent (460) in rural areas became legally separated. Either of the spouses can initiate the divorce procedure in Poland. So, 33 per cent (21411) of the proceedings were initiated by the husbands and 66 per cent (43846) started by wives. The easiest and quickest procedure to divorce is the one that doesn't involve establishing any blame on either of the spouses. This happened the case in the highest number of proceedings: 76 per cent (50101) out of 65257 in total. In cases where the fault was established, it was most often found to be husband's (15 per cent, 9654 cases), and both partners' (5 per cent, 3116 cases). The sole guilt of a female partner was established in 4 per cent (2386) of cases (GUS, 2018c).

The rising figures for divorce over time would imply less tolerance of unwanted attitudes and/or behaviours in the partners like alcoholism, adultery and the IPV (which were leading reasons for divorce with establishing blame on one of the partners). The influence of neoliberal values is uncertain and could be a subject of additional research.

Child support and Child Support Fund

Women, whose current or former partners don't provide for their families, can apply to the court for child support paid from the Child Support Fund²⁴.

A sum the Family Court can adjudge is half of the money needed to support all of the child's or children's needs. A mother (or a parent, who is the primary caregiver) is obliged to present estimates

²³ In comparison with 112400 divorces in 2015 in the United Kingdom (GUS, 2018c)

²⁴ Founded in 1974 and associates with Zakład Ubezpieczeń Społecznych (Social Security Fund) ZUS (Grabowska, 2018, p.277)

of yearly expenses with the application to the court. The applicant is more successful in the claim if he/she provides the receipts to back up the claim²⁵ (Klukowska, 2017).

If one of the parents (usually the father) does not pay child support as adjudged by the court, the parent may claim the bailiff officer, local to the place of residence of the non-paying partner, who can start debt collection. This process usually takes time and is not always successful if the father doesn't have an official income. According to statistics, the success rate in this type of cases is about 20 per cent (Klukowska, 2017). If the partner doesn't pay child support, the sum is provided by the Child Support Fund, but only in cases where the income per family member is lower or equal to 750 PLN²⁶, and the limit has not changed since 2006, which means that a vast number of children are left without adequate support (Topolewska, 2019).

2.6 Women and domestic violence: police statistics and population polls

There are no population statistics on the experience of domestic violence in communist Poland. However, in the opinion of the people involved in providing the legal aid and clues how to deal with the matter such as women from the Women's League (Liga Kobiet) the domestic violence was prevalent, which suggests its high acceptance or treating it as a taboo. The court files from that time, some of which were analysed in the sociological studies describe only the extreme cases of violence/abuse, and cannot tell about which forms were common (Klich-Kulczewska, 2015 p.184-186).

Economic and social changes after the fall of the communism were reported to increase the risk of experiencing domestic violence for women and children. High rates of unemployment, the difference in traditional gender roles and alcoholisms, in almost all cases have been associated with underlying

²⁵ The usual way is to calculate the monthly expenses and multiply them by 12, adding the expenditures paid a few times a year.

²⁶ (157 pound sterling); Information from 2018

causes for the physical and psychological abuse towards the family members (Bystydziński, 2005 p. 248, Grabowska, 2018 p.279)

The emergence of Women Organisations such as Centrum Praw Kobiet (Centre of Women's Rights) funded in 1994 (Grabowska, 2018 p.32) organised help for the victims of domestic violence, mostly raising awareness and counselling (legal, psychological, telephone hotline, support groups; information campaigns in the form of presentations in schools, community centres, and distribution of leaflets) (Bystydziński, 2005 p. 257)

2.6.1 Police Data

The published police statistics, based on the police statistics of number of the Blue Card procedures, reveal that the number of perpetrators of domestic violence/abuse reported increased from 56847 in 1999 to 71914 in 2011 (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019).

While the number of female perpetrators increased from 1838 to 3471, the number of male perpetrators of domestic violence increased from 54669 in 1999 to 68248 in 2011 (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019).

The numbers of domestic violence victims increased from 96955 in 1999 to 113546 in 2011. Here, the number of female victims increased from 55214 to 70730 whereas the number of male victims from 4239 to 10718. Police data, however, do not contain the information how large was the number of male and female victimisation by the current or former intimate partner, nor the perpetration of abuse towards one's current or former intimate partner (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019).

2.6.2 Population polls

The most comprehensive data about the prevalence of domestic violence in Poland come from the representative population polls. For example, Centrum Badań Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2020) selects the representative sample of adult citizens of Poland based on the random draw of their

National Identification Numbers (PESEL), while OBOP includes the Poles of 15 years and older. The sampling algorithm takes into consideration age, sex, and the size of the place the citizen lives. The research, however, focuses on the families rather than abuse in the relationships (OBOP, 2010).

The only comprehensive report on domestic violence in Poland, based on the representative sample in the **population poll** was completed in **2010** (OBOP 2010). It researched domestic violence perpetration and victimisation by men and women in their lifetimes. The study recorded information about the prevalence on the scale of the whole country and depending on the district. In most parts of Poland female, IPV victimisation was found to be higher than male, except for two districts (kujawsko-pomorskie and opolskie), where more men than women admitted to falling victim to domestic violence²⁷ (31 to 26 per cent and 33 to 25 per cent respectively) and two other (pomorskie and swietokrzyskie districts), where the victimisation rates were reported to be approximately equal (30 to 29 and 33 to 33 per cent).

Most commonly, the victims were subjected to one type of violence: 20 per cent of female (and 18 per cent of male) respondents. Sixty-four per cent of women (in comparison with 36 per cent of men) experienced domestic psychological violence; 19 per cent of women (12 per cent of men) physical; 12 per cent (in comparison with 6 per cent of men) – economic violence (OBOP, 2010), equivalent to coercive control (Walby and Towers, 2018).

There was only 30 per cent of **female perpetrators** of domestic violence in comparison of 70 per cent of male perpetrators reported by the poll. Thirty per cent of women were reported as the perpetrators of psychological IPV; however, the percentage rose to 50 per cent if the reported victim was a male family member. Women perpetrated 32 per cent of economic violence/abuse in general,

²⁷ The victims of domestic violence as researched by the poll were: children, parents, intimate partners or other family members

and 42 per cent if the victims were men. An even higher increase has been noted in cases of physical abuse: from 25 per cent of perpetration in general to 40 per cent in cases of male family members as targets (OBOP, 2010).

Admitting to domestic violence/abuse perpetration

Seventeen per cent of female respondents in the poll admitted to perpetrating at least one form of violence against a family member. Abuse perpetration was most often admitted to by younger respondents: 21 per cent of women in the age group under 30 years old. Women with A-level or equivalent education also admitted to domestic abuse perpetration most often, as well as those living in cities of 20 000 – 100 000 inhabitants. Women from the older age groups reported perpetration domestic violence sparingly. This might have been caused by their understanding of the violent acts as a normal part of life, and not recognising them as domestic violence. Statistical analysis of results has not found any relationship between the female perpetration of domestic violence and the financial situation of the family²⁸.

Twelve per cent of women (in comparison with 13 per cent of men taking part in the poll) admitted to the perpetration of psychological violence more than once (3 per cent and 4 per cent admitted to having done it only once); while 33 per cent of women (and 21 per cent of men) were victims to it at the hands of another family member (OBOP, 2010).

Three per cent of women (and 4 per cent of men) admitted to the perpetration of economic abuse as a form of domestic abuse; while 12 per cent of women (and 6 per cent of men) were victims of this form of violence. Moreover, 8 per cent of women (and the same percentage of men) admitted to the

²⁸In comparison, the perpetration of domestic violence/abuse was self-reported by 19 per cent of male respondents, the largest group of who (23 per cent) were men with A-level or its technical equivalent education. Additionally, the largest group (25 per cent) of male perpetrators described their financial situation as bad (but the difference between the next groups: average and good economical family situation was 7 per cent, which makes the differences not significant). The smallest group of men admitting to the perpetration of domestic violence had primary education and those living in the cities of 20 -100 000 inhabitants.

perpetration of physical violence/abuse towards the family member. In contrast, 19 per cent of women (and 12 per cent of men) were victims of this form of abuse. Only a few respondents admitted to the perpetration of sexual violence/abuse towards another family member, while 1 per cent of men and 4 per cent of women were victims of sexual violence (OBOP, 2010).

Therefore, more Poles admitted to victimisation rather than the perpetration of domestic violence. This applied to both sexes and all types of abuse. This trend is consistent with the findings by other researchers (e.g. Cuenca et al., 2018). Also, the percentage of men admitting to the victimisation by domestic violence is smaller to the percentage of women doing so. The perpetuation of and victimisation by some of the coercive control tactics such as psychological abuse is more widely reported (or recognised) in the general population than economic abuse. The perpetuation of physical abuse is either rarely perpetrated or admitted to.

Key limitations of the poll may be underreporting of the victimisation by or the perpetration of domestic violence due to the social stigma. It seems to be persistent despite the societal changes (Klich-Kulczewska, 2015 p.184-186). Another problem might be providing, even in the anonymous poll, or socially desirable answers and as such underreporting the perpetration of domestic violence (Cuenca et al., 2018)

Experiencing victimisation by domestic violence

Most often, the victims of domestic violence were abused by their intimate partners (rates were similar for men and women 54 per cent) and parents as reported by the respondents experiencing victimisation through domestic violence. Fathers were reported to victimise twice as often as mothers²⁹

²⁹ 25 per cent of cases and 12 per cent of cases respectively

When the perpetrators were siblings, brothers are reported twice as often as sisters³⁰. In cases of domestic violence perpetration by the in-laws, mothers-in-law are reported more often than fathers-in-law³¹) or siblings^{32, 33}. The structure of victimisation is different for male and female victims³⁴.

Women in their 30s (30-39 years) reported the victimisation by domestic violence most often (in 46 per cent of all the cases). Most female victims were also divorced or separated from partners (80 per cent), or cohabitating without being married to their partner (55 per cent). The youngest women (up to 30 years of age) victimisation least often, in 33 per cent of cases. Thirty-six per cent of women from this group were single, and 35 per cent married (OBOP, 2010). Therefore the marital status didn't seem to play a role as a factor influencing victimisation of the youngest women, while it seemed to matter for the women in their 30s.

Risk factors associated with domestic violence

Alcohol was recognised as one of the risk factors related to generally reported domestic violence victimisation, as 45 per cent of reported violence is alcohol-related. Other risk factors were: the family finances (in 18 per cent of reported cases), experiencing general marital problems (in 15 per cent); issues in the workplace (10 per cent). Female respondents identified alcohol problems concerning domestic violence more often than male respondents (OBOP, 2010).

Interestingly, 17-30 per cent of respondents (the percentage depended on the type of violence) stated there was nothing out of the ordinary that could have triggered the IPV (OBOP, 2010), which would suggest normalising this type of behaviour.

³⁰ 7 per cent by brothers and 4 per cent by sisters

³¹ (4 per cent in comparison with 2 per cent

³² occurred in 3 per cent by brothers-in-law and 1 per cent by sisters-in-law

³³. No abuse by the female partner in same-sex relationships was reported

³⁴. In comparison with a female; male victims reported the perpetration by their fathers- in 36 per cent of abuse cases, then wives per cent, mothers -20 per cent, and brothers -15 per cent.

Female victims, when asked about the **education level** of a domestic violence perpetrator, most often reported a vocational educational level (35 per cent of cases). The highest percentage of perpetrators had a high school education (A-levels or equivalent) –in 29 per cent. In comparison, male victims of violence most often reported perpetrators to have A-levels or equivalent (34 per cent); vocational (25 per cent). The percentage of the education level of the perpetrators was not significantly different from the percentage of people with this level of education in the general Polish population (OBOP, 2010).

With regards to **the age of the perpetrator**, the group reported for domestic violence, in general, was most often middle-aged. Female victims reported victimisation by perpetrators in their 30's (25 per cent), the 40s (32 per cent) and 50s (15 per cent); so did the male victims, respectively: 19, 26 and 15 per cent.

Additionally, a large group of male victims reported perpetrators as belonging to the 18-29 age group (22 per cent of cases reported, in comparison with female victims, where this occurred in 12 per cent of cases). The smallest percentage of perpetrators belonged to the age group below 18 years old-4 and 6 per cent, respectively) (OBOP, 2010).

The age group of mostly female victims was 30-39 years (46 per cent of reported cases), while the least victimised age group were young women below 30 years of age (OBOP, 2010).

Generally, the results suggest a strong relationship between the bad **economic situation** and the financial problems of the family and the abuse of women. According to the respondents, 53 per cent of women (and 35 per cent of men) falling victim to domestic violence judged their financial situation as bad. In contrast, only 34 per cent of female (and 25 per cent of male) victims assessed their financial situation as good (OBOP, 2010).

In cases of psychological domestic violence, 44 per cent of female victims judged their financial situation as bad, while only 27 per cent as good³⁵In cases of economic abuse 22 per cent of women assessed their financial situation as bad. In comparison, only 7 per cent as good³⁶The relationship between physical abuse and economic situation is significant but only in the cases of female victims; 30 per cent of women in the bad, 19 per cent of women in the average and 15 per cent of women in the good financial situation reported this type of victimisation by a family member. No relationship between male victims of physical violence/abuse and financial situation in the household has been found (OBOP, 2010).

Knowledge of families where IPV takes place

Sixty-three per cent of respondents of the poll knew a family where domestic violence/abuse took place.

Sixty per cent of respondents knew the families where the victim was a woman, while 32 per cent where the victim was a man. Lublin district was one of two where the respondents knew of families with IPV most often (71 per cent of respondents knew a family where it occurred; 69 per cent identified a family where the victim was female, 39 per cent knew a family with male victims). While in the Warsaw district, the percentage was 64 (60 per cent female, 30 per cent male victims) –which was close to the average for the country (OBOP, 2010). These frequencies would give some point for the comparison with the criminal justice sample of women violence/abuse perpetration towards their current and former long-term partners.

³⁵ In comparison, there was no such relationship for male victims where 20 per cent judged their situation as good, the same percentage as average, and 30 per cent as bad

³⁶ The same trend occurred for the male victims with 11 per cent in the bad financial situation and 4 in a good financial position.

Views of respondents on matters of domestic violence perpetration, victimisation and help-seeking in Poland

The population poll from 2010 asked respondents about their views on several matters regarding domestic violence. In the opinions of 63 per cent of respondents, it's easier to admit being a victim of IPV if you are a woman. Fifty-three per cent also thought it is as difficult for men and women to acknowledge the perpetration of domestic violence.

When asked to comment on the Polish Judicial System, 47 per cent thought it is designed to protect female victims of IPV (11 per cent believed that it protects men more, while 24 per cent that it protects both sexes the same way despite the gender) (OBOP, 2010).

Seventy-seven per cent of people who sought help with regards to IPV victimisation think that the aid or advice provided it was at least partially helpful. More women than men believed that the system was effective in delivering aid to victims of IPV. The general opinion was that most effective is the aid provided to the victims of sexual violence and the least effective the help provided with regards to economic abuse (OBOP, 2010).

In the view of respondents, women in Poland seek help regarding domestic violence/abuse victimisation more often than men; 17 per cent of families subjected to economic and 20 per cent of families where physical or sexual violence takes place admitted seeking help. Twenty-six per cent of the families where any of the forms of violence occurred declared seeking help from the following sources³⁷, institution or organisation (32 per cent of women and 17 per cent of men). Aid from the Police was sought in 14 per cent of cases. Other institutions providing medical, psychological, law, social, family or career-related counselling were contacted after 9 per cent of incidents.

Seeking help from the Police was declared by 17 per cent of female and 7 per cent of male victims.

³⁷. At the same time, 73 per cent of respondents where the abuse took place claimed they had not found support from any source

Important was the finding that the victims who were also perpetrators of domestic violence sought help from institutions in the minority of cases: 28 per cent in cases of psychological, 26 per cent of economic and 17 per cent of physical violence/abuse (OBOP, 2010).

Views varied on the level of effectiveness of help provided to victims. Aid received in cases of sexual abuse is thought to be highly effective by 42 per cent of respondents; while in cases of psychological abuse –in 35, physical abuse –in 30 and economic abuse –in 21 per cent. As entirely ineffective, the aid is seen by 8 per cent of victims who sought help in cases of sexual abuse, 20 per cent in cases of psychological, 21 per cent of economic and 22 per cent of physical violence/abuse (OBOP, 2010).

2.7 Summary

Women in contemporary Poland have more opportunities than they had 25 years ago. However, they are still facing several challenges with regards to the expectations of 'traditional' gender norms, which have become increasingly favoured in the current conservative climate, which can be seen concerning reproductive health and rights in particular. Conservative influences such as the Catholic Church, right-wing politicians and right-wing activists still proclaim a long list of expectations in terms of women's ambitions (with the notion of sacrificing them for the sake of their families). They expect women's involvement in the housework, upbringing of children and care provided to family members, all while feeling entitled to devalue points of view on gender different to their own. This climate may hinder the chances of achieving and maintaining education and occupational status for many women. Especially after they get involved in childcare and household duties, which in many cases, prevents increasing women's empowerment, and results in increased economic dependency of women on their spouses.

Poland experiences a polarisation of views regarding gender roles, including on the rights of women to make their own reproductive choices, decisions about the career-housework- life-balance or

relationship models; the right to be safe from domestic violence and empowerment to develop economic independence. These social factors can influence the prevalence of female IPV perpetration, the analysis of which will be presented in the chapters to follow.

Chapter 2 provided a context to the women's experience of perpetration of domestic violence towards their current and former male partners.

It identifies and describes several societal factors, from the constituents of women empowerment, through the relationship models and division of labour in the family, to the societal expectations at large and the shift in the political system. The downfall of the communist welfare state and rising of social inequalities may have contributed to the stressors faced by Polish women. These may have prepared the ground for their choice to use force or coercive control tactics in the marital conflict. This broader context may aid the investigation of key measurable characteristics that can serve as the triggers or be the underlying causes of the IPV in the particular settings of a post-communist country in Central Europe. Additionally, the universality of these factors could be checked cross-culturally in future research.

2.8 What to expect of Chapter 3

The response to cases of alleged domestic violence is regulated differently in Polish and English Laws; however, the investigation goes through similar stages. Goals of the proceedings, such as aiding all victims, despite the gender or social status, are fulfilled by taking action against the established perpetrators and educating victims about their rights and places to receive help and advice.

In the long view, the response if the Judicial system should help to establish whether the alleged violence/abuse took place, stop it if proven, and build the resilience of the victims by reducing risk

factors for re-victimisation. Police, being a part of the Polish Judicial System, is also involved in crime prevention as well as promoting cooperation between the agencies and voluntary sector. To summarise, the two main aims, investigating the alleged cases of domestic violence/abuse and providing help to vulnerable parties are set to prevent the chance of reoffending.

Chapter 3: Criminal Proceedings in cases of domestic violence in Poland.

3.1 Introduction

The legal systems in Poland and the United Kingdom, although both originated from Roman law, have a different structure, which means that the criminal proceedings in cases of domestic violence/abuse differ in some aspects. A comparison of these two systems during the legal proceedings in cases of alleged domestic violence/abuse, where the Polish system differs from the system in England and Wales, will allow readers from the Anglosphere to familiarise themselves with the process in Poland, a post-communist country with a continental legal system.

The response of the Judicial System to any case of domestic violence in Poland, and England and Wales designed to verify information provided by a person reporting an alleged crime consists of several stages. Aim of the investigation is gaining as much information as possible to get a clear view of the situation that occurred, which allows proving or disproving the claim.

Principal agencies of the criminal Judicial System in both countries involved in the investigation, prosecution and sentencing are Police, Prosecution Service, District Court and Probation Service (Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwosci, 2004, HM Inspectorate of Probation, 2004). Although their role, except for the Probation Service³⁸To investigate, Police and Prosecutor Services may choose to cooperate with other institutions and Non-Governmental Organisations that provide many forms of aid and alternative solutions to the victims of domestic violence.

³⁸ Even though the role of Probation Service is working with offenders to prevent reoffending, the officers also provide witness statements during the criminal proceedings.

3.2 Legal base and definitions in Poland

Legal base for the Criminal Law describing offences and penalties differ in Poland and England as these countries adapted different legal systems: Poland has a codified law based on the Constitution (1997), and English law is based common law (setting the principles of Criminal Law for England and Wales), equity law and statute law, such as Domestic Violence, Crime and Victims Act 2004 (Legislation.gov.uk.2004). Polish Criminal Law, enacted by Sejm (the Lower Chamber of Polish Parliament), is codified in the Penal Code describing what is perceived as a criminal offence. In contrast, the supplementary Code of Criminal Procedure (Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997) describes the appropriate ways of running the legal procedure.

According to article 32 of The Constitution of the Republic of Poland (1997), all persons are equal under the law and "have the right to equal treatment by public authorities". Thus, female and male victims are to be treated with the same respect, and the cases of their alleged victimisation investigated according to the same procedures (Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997).

The Polish Penal Code (1997) defines abuse against one's partner as well as clarifies the principles of criminal liability. The Penal Code recognises two subtypes of marital abuse (or abuse towards one's partner) - physical abuse and psychological abuse. There is no separate classification of economic abuse or coercive control. Violence towards one's partner is defined by article 207.

Article 207 § 1 states: "Whoever uses physical or psychological abuse against another person while she or he is being a short or long term dependant of the perpetrator, an underage child or an elderly person, helpless because of his or her physical or mental state, is punishable on conviction from 3 months to 5 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.82).

§ 2 specifies: "If the offence described in § 1 is committed with an atrocity the perpetrator is punishable on conviction from 1 to 10 years" (PPC, 1997 p.82).

§ 3: "If the victim of an act described in § 1 and 2 attempts or commits suicide, the perpetrator is punishable on conviction from 2 to 12 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.83).

The Penal Code Commentary by Zoll et al. (2011) specifies that domestic abuse (as described by article 207) must be interpreted with a high degree of objectivity and cannot be based on the subjective feeling of an aggrieved party. A gold standard for the comparison is a theoretical model citizen, with the right degree of socialisation and empathy adhering to the social as well as ethical norms. The perpetrator of domestic violence perpetrates behaviours that have a different degree of seriousness and effect than a common insult or breach of bodily integrity. The decision whether the offence fulfils the criteria of domestic abuse cannot be purely based on the interpretation by the aggrieved as its regularity must also be accompanied by a high degree of severity and humiliation of a victim (Zoll et al. 2011).

Case of domestic abuse also involves a high degree of coercion and control the perpetrator has over his or her long or short-term dependant, who is not able to defy it or able to do so only to a minimal extent (Marek, 2012).

According to a description of domestic violence, as defined by article 207, the abuse must be proven to take place repetitively and/or for a length of time. If this cannot be proven, the actions of a perpetrator may fill the description of the articles 156 and 157 (corresponding with an offence of common assault as described by the section 39 of the Criminal Justice Act 1988; 190 or 197 of the Polish Penal Code).

Article 156 § 1 specifies: "Whoever causes a bodily injury such as:

1. blindness, loss of hearing, speech or fertility
2. another catastrophic injury, long –terminal illness or permanent physical or psychological medical condition; inability or partial inability to work in a current profession as well as a permanent or significant bodily deformation

is punishable on conviction from 1 to 10 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.64).

§ 3: "If the victim of an act described above dies, a perpetrator is punishable on conviction from 2 to 12 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.64).

Article 157 § 1 subsidizes: "Whoever disrupts bodily organs and functions other than described in article 156 § 1, is punishable on conviction from 3 months to 5 years of imprisonment.

§ 2: "Whoever disrupts bodily organs and functions lasting no longer than seven days is punishable on conviction with a fine, restriction of liberty or up to 2 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.64-65).

Article 197 § 1 defines sexual abuse; also within the relationship.

§ 1 states: "Whoever forces sexual intercourse using physical force, threats or deceit is punishable on conviction from 2 to 12 year of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.78).

§ 4: "If an act (...) is committed with an atrocity, the perpetrator is punishable on conviction with a minimum of 5 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997 p.79).

Finally, article 190 relates to threats, § 1 stating that: "Whoever threatens or harasses another person or his or her next of kin causing him or her to feel threatened or experience an invasion of privacy is punishable on conviction with up to 3 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997, p.76).

§ 3: "If a victim of an act described above tries to commit suicide as a result of harassment the perpetrator is punishable on conviction with between 1 to 10 years of imprisonment" (PPC, 1997, p.77).

Other offences under the Polish Law that could be considered a form of domestic violence are specified by the article 189 –depriving of liberty (PPC, 1997, p.76); 288 –criminal damage (PPC, 1997, p.114); 278 and 279 –stealing and breaking in and stealing from the next of kin (PPC, 1997, p.112).

The offences from articles: 156, 157§1-4 (in cases when the victim occupies the same property as the perpetrator), 189 and 207 are prosecuted ex officio; while the offences from articles 157§1 and §3, 190§1, 197, 278, 279, 288 are prosecuted ex officio but only when an alleged victim provides a complaint (in the form of a written statement). The offences from the articles: 157§2 and 157§1-4 are open to a victim to bring a private prosecution (Podlaska Policja, 2016).

3.3 Judicial System

The Polish government takes measures to investigate and tackle the problem of domestic violence. The funds of The Ministry of Family and Social Politics are allocated to the research on the prevalence of domestic violence (the research done by CBOS and OBOP) and education programs about domestic violence on the local and countrywide level including the variety of media. The Ministry works mainly by supporting the local authorities in making provision for the free legal aid to the victims of domestic violence and counselling programs, many of which focus on tackling the alcoholism (Ministerstwo Rodziny i Polityki Społecznej, 2020).

The local authorities act through the specialised bodies of GOPS (Gminne Ośrodki Pomocy Społecznej) and MOPS (Miejskie Ośrodki Pomocy Społecznej), which in some cases offer financial help or priority access to the social housing. However, the latter can take a long time and usually needs to be backed-up with the information from the judicial system proving the claims of victimisation (Ministerstwo Rodziny i Polityki Społecznej, 2020).

Hence, the cases of domestic violence, including the Intimate Partner Violence and Abuse, if reported, need to be processed by the Polish Judicial System.

3.3.1 Judicial system recognition and the role of NGOs in Poland

The definition of violence/abuse by the Polish Penal Code is somewhat narrower than the one used by the psychologists (e.g. Johnson, 2006) and most of relevant agencies and NGOs (e.g. Women's Aid, 2019). Polish Penal Code focuses instead on the effects the perpetrator's actions have on victims of abuse rather than his or her actions (Zoll, 2011).

Communal Police Officers, as well as other agencies, assist in the recognition and recording of multiple aspects of domestic violence and abuse, the Blue Card system has been developed and used since 2005. The procedure was revisited and improved in 2011 (Rada Ministrów, 2011) with the newest version of the Blue Card, which has more detailed information regarding the case. This was done on the principle that cases of domestic violence should receive more immediate attention from the police and be better monitored by the Judicial System even before the judicial procedures are fully implemented (Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów, Dziennik Ustaw no. 209, 2011). The new Card (Chapter 3 Appendix 1), consists of four subsequent forms. The forms can be filled in and used not only by the police but also by the Communal, County and Municipal Welfare, medical centres, woman's aid organisations, an alleged victim and a multiagency panel during the process, establishes whether the violence and/or abuse takes place. Using the form enables the agencies to decide on the appropriate response and support programmes for both: victim and perpetrator if possible (Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures, 2011).

Form A (Chapter 3, Appendix 1) is used during the first stage of the process when there is suspicion that a person may fall victim to domestic violence. The form can be filled in by a police officer, social worker, health practitioner or teacher concerned about the wellbeing of a person or family under his or her care. Also, any person concerned that himself or herself or a member of his or her family, a neighbour or friend may be experiencing or perpetrating domestic violence or abuse can report it to the professionals eligible to start the process. A qualified person filling form A is obliged to inform Police or Prosecution Services about the situation (Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures, 2011).

Form B consists of information relevant to a victim of domestic violence or abuse. The form can be explained during an interview with the Community Police Officer, social worker or read on his or her own, in a place the victim feels safe. If it is not possible to meet with the victim, the form can be mailed to him or her (Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures, 2011). Form B records, definitions of domestic violence/abuse, information about the investigation and prosecution process, legal advice (specifying what sort of actions fit the classification of certain crimes under the Polish Law) and the list and contact to places that provide aid to the victims of domestic violence/abuse. Finally, it gives space with prompt questions to help to describe the incident(s) in case the victim would like to report it in the future (Chapter 3, Appendix 1).

Forms C and D are to be filled in by the multiagency panel during the interviews with an alleged victim and an alleged perpetrator. These are used to analyse the situation further, establish and verify an action plan for a particular case (Chapter 3, Appendix 1). The interviews are to be arranged in this way to assure the safety of the victim (invited by the social worker) possibly on a different date to the interview of an alleged perpetrator (invited to a meeting by the local Community Police) (Chapter 3 Appendix 1; Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures, 2011). The

multiagency team analyses many aspects of the case focusing on the risk information and management as well as the assessment of the victim's needs. In this, it acts similarly to MARAC (Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures, 2011; Dziennik Urzędowy Komendy Głównej Policji, 2008). However, the team also takes into consideration all possible solutions in a particular case that could minimise the risk of re-victimisation and limit the risk of continued perpetration by the suspect (e.g. referring to an appropriate therapy).

An injury report issued by the Forensic Medicine Unit or (if not possible) from another medical practitioner can be obtained to assess the extent of a physical or severe mental injury. These can later be used as evidence during the investigation by police, Prosecution Services or during the court trial. These reports are treated as "hard evidence" and taken into careful consideration even on the preliminary level of the Judicial Process (Chapter 3 Appendix 1).

Several non-governmental agencies provide different forms of aid to the victims of domestic violence and abuse, mostly female victims (except for "the Father's Site", NGO advising male victims of domestic violence, and "the Blue Line", providing information to all the victims of domestic violence regardless of sex). The most often provided is support through the Judicial Procedures and legal aid. If needed, some non-governmental organisations offer psychological consultations along with the family and addiction therapy. Similar help is provided by the Crisis Centres (Centrum Informacji Kryzysowej) run by the government (CiK, 2015). However, to be offered the most practical aid a victim should contact the Communal, County or Municipal Welfare Centre, receiving funds from the government.

Many shelters for men, women, women with children or pregnant, prepared for taking in persons escaping domestic abuse (not only the homeless) are run by the Catholic Church or church-related

foundations [e.g. Friar Albert Society]. At the same time, other places of refuge are managed by the Non-Governmental Organisations, many of which cooperate with the Communal or Municipal Welfare and can be found on-line (ngo.pl, 2019).

When a victim of domestic violence or abuse decides to live without a partner he or she can consider one of two other options: applying for communal accommodation (which depends on the income and family circumstances of an applicant as pregnant women cannot be refused (Lewoc, 2019) or obtaining a court-issued eviction order for an abusing and non-contributing to the family needs a partner (Nowe Zycie Bez Przemocy, 2019; Infor.PL.PRAWO, 2019).

3.3.2 Stages of investigation and Judicial Process

Incident

The Police and Prosecution Services in Poland investigate cases of a domestic disturbance that have been reported to them. Any incident of violence can be reported to the police in the time it occurs or sometime after it was perpetrated. When the incident is reported during (or shortly after), it occurs, a police patrol of two preventative division officers is sent to check what is happening on-site and act appropriately. The priority of the intervention team is to ensure the safety of the victim, witnesses (especially children) and perpetrator (Cyma-Konska, 2012p.7).

The identified perpetrator faces one of two most likely actions applied to him or her: a caution was given by the patrol (where police officers calm down the suspect and victim and educate about the steps that are likely to be taken if the situation continues, which is the first line of response), taking the perpetrator to the sobering-up station³⁹ or arrest him or her (in the cases with severe abuse and/or violent perpetrator). There is no specific pro arrest policy in the cases of domestic violence;

³⁹ "A medical facility in which intoxicated people can spend one night to become sober under medical control, in the Czech Republic, Russia and Poland. Those in need of more long-term treatment will be referred to a rehabilitation centre" (PARPA, 2019; Ministry of Internal Affairs, 1979)

the intervening officers use their judgement to identify a perpetrator (or primary perpetrator) and police intelligence along with the information of the previous incident to choose an appropriate response. This also applies to dual arrests and counter-allegations cases (Cyma-Konska, 2012p.7-8).

During a domestic disturbance/abuse intervention the victim is asked if he/she- would like to report a crime, as according to the Polish Law, an offence of domestic violence between two adults has to be officially reported in writing to Police or Prosecuting Services. The victim, witnesses and suspect can be interviewed on-site to gain the first account. This is also when the Blue Card Form A can be filled in. Suppose the victim is prepared to make a written statement. In that case, he or she can be taken to the Police Station and interviewed by a police officer designated from an investigation team, or report there to make a statement later. Some of the investigation officers specialise in domestic abuse cases; however, they are not restricted to this type of cases, and there aren't specific domestic abuse units. The alleged victim and perpetrator are provided with the written and oral explanation of their rights and duties, as well as cautioned about the penalties of perjury, before the interview (Cyma-Konska, 2012p.7-9; Rada Ministrów RP, 2011).

In any case, the victim is informed about provisions offered by the Judicial System, social services like Communal, Municipal or County Welfare⁴⁰, and local as well as national voluntary aid agencies. If needed, the victim and/or perpetrator are provided with first aid and taken to the hospital for a forensic medical examination. When risks to children are identified, they can be referred to social services and/ or brought to the attention of District Court. Suppose during an intervention, one of the parties expresses a wish to leave the premises. In that case, the officers are to assist his/her (and the children, if a non-abusive parent wants to take them) as they make sure he or she collects the personal belongings and leaves undisturbed (Cyma-Konska, 2012 p.7-11).

⁴⁰ Gminny Ośrodek Pomocy Społecznej, Miejski Ośrodek Pomocy, Powiatowe Centrum Pomocy Rodzinie

Investigation and Prosecution

After receiving a report about domestic abuse from the victim, witness, Community Police Officer, social services etc., the police start the pre-investigation process to establish whether there is a case to answer and a chance to collect enough evidence to proceed with the investigation (Article 12 § 1 and § 2, Article 14 § 1 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997, p.3). At this stage, many victims express a wish to cease prosecution of his or her spouse and issue a caution instead. Polish Criminal Law specifies that if a victim withdraws his or her statement the case is discontinued except claims with "hard evidence" already collected (and usually severe injuries and/or any witnesses prepared to testify). The Code of Criminal Procedure regulates that a person is allowed to withdraw his or her statement or refuse to testify in cases involving the next of kin (Article 182 § 1 and 183 § 1 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.56).

In cases where there is suspicion of a domestic disturbance, a local Community Police Officer tries to visit and speak to both parties involved. The offices usually suggest possible solutions to the problem such as marriage mediation or therapy, substance abuse treatment, psychological aid or even separation (if both partners are not able to live together peacefully). This is also the stage where the Blue Card Procedures are implemented (Dziennik Urzędowy Komendy Głównej Policji, 2012; Cyma-Konska, 2012 p.11).

In Poland, similarly to England, the Police and Prosecution Service cooperate to cover different stages of investigation and act in a complementary way in the prosecution (Crown Prosecution Service, 2013). In Poland, the degree of cooperation varies, depending on whether the case has been given the status of an investigation (in less complicated or less severe case) or an inquiry (more complicated or with more severe allegations). Although an investigation can be run by a

prosecutor entirely, in the majority of cases, a designated police officer from an investigation department performs several tasks to collect different forms of evidence. It may also happen that police officer perform some tasks before seeking advice; the sequence depends on the circumstances, specific regulations (Dziennik Urzędowy KGP, 2012) and experience of the investigator and his team supervisor. The officers may perform the majority of the investigation tasks: interviewing, crime scene examination, supervising the forensic team, gathering intelligence by the Community Police Officers coordination, obtaining past medical records. The prosecutor applies for expertise from forensic analysis of the crime scene (if necessary), forensic medicine, psychiatry and other expert-performed reports. The prosecutor can decide to interview the victim, perpetrator and some or all witnesses further as well as seeking information from other agencies before deciding whether it is in the public interest (Article 15 § 1-3 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.3-4). In cases where there is enough evidence for continuing to investigate and charge the perpetrator or whether the case should be discontinued (Article 17 § 1 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p. 4-5). When the case is classified as an inquiry, the prosecutor performs most of the tasks he or herself, as stated in the Criminal Procedure Code (Article 15 § 1 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.3).

When being prosecuted, the case may be referred for court mediation, if both parties (victim and perpetrator) decide to try to come to terms with each other. The two most likely outcomes of court mediation are marriage counselling and therapy or –in the case of not being able to reach an agreement – going back to the criminal proceedings (Article 23a §1-8 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.7-8).

The case may be dropped at this stage if there is not enough evidence to support the prosecution or in most instances where a victim withdraws his or her statement. There is no formal threshold test to

be applied by the Prosecuting Services; however, there has to be enough evidence against the defendant to charge, and the public interest must be met. Thus, even if codified differently to English Law, the same conditions must be fulfilled to proceed with the case and forward it to the court. The guilty plea that can be accepted at this or an earlier stage usually results in a lower sentence by the court (Article 23a § 6 and 8 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.8; Sitarska, 2006 p.66-68).

In cases where there is insufficient evidence to fit the specifications of domestic abuse, the dependence of the victim⁴¹ (Sledziwski, 2016 p.150-151; Wrona, 2016 p.143-145). And lack of ability to defend him or herself and/or lack of evidence supporting the continuity of abuse) the qualification of the offence can be changed, and the suspect prosecuted ex officio. An ex officio complaint or a private prosecution can be brought by the victim depending on the type of offence. If there is evidence of child abuse, the case is referred to the District Court (Article 21 § 1-2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.9; Sledziwski, 2016 p.148-149).

Courts

The courts in Poland make decisions regarding the hearing or trial and sentencing but also about applying preventive measures. The ultimate guide to these is The Penal Code and Criminal Proceedings Code (Article 21 § 1-2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.9).

⁴¹ Which is difficult to prove. Dependence of the victim is as one of the main constituents of the abuse definition as defined by the Polish Penal Code and often is the key feature the court takes into consideration when judging domestic abuse cases. The underlying assumption being that if the alleged victim is financially independent, he or she can leave the perpetrator anytime and as such end the situation, which in that instance does not fulfil all characteristics of domestic violence/abuse. If, however, the victim is not financially independent, the definition of dependence is fulfilled, and the case is classified and processed by the judicial system as domestic violence/abuse (art 207.1).

3.3.3 Preventive measures

Chapter X of the Polish Penal Code specifies the number of preventive measures that can be imposed by the court at the request of a prosecutor. This includes "committing to a closed medical institution only when it is necessary to prevent repeat reoffending" and the "prohibited act is connected with mental illness, mental impairment or addiction to alcohol or other prescript or prohibited drugs". The referral to a mental health institution is an option in use (Article 260 § 1-2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.91); however, the most common preventive measures taken by the Judicial System are arrest and bail (PPC, 1997 p.38-41).

A suspect may be arrested during the police intervention when the first call about domestic abuse is received (Articles 257§ 1-2, 258 § 1-4, 259 § 1-4, 261 § 1-3, 262 § 1-3 and 263 § 1-8 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.89-92). In the instances when he or she is violent, during a subsequent incident perpetrated by the suspect, the bail conditions are being violated, or there is a justified suspicion that the suspect may attempt to destroy the evidence and/or interfere with victim or witnesses to prevent the course of justice (Cyma-Konska, 2012). After making an arrest, an investigation officer contacts a prosecutor, who can apply for an arrest or bail issued by the court (Article 266-274 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.94-96).

The conditions of bail are decided after careful consideration and concerning the past incidents, history and behaviour of a suspect (which may suggest interfering with the victim or witnesses) or perpetrator's mental health or substance abuse problems. The likely conditions of bail are non-molestation order, order to leave the accommodation shared with a victim, reporting to the local police station between three times a week to once or twice a day; not leaving the country, town or district, avoiding certain premises or areas, commencing substance abuse treatment (Articles 275-277 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.96-98). In the case of violating the bail conditions, the

suspect can be arrested and kept in custody until the trial (Article 263 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.92-93, Dziennik Urzędowy KGP, 2012).

3.3.4 Trial and sentencing

Sexual abuse, bodily injury, threats and harassment along with other cases related to domestic violence as well as domestic abuse as described by article 207 (PPC, 1997) are heard before the Criminal Department of a District Court. The Family Court makes decisions regarding abuse cases of child abuse or neglect, parental custody and contract disputes (Articles 58, and 107-112 of The Family and Guardianship Code, 1964 p. 19, 38-40). Each type of court acts in the best interest of most vulnerable persons in the family. Especially in cases with counter-allegations, where, in many instances- both partners are violent, the court's primary concern would be well being of family dependents – or children (e.g. Sledziewski, 2016 p. 194-197, 207).

Following the guidance of the Criminal Procedure Code, the trial is presided over by one appointed court judge (without a jury) who acts as an impartial decision-maker in the pursuit of justice interpreting the law, assessing the evidence presented, controlling how the trial unfolds in the courtroom and deciding on the sentence on conviction. The role of a judge is to establish what occurred during an alleged incident and act upon that knowledge (Article 2 § 2 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.2; Rogozinski, 2015).

The prosecutor's role is to present the evidence and try to prove the charge. The lawyer (barrister), who acts on behalf of the defendant, tries to present and interpret the circumstances in favour of his or her client. In cases of domestic violence, the defendant may or may not appoint a lawyer; the decision depends on the suspect's choice, budget and whether he or she makes an application for a public defender. A victim or victim's relative may choose to act as an auxiliary prosecutor (Article 53 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.16-17). The trial may be fast-tracked in cases where a

defendant pleads guilty, and his responsibility is beyond a reasonable doubt. However, this is quite rare (Article 335 § 1 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p. 125).

The statutory sentences decided in cases of domestic abuse or abuse connected crimes are stated in the Penal Code with a minimum and maximum punishment. The punishment is decided on conviction by a presiding judge—the sentence or decision to discontinue investigation at every stage of the judicial system. The appealed of the decision to discontinue the proceedings needs to be brought up within seven days, and appeal of the court sentence within 14 days of receiving a verdict in writing. The appeal hearing is to be brought before the Regional Court (Article 445 § 1 and Article 460 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997 p.159-160, 163).

As regulated by the Act from 6th of June 1997, apart from imprisonment, the court can sentence suspended imprisonment, but also bind over to attend psychological, psychiatric or marriage therapy, anger management. Probation under a court-appointed probation officer or social probation officer or commit to a closed medical institution for substance abuse or mental illness therapy can also be sentenced (Senat RP, 2009). There are, however, no official statistics about how frequently this alternative sentencing is used in the cases of domestic violence.

3.4 Summary

The first part of the next chapter introduces theoretical foundations explaining IPV perpetration and victimisation. It focuses on female abuse perpetration. Sociocultural perspectives are discussed first, introducing the feminist theoretical framework, which is followed by power and resource theories, individual theories, the nested ecological and three-level model of perceived influences on aggression against an intimate partner. Finally, it discusses evolutionary frameworks with a focus on intimacy with the target theory by Cross and Campbell (2012).

In the second part of the chapter, the pioneering work on measuring IPV is introduced, with a focus on Conflict Tactics Scales. The typology of measuring the context of aggression by Johnson is summarised.

In the later part of the chapter, the known aspects of female IPV perpetration and victimisation are described. The prevalence, problem of violence/abuse recognition, reporting and attrition of cases during processing by the judicial system are discussed along with the reasons for and consequences of IPV for male and female victims.

The last part of the chapter introduces theories regarding the possible influence of women's empowerment on their perpetration of a crime, including IPV.

The last part of the chapter introduces theories about the possible influence of women empowerment on their perpetration of a crime, including the IPV.

Chapter 4: Women as perpetrators of domestic violence (a literature review)

4.1 Theoretical Foundations and/or Conceptual Framework

There are several theoretical foundations or conceptual frameworks that try to explain IPV perpetration in intimate relationships, analysing the phenomenon on different levels and from different perspectives. Even though most of the researchers focus on the male to female and mutual IPV/abuse perpetration, in the author's view these two are linked should be analysed in relation to each other, using more than one conceptual framework.

Different researchers classify the theoretical foundations in different ways. This chapter divides the frameworks into two main categories: sociocultural and evolutionary as offering proximate and ultimate explanations of the origin of partner abuse. It then discusses the different ways of measuring the incidence and severity of interpersonal violence.

4.1.1 Sociocultural frameworks

Feminist perspectives

Feminist perspectives generally see domestic violence as mainly perpetrated by men towards women and link it with patriarchy and its social structures which established male dominance over women (e.g. Gilfus et al. 2010, Dobash and Dobash, 1979). Intimate partner violence is seen as one of the tools used by men to maintain their superior position over females (e.g. Campbell *et al.*, 1992). The inequalities between men and women that had become socially structured are replicated, resulting in men not perceiving women as their equals, holding more power in private and public life as well as controlling the resources (e.g. Ackerson and Subramanian, 2008). According to this argument, supported with the agency data research, women are at much higher risk of IPV than

men, which is proven by women being the majority of users of domestic violence services and legal protection (e.g. Walby and Towers, 2018, Hester, 2005, 2013).

According to the feminist theory, the reason for female use of violence is explained by self-defence, defending children and/or deferring the abusive male partner from further abuse perpetration (e.g. Dobash and Dobash, 1992; Kellman and Mercy, 1992; Cascardi & Vivian, 1995; Barnett et al., 1997).

Within the feminist perspective, there are several concepts, models and theories; most prevalent being: the cycle of violence, learnt helplessness, the battered woman syndrome, and Power and Control Wheel.

The cycle of violence was introduced by Walker (1979). It is a model of phases occurring in an abusive relationship: the tension building mechanism, an outburst of aggression, and finally, the honeymoon period. The events happen in the cycle. This model explains why abused women don't leave their partners and stay in the relationship believing the abuser changed his behaviour, which may be even true, in some cases (Walker, 2006). The critics of this theory argue that the model doesn't explain why the abuser targets only his partner and not the other people (Ali and Naylor, 2013).

The theory of **learnt helplessness** has developed from drawing similarities between animals subjected to electrical shocks in the cages and IPV victims. In both cases, the individuals experiencing violence, either through the shocks or domestic violence developed the feeling of helplessness, passiveness and inability to escape their unpleasant environment even if given a chance (Peterson et al., 1993; Walker 1977).

The **battered woman syndrome**, also proposed by Walker in 1979, incorporates the theories of the cycle of violence and learnt helplessness explaining the victim's retaliation. It has later been

supplemented and identified as a type of PTSD (Walker, 2006). In this explanation, a person can be classified as battered after he/she survived at least two cycles of violence. This theory explains the psychological state of victims of domestic violence (Scholz, 2000). It is used by the professionals responsible for improving the mental health of the female survivors of abuse, especially victims who harm their abusers and/or decision-makers within the Judicial System (e.g. Dutton and Corvo, 2006). Some practitioners extend the battered woman syndrome into male victims of the IPV, arguing that irrespective of gender, the victims may experience the same cycle of violence and develop the same form of PTSD (Steinmetz, 1978, Tracy, 2012; Mayo Clinic, 2017)

The Power and Control Wheel used to record several control tactics in the diagnosis of abusive relationships, developed initially been to describe the IPV towards women. It is a conceptualisation that explains power and control issues related to domestic violence, based on the assumption persons perpetrate the IPV in the desire to control their partners and create a relationship imbalance (Dobash and Dobash, 1979; Yllo, 1984). The Power and Control Wheel pictures tactics used by the abuser to maintain his/her victim in submission. It is divided into eight sections, each naming and describing the technique used, which are together the constituents of psychological (emotional, economic, verbal) abuse. Abusive behaviours are grouped under the umbrella terms: using coercion and threats; using intimidation; using emotional abuse; using isolation; using minimising, denying and blaming; using children; using male privilege; using economic abuse. The concept is consistent with a need for power, as identified in some men (Dutton and Strachan, 1987; Mason and Blackenship 1987). The lack of husband's resources like socioeconomic or occupational status, education level or income is related to the increase of their IPV perpetration (Hotaling and Sugarman, 1986; Ackerson and Subramanian, 2008). It is disputed whether some women are motivated by the desire for power in a relationship in the same way men do. However, the Gender

Neutral Power and Control Wheel (Bert Hoff, 2002) has been developed to research and record the same controlling behaviours perpetrated by women towards their male partners (Chapter 5 Appendix 5).

The concept of **coercive control**, used as a basis for constructing the Power and Control Wheel, is defined by the UK Home Office as: “a range of acts designed to make a person subordinate and/or dependent by isolating them from sources of support, exploiting their resources and capacities for personal gain, depriving them of the means needed for independence, resistance and escape and regulating their everyday behaviour” (Walby and Towers, 2018 p.5). It has been initially linked to using physical force to gain control in non-domestic situations and developed by Stark, who has seen the physical violence as only one of the four components of coercive control within the family settings, which the coercive control can be distinguished from the common partner assaults: “the extent of which the modes of oppression are embedded in the objective structural constraints”, enforcing gender stereotypes, its links to sexual inequality; and finally, the extent to which it restricts the autonomy of basic freedoms of the victim: freedom of speech, movement, and self-determination (Walby and Towers, 2018; Stark, 2009, p. 1516).

This makes coercive control a gendered social phenomenon performed by male partners on female partners to subdue them in personal life. According to this view, women are less likely than men to use coercive control over their partners because they are intrinsically less motivated by power and control than men; and as a result are to the minority of coercive control perpetrators. In contrast, men’s motivation behind the use of coercive control is linked to their differential access to relative resources and opportunities, which is linked with their attractiveness as long-term sexual partners; traditionally fulfilling most of the economic needs of their families. The fear of de-masculinisation, growing with the increased empowerment, political and economic independence of women,

threatens this *status quo*. Thus, coercive control, by its tactics aimed at the degradation of femininity and enforcement of gender stereotypes, is an available option of retaining a sexual partner and confining the woman to domestic service, while isolating from outside support (Stark, 2009, p. 1510-12, 1515).

With regards to its seriousness, Stark perceives coercive control to be an abusive form of power; more detrimental to women's well being than physical violence, because it takes away the from its victims the means to resist. Once established, the perpetrator of coercive control doesn't need to use physical violence (Walby and Towers, 2018, p.6).

The concept of coercive control has been developed further by Walby and Towers. Proposed by them term **domestic violent crime** (DVC) applied to the various forms of coercive control committed in domestic relation by the intimate partner or a family member, and resulting in the reduction of the resilience of the victim. This put the phenomenon of the use of coercive control in the broader context of domestic violence/abuse (Walby and Towers, 2018, p.1-22).

Their analysis of data on crime victimisation, including the domestic violent crime in England and Wales, and using a group of 30 000 -40 000 respondents, looked at seven distinctive aspects of the problem. The research confirmed a gendered aspect of the phenomenon, with a significant asymmetry towards female victims (74 per cent of all victims reported and 82 per cent of all domestic violent crimes committed against them). Repetition and seriousness of the crime were also found to be gendered, as 83 per cent of high-frequency victims (more than 10 domestic violent crimes committed against them in the last 12 months) were female, with less than half of them reporting 48 per cent of crimes. Amongst 22 per cent of the victims reporting injurious domestic violent crime, 77 per cent of them were women, supporting the claim that the seriousness of the domestic violent crime is also gendered. The same pattern emerged when looking at the repetition, with women being

83 per cent of high-frequency victims of more than 10 crimes within the last 12 months (Walby and Towers, 2018 p.13). This confirms the view that men, who reported to fall victims are the minority. Their victimisation was making 18 per cent of all domestic violent crimes, with only 13 per cent of them falling victim to more than 10 crimes against them, experience domestic violent crime, which is using coercive control in the domestic settings.

Walby and Towers pattern of repeats, also shows sex differences, with the percentage of injurious crimes increasing for women with the increased number of repeats (from 25 per cent in a single crime to 37 per cent for more than 10 crimes). In contrast, the percentage of injurious crime for male victims falls from 20 per cent in single to 6 per cent in more than 10 DCV committed against them (Walby and Towers, 2018, p. 13-14).

Domestic violent crime has been linked with the state of country's economy in general, as the number of domestic violent crimes increased during the economic crisis in the UK in 2008 (Walby and Towers, 2018 p.13). Its escalation has also been linked with economic inequality, and the decrease of victim's resilience, especially economic resilience of female victims as half of them was found to be unemployed or economically inactive (27 per cent). As the number of economically inactive women increased so did the frequency of DVC (45 per cent for a single crime to 52 per cent for more than 10 crimes). The frequency of domestic violent crime also occurred more often amongst economically inactive female victims (48 per cent) than the general female population of DVC victims (32 per cent). The percentage of victims reporting injurious DVC was higher among the unemployed and economically inactive (55 per cent) than victims reporting non-injurious DVC (44 per cent). To summarise, the low economic resilience of the victims seems to be a key variable in increasing the risk of victimisation by domestic violent crime, at least for women.

The feminist approach has been criticised for a unidimensional view that fails to explain that the roots of IPV against women may be different than sexism and racism (Gilfus et al. 2010). Another phenomenon to consider is the lack of explanation for female use of violence against male partners for the reasons for other than self-defence and defending children, expressing anger or getting the attention of male partner (George, 1994; Oglivie, 1996). It is also unclear why most of the men do not batter their partners, despite being brought up in the patriarchal societies, and women perpetrate IPV in same-sex relationships (Dutton, 1994).

Power and resource theories

Power and resource theories (which often overlap with the feminist approach and the concept of coercive control) see the source of IPV in the use of aggression as a socially accepted conflict resolution tactic by men or women. This attitude can become reinforced by observation or experience of violence in the family of origin (Straus, 1997). Part of the resource theory is the recognition of psychological stressors such as economic problems, which increase family tension as well as power imbalances between intimate partners (Bell and Naugle, 2008, Walby and Towers, 2018). Here, the more resource imbalance, the higher risk of the IPV, which is supported by the observance of the lowest level of physical aggression in egalitarian couples (e.g. Coleman and Straus, 1986; Gray-Little et al., 1996; Walby and Towers, 2018). In support of this theory, Bell and Naugle (2008) quote several studies (e.g. Cascardi and Vivian, 1995; Gelles 1980; Benson et al., 2003, Atkinson et al., 2005), linking high IPV rates with a greater level of stress and lower socioeconomic status of abusing husbands (e.g. Atkinson et al., 2005 Macmillan and Gartner, 1999; Ackerson and Sburamian, 2008). They argue that a crucial factor increasing the chance of falling victim to IPV for a female partner, men's relative lack of resources in comparison to their wives; as this lowers their superior economic status, which, in turn, makes men more prone to perpetrate

abuse. Also, women earning more than their husbands or who have a better occupational or educational status were found to be at higher risk of abuse as shown by many studies (e.g. Anderson, 1997; Melzer, 2002; Gelles, 1997; DeMaris et al., 2003; Atkinson et al., 2005, Ackerson and Sburamanian, 2008).

Theories based on the individual

According to the **social learning theory** (Bandura, 1971 and 1973), violence witnessed or experienced during the childhood from parents and/or peers can be linked to violence/abuse perpetration in adult life (Lewis and Fremouw, 2001). Some expand this theory, arguing that the use of violence in adulthood is related to the consequences of the violence perpetration experienced in earlier life (Riggs et al., 2000). Positive reinforcement connected with the use of violence by the person him or herself or witnessing the violence serving its purpose for someone else (Riggs and O'Leary 1989; Mihalic and Elliot, 1997), increases the chances of a young person using the IPV in his or her future relationships.

The **contextual/situational model** developed by Riggs and O'Leary (1989, 1996) proposes two components of courtship aggression. The first component is societal and personality characteristics such as the history of witnessing and/or perpetrating abuse, aggressive personality characteristics, arousability, prior use of aggression, psychopathology, and social acceptance of aggression that would influence the choice of aggression as means of handling the conflict.

The second component consists of some or all of the following: relationship satisfaction, interpersonal conflict, communication styles, substance use, intimacy levels, problem-solving skills, personal expectations of outcomes of violence. The degree of relationship conflict and partner's use of verbal and physical aggression as well as alcohol problems are also related to the initiation of the

IPV (Riggs and O'Leary 1989).

Personality/typology theories relate violence/abuse perpetration to psychopathology and personal characteristics: Borderline Personality Organisation, fearful or insecure attachment style and/or shaming during adolescence, which results in frequent dissatisfaction with the relationship and causes anger when feeling threatened by one's partner (Dutton, 1998).

The nested ecological framework theory and a three-level model of perceived influences on the violence/aggression against one's partner

Nested ecological framework theory (Heise, 1998) has been developed on the base of observable factors found to be related to different rates of violence against women and used by the WHO for analyses of IPV perpetration on various levels (WHO, 2002). The model takes into consideration a number of individuals, relationship, community and societal factors. The individual factors account for the gender ("being male"), witnessing violence as a child, having an absent or rejecting father, being subjected to abuse as a child, and alcohol use. Relationship factors include marital conflict and male-controlled wealth and decision-making in the family. Poverty and low socioeconomic status, associating with delinquent peers, and isolation of women and family are thought to be community factors increasing the chance for male IPV perpetration. Finally, the recognised society factors are norms granting the control over female behaviour, acceptance of violence as the means to resolve a conflict, prevalent hegemonic masculinity, linked to the dominance, honour and aggression along with belief in the rigid gender roles (Bhandari et al., 2008).

Ecological mechanism of underlying aggression was found to be responsive to the same factors for both sexes, even though it was developed to measure primarily male perpetration. According to this theory, life history variables (such as poverty, dysfunctional parenting or underperformance in

education) increase a chance of perpetration of the IPV in the adult life (Cross and Campbell, 2011; 2012, Odgers et al.; 2008).

Somewhat similar is the **three-level model**, developed based on reviewing published results of 16 empirical studies by Flynn and Graham (2010), which considers many risk factors of causes of IPV against one's partner based on their proximity to the outburst of violence. The model groups the factors according to their proximity to the outburst of violence, with Level 1 being most distant and Level 3 most immediate. Level 1 consists of the background and personal attributes of the perpetrator or victim, such as personality traits, upbringing, and childhood experience that may increase the chance of a person resorting to aggression, alcohol and drug use and mental and physical health problems.

Level 2 reasons are current life circumstances such as depression, stress, poor physical health, present alcohol and drug abuse and similar life circumstances that produce tension, which in turn may cause a person responding with violence to the elevated level of stress.

Finally, Level 3 reasons, called immediate precursors or precipitators of aggression, include the acts seen by the perpetrator as provoking or aggressive as well as his/her emotional or mental state at the moment and so-called situational factors (Flynn and Graham, 2010).

4.1.2 Evolutionary frameworks

Evolutionary psychology offers the ultimate or underlying explanation of human aggression based on selective pressure and adaptations to the environment to maximise reproductive success, including the use of IPV. Three key observations have been made regarding the constituents of aggression outbursts: anger, fear and the risk of retaliation. Firstly, no sex differences in experiencing anger but substantial differences in experiencing fear have been found (Archer, 2004). Secondly, women were found to have a lower threshold of fear (Brebner, 2003). This seems to prevent women from

engaging in physical violence perpetration, which could be detrimental to their reproductive success (Cross and Campbell, 2011; 2012). Thirdly, and overall aggression has been confirmed to be higher in men, and this pattern is consistent in different cultures (Archer, 2004; Campbell, 2006). Moreover, the difference in the overall level of aggression in men and women becomes lower in the instances where the risk of retaliation associated with aggressive behaviour for women also becomes lower (Cross and Campbell, 2011; 2012).

Expanding on this, Cross and Campbell (2011), looked for the ultimate, evolutionary explanation of female IPV perpetration, and introduced the concept of **intimacy with the target**. Authors argue that the best way to understand female aggression, including women's perpetration of IPV, is to acknowledge the specific selection pressures acting on women over evolutionary time. These pressures contributed to the lower female overall aggression outside intimate relationships but much higher levels of IPV perpetration within them. Women are generally less prone to perpetrate physical aggression on other females and men that are not their partners because of the possible cost of injury in the case of retaliation (Cross and Campbell, 2011). Additionally, the perpetration of physical aggression could be risky, and the mother's well-being is directly related to her offspring's survival (Sear et al., 2002 in Cross and Campbell, 2011). Therefore, there is usually no advantage to female reproductive success in using direct (physical) aggression as a strategy when competing for resources or high rank within the group.

Lowering the threshold of fear is caused by the release of the hormone oxytocin. This occurs between the mother and her child during breastfeeding as well as among the lovers during the orgasm. The hormone triggers psychological mechanisms lowering the threshold of fear in female mammals and at the same time, lowering male aggression rates. Hence, women's levels of aggression towards an intimate male partner can become elevated, in comparison with the levels of

aggression towards the unfamiliar men, due to lowering the level of fear. As such, the magnitude of sex differences in aggression can also be lowered in intimate relationships. This phenomenon is especially prominent in Western nations, where men are additionally socialised to lower the aggression towards females in general and female partners in particular, following prevalent cultural norms (Cross and Campbell, 2011). Supporting the evolutionary mechanism is that women's use of IPV still occurs in societies where the male use of aggression in marriage is seen as a private matter of the family, and as such unlikely to trigger the response of woman's extended family or the authorities in the case of male retaliation. Even in non-western societies, where men are not always socialised to withhold their aggression towards the family members, women's perpetration of aggression towards the intimate partners is still much higher within the relationship than outside it (Cross, 2011).

4.2.2 Pioneer research on measuring domestic violence and abuse

4.2.1 Conflict Tactics Scales

The Conflict Tactics Scales, initially developed by Straus (1979), are based on the theory that conflicts are an inevitable part of human interaction in relationships. The scales measure many tactics used to resolve marital conflict using different techniques: negotiations (which is not causing harm) or violence: physical or psychological, coercion and threats (causing harm to the recipients). The CTS1 and CTS2 record a list of behaviours directed towards a partner or perpetrated by the respondent without asking them for their cognitive appraisal. Thus, the CTS measures only conflict-related violence between the partners or parent to child.

The CTS is used for clinical assessment in family therapy as well as in small and large population studies such as The National Crime Victimization Surveys (NVCS) and National Family Violence Surveys (NFVS) in the US and several similar population studies in other countries including the

British Crime Survey. The standardised way to score the scales has been developed and presented in the CTS Manual (Straus et al., 2003). Several researchers and clinical practitioners have tested the consistency and validity of the scales.

The questions for respondents are structured to ask about the acts of aggression from more to less socially desirable. These acts are also listed in order of their potential to cause harm (Straus and Gelles, 1990; Johnson and Ferraro, 2000).

In CTS1, there are three levels of severity: none, minor, and severe. The behaviours from the beginning of the scale, throwing things at a partner, pushing or shoving a partner, slapping is considered minor violence. The following behaviours are classified as severe assault (or severe physical abuse): kicking, biting or hitting with a fist or trying to hit the partner with something; beating-up; threatening to attack with knife or gun; using a knife or gun (Straus, 1979).

Revised versions of the CTS1 and CTS2 have been supplemented with scales to measure the extent of victimisation of IPV perpetration. Three techniques of conflict resolution: physical assault, psychological aggression and negotiation have been scaled along with injury and sexual coercion by the partner and the injury as a result of assaults—amendments of the CTS1, which make it easier to administer created the revised scale. CTS2 presents questions on IPV victimisation and perpetration in pairs. The first question in the couple asks the respondent to indicate how often they carried out a listed behaviour during the past year (or another referent period) on the scale ranging from "never" to "more than 20 times", while in the original scale the mutuality types are: respondent only, partner only or both. These questions in the CTS2 relate to the physical assault, injury, psychological aggression, sexual coercion and negotiation used to resolve the conflict (Straus et al.; 1996).

Strengths of the CTS1 and CTS2:

The CTS measure acts and specific events that occurred; tactics and acts of physical violence of different intensity and other potential harm to the recipient. The events that the CTS ask about are the most commonly occurring acts of violence and the order in which they are listed was developed on the assumption that the aetiology and treatment of occasional minor assaults can be different than of severe and repeated acts of violence (Straus et al., 1996, Straus, 2007). Considering the severity of assaults, the scoring of assaults represents the seriousness of harm potentially caused. Minor violent acts are scored 1, kicking, biting and punching are scored 2, hitting with an object scored 3; beating up –scored 4; burning or scalding – 5; threatening with knife or gun – 6; using knife or gun – 8 (Straus and Hamby, 1997).

CTS is a widely administered tool used in several studies, with participants from diverse cultural backgrounds (Straus et al., 1996), and various sample sizes. It is relatively easy to use and allows measuring the violence quantitatively. It made it possible to research the prevalence of IPV in general populations in several countries.

There is a low correlation between social desirability scales, where the respondents are reluctant to report their socially undesirable behaviours, and research using the CTS2 (Sugarman and Hotaling, 1996).

The test is relatively quick to administer, and CTS1, as well as CTS 2, have even shorter versions, not providing the information about the injuries and sexual coercion. Additionally, the CTS indicates low refusal rates from the interviewees, and it can be administered in many ways such as during a face-to-face interview, telephone interview or computer-administered questionnaire, which have been found to provide similar results⁴²(Hamby et al., 2006).

⁴² However, some of the categories of violence were reported more often when using CTS2

Limitations and criticisms of CTS:

The CTS is designed to be used in conjunction with measures of **context** and **consequences**.

Using the CTS only is argued to omit the context of violent acts and blur the gender differences in victimisation (e.g. Johnson, 2006). The scales are criticised for not showing the gender differences in the **motivation of aggression** (Hamberger et al., 1997; Kimmel, 2002), its severity (Cascardi and Vivian, 1995), frequency, and consequences for the victims (Follingstad et al., 1990; Kimmel, 2002), including the higher number of women in shelters and hospital emergency facilities, and much higher homicide rates of current and former female partners. Additionally, the CTS is said not to include all forms of IPV such as stalking and failure to report the initiation of violence (e.g. Kimmel, 2002).

Even though the revised CTS (CTS2) measures injury received by the victim or caused by the perpetrator, the reported injuries are not directly linked with the assaults (Straus, 2007).

One of the most prevailing arguments is whether the research based on Conflict Tactic Scales show **gender symmetry** in violence/abuse perpetration. The findings show there is a lack of consistency in the results of research on the matter. Some studies (e.g. Carney et al., 2006) found women being more violent than men, others (e.g. Miller and Melloy, 2006) found the opposite, while yet another group of studies (e.g. Magdol et al., 1997) concluded violence/abuse perpetration to be equal for men and women. Many feminist researchers criticise the CTS-based study results because it finds the same or higher percentage of women assaulting their partners (e.g. Johnson, 2006; Dobash and Dobash, 1992). They argue that the CTS measuring the acts committed in a given time does not provide a full picture of violence experienced or perpetrated by the respondents in their lifetimes as the CTS obtains data about the current partner only. The scales, asking whether specific behaviour occurs or not, produce aggregated results as they don't record the number of episodes of violence (during which different behaviours recorded on the CTS scale are experienced or perpetrated). All

this produces the victimisation rates for women (found by the large population samples such as National Crime Victimization Survey of 1985) as being eight times lower than the rates found by the research based on the clinical and shelter samples (Kimmel, 2002).

Some criticism is applied to the **types of typical physical violence/abuse acts**, recorded in the CTS1 and CTS2, even though Dobash and Dobash (1984), who used qualitative methods in the research of abused women in shelters, identified as typical violent acts similar to these of the CTS.

Kimmel criticises the CTS structure for aggregating on one scale different forms of physical violence, which, in his view, changes the perception of IPV perpetration by both sexes. A smaller percentage of women perpetrates more severe and as such injure-producing violent acts in comparison with the types of acts committed by the male abusers (Kimmel, 2002).

There was a problem regarding the administration of the **CTS1**. Some respondents from the general population found it confusing on self-administration. In particular, the questionnaire regarding violence perpetration and victimisation. This was amended in the CTS2 to make it more straightforward when taking the test without outside guidance. Every question starts with asking whether an act in question has occurred. The later section specifies whether the action was done to the respondent by the respondent. It also shortened the time needed to administer the questionnaire (Straus, 2007).

Another problem with the scales is **underreporting of violence perpetration** by male and female perpetrators that have been found when using dyadic data; the extent of underreporting being greater for men (Archer, 2000). This is especially significant for severe violence (which is the smallest fraction of the force reported but the one that causes the most significant potential injury).

The next issue that might have arisen during data collection in large population studies, most of which use a form of CTS, is the possibility of some of the interviewed members of the household preventing other family members from disclosing some acts of violence in fear of retaliation (Kimmel, 2002).

Finally, the **sensitivity of the CTS** as National Victimization Surveys is questioned. Only a part of the CTS is used, asking about the respondent's victimisation but not his or her perpetration of violent acts. Because of this, the CTS used for National Surveys were found to have lower sensitivity than the CTS used in clinical settings.

4.2.2 Measurements with the context of aggression

Johnson's typology as an alternative measure of the IPV

DeKeseredy (2011), Kimmel (2002) and Johnson (2006) argue that the motives and type of violence/abuse perpetration are significantly different for each gender. According to this argument, the analysis of IPV should take into consideration gender identity, ideology, and include definitions of masculinity and femininity. In support of this view, they cite many studies which concluded that the female use of violence is aimed to get the partner's attention (Fiebert, and Gonzeles, 1997; Kimmel, 2002). Another reason is the spontaneous reaction to their frustration. At the same time, male-perpetrated IPV is more likely to be used as an instrument to achieve or restore control over the partner, producing the injury and terror (Dobash and Dobash, 1979; Fiebert and Gonzales, 1997; Kimmel, 2002).

Following this, and arguing that the CTS does not provide a full picture of the context for IPV, Johnson (1995, 2006; Johnson and Ferraro, 2000) developed his typology of violence. He identified four types of IPV, characterised as follows:

- **Intimate terrorism (IT)** is a series of behaviours applied by a violent and controlling partner towards the non-violent and non-controlling or violent and non-controlling partner.
- **Violent resistance (VR)** is a response of the violent and non-controlling partner to the use of violence and intention to control by his or her partner.
- **Situational or common couple violence (CCV)** is a series of violent behaviours used by a non-controlling partner towards a non-violent and non-controlling or violent and non-controlling partner.
- **Finally, mutual violent control (MCV)** is violence used by both partners in an attempt to control one another.

Johnson's typology relies on the degree of control as the main distinction between types of violence, while the seriousness of the violent acts (as identified by the CTS) can be overlapping between these categories. He argues that his analysis of interviews with women from several shelter and court samples allowed him to identify the gender differences in using different forms of IPV. Men were reported to predominantly be the perpetrators of intimate terrorism, women –mostly violent resistance, and the use of the other two categories of violence was symmetrical (Johnson, 2006). Kimmel (2000) adds to this, arguing that control-motivated violence is more likely to escalate over time, which was confirmed to be true for female victims of domestic violent crime by Walby and Towers (2018). Moreover, there seems to be a relationship between the severity and mutuality of injuries, as the more severe injuries less likely they seem to be caused by both partners using the IPV against each other (Kimmel, 2000).

4.3. Aspects of IPV/abuse addressed in the research

4.3.1 Prevalence

Violence against women caused by their intimate partners has been recognised in 85 per cent of worldwide studied societies (Levinson, 1989). Intimate partner violence against men, on the other hand, has not been identified or researched in the majority of non-Western countries. National Surveys on interpersonal violence in many developing and transitional countries, such as Cambodia (Gender Development for Cambodia, 2010), Moldova (Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights, 2000) or Albania (Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights, 1996) inquire only about the IPV against women and therefore do not record male IPV victimisation. As such, scientists, agencies and the general public, along with policymakers, are unaware of a scale of the problem.

According to the US National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey from 2015, the overall number of male victims of psychological aggression at the hands of an intimate partner in their lifetime was 34.2 per cent. Thirty-one per cent of men experienced physical IPV, with 28.8 per cent experiencing minor physical violence, and 14.9 per cent -severe physical abuse. As for women, psychological aggression was experienced by 36.4 per cent, physical aggression by 30.6 per cent (with 21.9 experiencing minor and 21.4 per cent severe physical violence/abuse) (Smith et al., 2018). In the UK, some form of domestic violence/abuse by intimate partners was experienced by 4.2 per cent of men (in comparison with 7.9 per cent of women) in the year prior to the Crime Survey in for England and Wales May 2018 (Office for National Statistics, 2018). However, the estimates vary depending on the country and sources of data.

The only comparative data collected in Poland come from the population poll by OBOP with 39 per cent of men and 61 per cent of women experiencing IPV in general. According to the survey, men

were 37 per cent of victims of physical, and 36 per cent of psychological and 30 per cent of economic domestic violence (OBOP, 2010).

The same poll revealed that in the instances of family violence/abuse, and when the victim was a male, the victimisation by male and female perpetrators were reported to be 50 per cent to 50 per cent. In contrast, in the instances of physical abuse, 60 per cent of perpetrators were male and 40 per cent female. In economic abuse, 42 per cent of perpetrators were men and 58 per cent women; finally, in the cases of sexual abuse were 62 per cent men and 38 per cent were females (OBOP, 2010).

In the view of male respondents from the same poll, women were the primary victims of the IPV, especially with regards to the psychological and economic abuse (OBOP, 2010).

4.3.2 Violence/abuse recognition

Researching the occurrence of male victimisation in intimate relationships, even in western societies, where female IPV towards male partners has been studied for over 40 years, is problematic.

Some studies (e.g. Povey et al., 2008; ManKind Initiative, 2012), as well results of the population polls (OBOP, 2010; CBOS, 2009, 2012) find, that both sexes have higher acceptance of female-perpetrated IPV⁴³ Perpetrators, victims and bystanders still tend to understate or fail to recognise violent acts as IPV/abuse when the perpetrator is a woman, and a victim is a man (Robertson and Murachver, 2009, OBOP, 2010, CBOS, 2009). In contrast, the same acts or damage done to a female victim by male partner would cause a greater moral condemnation and is more likely to be reported to the authorities (Robertson and Murachver, 2009; Felson and Feld 2009). Even so, there

⁴³The Polish population poll of 2010, conducted on the representative sample (OBOP, 2010) found that 21 per cent of respondents don't qualify the situation where woman hits her male partner as a case of IPV. And 75 per cent of respondents believed that men are the primary perpetrators of all violence. Sixty-three per cent thought that women the primary victims of the physical family violence/abuse; 68 per cent that they are the primary victims of sexual and 65 per cent of psychological violence. At the same time, 32 per cent knows a family where the abuse towards a male partner takes place.

is still a wealth of evidence that violence against women is still underreported their victimisation by intimate partners to the authorities.

According to several studies, men tend to underreport experiencing IPV and abuse as victims. The National Crime Survey in New Zealand for the years 1992-96 concluded that while female victims of IPV reported to the Judicial System 21 per cent of incidents of victimisation, men reported only 2 per cent (Moffit and Caspi, 1999).

Even if generally underreported, some research shows that female offenders tend to be reported more often when assaulting under the influence of alcohol and/or drugs. However, the impact of their acts and perceived damage to the partner, assessed by the police officers during the intervention or judicial system, is seen as less threatening and/or harmful to the aggressive acts perpetrated by male partners (Hester, 2013).

The more lenient treatment of female offenders of sexual and partner abuse by police officers and the criminal justice system has also been found by Felson and Pare when examining the results of many published studies (Felson and Pare, 2007). Additionally, research from Sacramento County California, USA, concluded that the role of a suspect's gender is a significant factor in prosecutorial decision making at all levels in cases of IPV. Female suspects have an advantage over male suspects in terms of filing charges, reducing charges (to felony rather than misdemeanours) and violation of probation when controlling for offence severity and prior criminal record (Kingsnorth and MacIntosh, 2007).

Reporting female perpetration of IPV

When looking at the occurrence and perpetration of IPV by both sexes in criminal samples, research from police databases revealed that men make only 8 per cent of reported victims of partner abuse in the UK (Hester, 2009). The discrepancy in Criminal Justice reported versus unreported

occurrences of women-perpetrated partner abuse suggests that there may be different rates and types of injuries caused by female perpetrators. Differences in abuse perception by men or other causes may also prevent reporting abuse incidents to the police.

Reasons for men reluctance to report their victimisation by the IPV

The social and legal acceptance of men's violence towards female partners decreased over the last 40 years. Most likely, due to the efforts of women's advocacy groups, backed by the relevant research, problem recognition and action taken by a vast number of individuals as well as institutions that raised awareness. In many countries, education and counselling programmes have been put in place, along with mechanisms to report the incidents to the police leading to the arrests of suspected perpetrators and sentencing them in the judicial system. As a result, changes in cultural norms regarding the acceptance of violence/abuse towards women have occurred (Straus et al., 1997; OBOP, 2010; Ministerstwo Rodziny, Pracy i Polityki Społecznej, 2011). The only exception seems to be rich, famous and powerful men, whose perpetration of the IPV is minimised or denied by the media, a significant part of the general public, and –in some cases –the Judicial System itself (Yardley et al., 2018).

In comparison to the change of acceptance of the IPV perpetration by men, the analysis by Straus *et al.* concludes that approval of marital violence towards male partners (in this case measured as approval of slap on the face) did not change significantly between 1968 and 1994 (Straus *et al.*, 1997). Data from the National Crime Victimization Surveys in the US revealed some, but not significant, decrease of male reports of their victimisation by intimate partners (1.6 in 1993 to 1.3 men in 2004 per 1000 people in comparison with 9.8 to 3.8 women). This trend, mirrored by the findings of the National Alcohol and Violence Survey, remained stable for over 17 years (Hines and Douglas, 2008), suggesting a lack of change in male victimisation by IPV.

With cultural norms accepting, at least at some level, women's violence against male partners, men reporting victimisation by a female partner are often seen as non-conforming to the cultural norms of hegemonic masculinity. As such, they may acquire a reputation of deviant or "unmanly", since the man is perceived as unable to exert domination over his female partner (Steinmetz, 1977; Migliaccio, 2001).

A qualitative analysis of histories of 6 male victims of female-perpetrated IPV from the UK by McCarric *et al.*, reveals several problems that men were reporting cases of victimisation by their female partners may experience. Starting with the trauma of abuse itself with lack of recognition by counselling services, through the partner's counter-accusation made to the authorities, to the lack of credibility of male victims in the eyes of the police and judicial system. An additional problem in some jurisdictions is the specific construction of law and its definition of abuse characteristics that may work to men's disadvantage when trying to prove the victimisation took place (McCarric *et al.*, 2016). In Poland, where the economic dependence of the allegedly abused partner on the abuser needs to be established for the case to count as one of domestic abuse (PPC, 1997) the Prosecution and Courts compare earnings of both partners. In instances where the man earns more than the woman and economic dependency may be deemed non-existent because the alleged victim is able to change his or her situation by leaving the alleged perpetrator. As such, the case may be deemed not meeting the specified criteria for family abuse, even though, the article 207§1 of Polish Penal Code (1997) defines the dependence as having three aspects: physical, economic or psychological, which needs to be proven beyond a reasonable doubt (Sledziwski, 2016, p.184-185, 187).

Yet another constraint to reporting is the instances where IPV is mutual, and establishing a primary victim problematic, as the cases that are not sharply defined, or in cases where the couple intends to continue their relationship. These cases are more likely to experience attrition when processed by the Judicial System (Hester, 2005). Analysis of North-East England police data from the years 2001-

2007, shows that dual perpetration was found in the next smallest group (11.8 per cent) of IPV recorded during police interventions. After the sole female perpetration, which was found in 8.5 per cent of cases. Despite the smaller number reported, female perpetrators of IPV were three times more likely to be arrested than male perpetrators; however, men tended to report the incidents where their case of abuse was more severe (Hester, 2013).

The growing rates of women arrested as dual and sole perpetrators in the US, and the UK (Hirschel and Buzawa, 2002; Hester, 2013) indicate that (at least) in the Western world populations are undergoing changes affecting family violence awareness and violence dynamics regarding either the rates of violence perpetration by women or men's willingness to report it to the Judicial System. These changes need to be recognised, analysed and addressed to provide adequate counselling and support for the victims, perpetrators and other family members affected by the abuse.

4.3.3 Reasons for and the consequences of abuse

Reasons and risks factors for abuse in men and women

A number of sociodemographic factors have been associated with the elevated risk of lethal violence against women by their intimate partners. The risk of homicide decreases with age increases with age disparity between the partners, poverty, cohabitation rather than living in a state-sanctioned relationship, and ethnicity. The risk increases with jealousy, separation from the partner and/or intention to leave the relationship, female infidelity and substance abuse. The same is true for the history of repeat violence, severe injury and threats with a weapon and/or to kill. The same is true for the presence of a gun in the household (Dobash et al., 2004).

The most commonly cited reasons for female violence perpetration in studies investigating the causes was self-defence and/or defending children, most commonly reported by women interviewed

in shelters or clinical samples or judicial system samples (Dobash and Dobash, 1992; Hamberger and Larsen, 2015; Bair-Meritt et al., 2010;) but also in community-based samples (Elmquist et al., 2014). Other reasons stated were emotional or psychiatric problems, in some cases, along with substance abuse (Hester, 2013; O'Leary et al., 2008). Two studies of male and female-perpetrated marital violence in Ukraine link the problem with alcohol abuse (O'Leary et al., 2008; Balabukha et al., 2016), one of them finds financial strain and alcohol use as a reason of husband-wife as well as wife to husband aggression (Balabukha et al., 2016). Financial strain was also identified as one of the reasons for aggression in marriage in a clinical sample of Argentinean couples (Falconier, 2010).

Evolutionary psychologists see jealousy as an adaptive trait preventing or reducing a partner's infidelity, a partner retention tactic, as well as one of the predictors of male perpetration of wife abuse (Buss, 2013, Kaighobadi et al., 2009). Possessiveness and sexual jealousy have been confirmed to be one of the most common reasons for wife abuse by research based on women shelter samples (Dobash and Dobash, 1984). Female jealousy is a significant predictor of female abuse perpetration in several studies in the community as well as judicial system samples (Caldwell et al., 2009, Gomes et al., 2011, Elmquist, et al., 2014). Laming (2018) pinpointed jealousy as a dominant factor of IPV perpetration for both sexes.

Women were found to be more likely to report their use of verbal or physical aggression towards an unfaithful partner than men under similar circumstances (de Weerth and Kalma, 1993). This suggests that this is one of the most important, and seen as somehow justified, reasons for female IPV perpetration. Harris (2003), calculating the odds for male-perpetrated and female-perpetrated homicide, came to the controversial conclusion that that female-perpetrated homicides have higher odds to be motivated by jealousy than male-perpetrated homicides.

A complex study of reasons for partner-directed violence by Stuart et al. (2006), based on the self-reporting questionnaire of 87 women arrested for partner violence perpetration, listed 29 proximal causes. Most common of which were: self-defence, poor emotional regulation, provocation by the partner and retaliation for previous abuse. The study found a high percentage of women reporting self-defence, especially among women experiencing severe violence by their partners. It concluded that women use IPV for a variety of reasons, and as such, their behaviour is likely to be multiply-determined.

Consequences of abuse

When looking at the consequences of female-on-male abuse, there are a few key facts to keep in mind.

With men's usually larger body size and proportion of muscle tissue, women are more likely than men to sustain injuries as a result of IPV. Even so, 35 per cent of injuries as an effect of IPV are sustained by men. According to many studies based on the CTS, women commit acts of aggression as often as men (Archer 2000). Women perpetrators of violence/abuse are, in general, less lethal than male perpetrators under similar circumstances. The judicial system has classified three-quarters of violent offences by women as simple assaults; however, there is one exception - their use of violence against the intimate partners (Greenfeld and Snell, 1999; Cross and Campbell, 2011).

Research published by Carroll *et al.* (2010) reports an association between relational aggression and lower levels of marriage quality as well as greater marital instability for wives as well as husbands. It was indicating that the problem of abuse perpetration by both sexes in heterosexual relationships where it is used as a conflict resolution tactic has negative consequences for both parties involved.

A narrative analysis of 12 men abused by their wives (Migliaccio, 2002) concluded that accounts of battered men and women follow similar patterns and as such display certain commonalities in terms of the perpetration as well as consequences for the victims: injuries, fear, and low self-esteem. Falling victim to IPV has several health consequences. Female victims seek help more often than male victims; however, male survivors of domestic abuse have elevated risk of PTSD, depression, suicide, substance misuse, and the latter increases their chances for both perpetrating and falling victim to IPV (Hester et al., 2015). Additionally, men and women victimised by IPV face an increased risk of poor health, chronic disease and injury (Coker *et al.*, 2002), high blood pressure and sexually transmitted infection (Hines and Douglas, 2015). A study of a large sample of male victims of IPV (4646), interviewed in the Clinical Forensic Medicine Department in Portugal between 2007 and 2009, revealed that permanent physical consequences of violent incidents were present in approximately 5 per cent. Minor physical injuries (qualified as taking less than nine days to heal) were present in about 92 per cent of analysed cases (Carmo *et al.*, 2011).

4.3.3 Reports from the general population and empowerment of women

Research by Archer (2006) links changes in IPV rates of men by women with the growing empowerment of women. The increase of women's empowerment was found to decrease female victimisation in cases of domestic violence. At the same time, it increased women's IPV perpetration. Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) argue that there have been societal changes in the types of dominant masculinity. In their view, the new, lower level of male aggression may make men more vulnerable to partner violence. These findings correspond with the convergence theory by Adler (1975), who predicted that the increase of equality between genders would cause convergence in crime perpetration and women-perpetrated crime rates will become similar to crime rates displayed by men. This has been confirmed by Yyh-Yaw and Gilles (2004). They found strong evidence for

gender convergence in the perpetration of a range of offences in Canada. The findings support the theory of narrowing of a gender gap in violence perpetration. It applied to all kinds of violent crimes apart from murder, where female perpetration rates declined more steeply than males.

4.4 Summary

Several theoretical frameworks are explaining the roots, perpetration and motives of the intimate partner violence/abuse. Some of them can be grouped as proximate, other as ultimate reasons for IPV perpetration. Sociocultural frameworks explain the proximate causes for the development and perpetuation of IPV. In contrast, evolutionary structures explain the final, evolutionary reasons - the adaptive function of aggression towards one's partner and how it can be useful in achieving the ultimate goal of reproductive success.

In the current scientific world, there are two main tools of measuring domestic violence: The Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS1 and CTS2), based on quantitative methods counting the most commonly used acts of violence; with CTS2 supplemented with information about injuries received or caused; and Johnson's typology, identifying the intent for control in which the violence/abuse towards one's partner is used. Based on feminist perspectives, the theory of learnt helplessness and battered woman syndrome, and the Power and Control Wheel, developed as a part of the Duluth Model, provides the classification of tactics used to gain control and exert power over one's partner. It's achieved using physical, psychological, verbal abuse and/or many controlling tactics. The recognition of various coercive control tactics, used to subdue the partner into submission, has been recognised as a form of intimate partner violence/abuse and treated as such by the judicial systems in some countries, such as the UK (Walby and Towers, 2018). However, in other countries, such as Poland (art. 207 § 1 of the PPC, 1997), which makes its recognition open to interpretation.

Several aspects are essential for this research: the confusion about the prevalence of female-perpetrated and male –partner directed IPV, its recognition by the victims, perpetrators, bystanders and the Judicial System in Poland and the UK; problems with reporting male victimisation and the response of the Judicial System to the cases of alleged IPV by women; finally, the reasons for, risk factors and consequences of the female-perpetrated IPV along with the question of what the women empowerment has to do with it.

4.5 What to expect of Chapter 5

Chapter 5 presents the methodology of the research. It starts with reintroduction and expansion of the problem statement—aims, Objectives and Research Questions along with the justification of which are presented next. A detailed description of the data sources, sample type and size and research design, follows; succeeded by the approach towards data collection and detailed description of research methods and design.

Information about the types of data available from the police and prosecution case files and the way they were recorded in the data collection pro forma follows. The types of judicial system statistical measures, demographic measures of the sample, physical violence measures, categories used to record the psychological/verbal abuse and controlling behaviours, as well as reasons for the use of the IPV/abuse in the database created for this research is introduced at this stage. It is also justified and presented with the rationale for the methodology used for data analysis.

Predicted results, based on the findings of other studies in the literature, are also discussed.

Then, information about the sample selection and population researched as well as data access authorisation process; along with the samples of access letters are presented. This leads to the part introducing the sources of data, data external and internal validity, reliability and possibility of research replication as well as reliability of the statistics used.

Later on, data collection and management is described in detail, including preparation of raw data, data coding and analysis procedures including the descriptive statistics, profiles of the alleged victim, alleged perpetrator, couple dynamics and number and type of legal procedures in a "typical" case processed by the judicial system in Poland. Finally, the tests used for further statistical analysis of the key variables that may have served as triggers (proximate) or underlying (ultimate) causes of violence/abuse are introduced, described and justified.

In the last part of the chapter, the ethical considerations regarding study design, data storage and safeguarding along with the limitations and delimitations of research design and their impact on results are discussed.

Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to explore, identify, classify and explain the relationships between reasons and ways of abuse perpetrated by women towards their current and former long-term partners in the criminal population of Warsaw and Lublin; two cities in differently developed parts of Poland.

This research examined several measurable characteristics of alleged victims and alleged perpetrators to construct their profiles. The characteristics and profiles of alleged victims and alleged perpetrators from two sampled areas were compared in an attempt to find the similarities and differences between the motives and modes of perpetration in regions of different economic development. An effort to find the variables that best explained the method of perpetration, reasons for, occurrence and severity of abuse had been made.

5.2 Expectations of the chapter

This chapter provides the justification for and information about the choice of sample. It links the research focus and method of data collection. It also explains the modes of data coding and processing used to maximise the amount of information extracted and used in the analysis. Data analysis consisted of an exploration of the frequencies of characteristics of the relationships, abuse perpetration and the response of the Polish Justice System in the cases of female-perpetrated and male partner-directed partner violence/abuse. This is used to show the multitude of aspects that are the constituents of abusive relationships. The construction of profiles of a typical alleged perpetrator, alleged victim and typical response of the Justice System in Poland describes the characteristics of an average case processed by the system and indicates the main points of attrition. An attempt to

find the key characteristics that can be underlying causes (ultimate reasons) or triggers (proximate reasons) for abuse highlights some of the possible analysis that can be completed within this topic. Quantitative methods had been chosen in the hope to break the ground for and inspire further research within the topic using the same or similar designs. The justification of research methods, modes of data analysis and presentation is done to ensure the possibility for the replication of the study. The multitude of variables recorded and analysed serves an encouragement of similar research projects that could be completed using data from the same or different communities, in the future.

5.3 Statement of the problem

The research questions for this study were inspired by the findings of my Master's Dissertation research in 2004 (Zukowska, 2004; also see Chapter 1, section 1.1.1). The analysis of data from the case files from courts and prosecutors in Wroclaw, Poland concluded that the reasons and course of abuse differ for women at the beginning and the end of their childbearing years. An additional finding was that women at approximately the same age and women much younger than their partners perpetrated different forms of abuse and used it for different reasons.

The current work has been designed to verify, expand on and provide the context to some of the findings that study, using data collected in two different cities.

In the course of this study, an analysis of abuse cases where women allegedly perpetrated violence/abuse directed at their current or former male partners has been conducted. Demographic data derived from the case files consisted of many measurable characteristics like age, age difference and education level of the partners. Type and length of the relationship, number and parentage of children in the household, sharing the property with alleged victim's or perpetrator's parents or other family members, abuse perpetration with the help of accomplices; finally, the

relative differences in the income of both parties, were also extracted. Basic statistical analysis established how often they occurred in the sample. The acts of physical abuse perpetration were categorised using a Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979) modified for this research to allow the collection of more comprehensive information and adjusted to the types of information recorded by the Polish Justice System. The reported reasons for abuse were recorded using a list of categories developed by the researcher. The categories of reasons used in this study were a modification of the scale used in the author's Master's dissertation research, which also serves as a pilot study. The acts of psychological abuse perpetration were categorised and recorded using a Gender Neutral Power and Control Wheel (Appendix 5).

The occurrence of different modes and reason for the abuse perpetration and number (as well as a percentage) of the alleged victims and alleged perpetrators displaying these measurable characteristics were summed-up and presented in the form of tables (Chapter 6, Appendix 1) with the rest of descriptive statistics (Chapter 6, Appendix 2).

In the next stage of data analysis, profiles of an average alleged victim and alleged perpetrator were constructed for Warsaw and Lublin separately. The purpose of these actions was to discover whether there are differences between the two populations: Warsaw, being the capital of Poland with more opportunities for women to become economically independent and allegedly higher women's empowerment; and Lublin, capital of the rural province which economy is based on agriculture and services, and fewer job opportunities for women, especially in higher-paid positions.

Possible relationships between assumed key variables, from descriptive statistics: abusing alone or using the accomplices, number of children, physical abuse type; and mode and reasons for partner abuse were tested using the Chi² test of association. In the instances where Chi² test allowed

making the conclusion that the association exists, it was followed by multiple Z-tests of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment. This permitted further specification of which of the nominal of multinomial variables was associated with the key variable tested.

5.4 Aims, objectives, Research Questions, variables and data

The aims, objectives and Research Questions of this study are presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.4.1)

The variables

In this research, several variables, in the form of measurable characteristics of alleged perpetrators and alleged victims of male-directed marital violence/abuse, were identified and used in searches to establish their occurrence and importance as the possible underlying causes of abuse (Chapter 5 Appendix 1).

Their choice was inspired by findings of previous research on domestic violence and abuse.

There were key themes or concepts found in the literature that affected the choice of samples and the variables selected for data analysis. Additionally, some variables were chosen because of the findings of a pilot study.

Variables indicating the level of women empowerment inspired the choice of sampling places as well as several demographic characteristics describing the alleged perpetrators, alleged victims and details of their relationships. These meant to encompass the research interest whether growing empowerment or somewhat increased opportunities of such, driven by the changes in Polish society at the end of the communism and in the transition period (see Chapter 2, sections 2.2 -2.6) were of any relation to the incidents reported to the Judicial System. The fear of de-masculinisation was

found to be one of the drivers of the IPV or coercive control tactics applied to women subjected to the domestic violent crime (e.g. Walby and Towers, 2018). Thus, the changes in women empowerment may be responsible for the increased rates of self-defence and/or defending children by the women in the violent relationships, which could be reported as the reasons for female-perpetrated acts of domestic violence/abuse.

The rising women empowerment, growing with their access to the higher education and well-paid jobs, has been, firstly theorised to result in the gender convergence in crime perpetration (Adler, 1975), and has been confirmed, at least to some degree (Yyh-Yaw and Gilles, 2004). Archer (2006) linked the increase of women empowerment with the rise of the number of female perpetration of domestic abuse, including partner abuse. If this is true in Poland, there should be a higher number of reported abuse cases per 10 000 inhabitants in Warsaw than in Lublin. Lublin, being a place with lower economic development, has a lower women empowerment index, measured as the chance for better education, high-paid jobs, and professional career (Archer, 2006) (see chapter 4 section 4.3.3). Another expectation would be the increase in the incidence of severe physical abuse (as measured by the modified CTS scale) rising with women empowerment and expected convergence in crime perpetration (see chapter 4 section 4.3.1-4.3).

Another aspect linked with the differences in women empowerment, in terms of their effect on the female IPV perpetration, was the level of education of alleged female perpetrators and male victims. The increased level of education indicates higher women empowerment. This enables gaining better occupational position and opportunities, higher reproductive health and increased use of birth control and smaller family size where women are better educated (Chapter 2, section 2.5) as well as lower woman's dependency on her partner as breadwinners. This makes the women possibly less stressed over men failing to provide for the family needs as a reason for female IPV/abuse

perpetration (chapter 2, section 2.6). The **level of education** found to negatively influence husband-to-wife violence (Sets and Straus, 1989; Hotelling and Sugarman, 1986) should also be negatively correlated to wife-to-husband IPV. The author expects to reveal a lower percentage of alleged perpetrators who achieved a higher education level (college or university graduated, Chapter 5: Appendix 1). If, however, a higher level of education indicates a gender convergence in crime perpetration (Archer, 2006), the frequency of female-perpetrated IPV should be higher among better-educated women.

To verify if the Judicial System sample is significantly different to the general population in terms of the structure of education the results will be compared with the frequency of higher education in the general population provided by the General Statistics Office (GUS) in Poland. It could also be compared with the results from a general population poll researching the levels of domestic violence in Poland in 2010. That study found that the lower level of education the higher chance of the IPV victimisation of women but not men. Men's victimisation was reported most often in the groups with A-level and equivalent as well as and vocational training (OBOP, 2010) (see Chapter 2, section 2.6).

The study by Gangestad and Simpson (2000) concluded that as the women's empowerment index (the constituents of which are **education** and women's own earning capacity) increases, the value they place on their partner's **earnings** decreases. Suppose this assumption is correct in the context of the criminal population in Poland, the Warsaw sample. In that case, there should be a smaller group of alleged women perpetrators in the group with approximately the same earnings and earning more and much more than the partner in comparison to Lublin.

The estimates of a **relative difference in income** between the partners are a novelty introduced in this study that proved its relevance in the pilot research. Since one of the preferable characteristics

of a long-term partner, according to evolutionary psychologists, is providing the economic support for the family (Buss, 2000), the expectation would be that man failing to provide for the family may result in the marital discord leading to the female-perpetrated IPV. This preference was, however, modified by the women's access to their economic resources that are likely to reduce their need for male parental investment (Gangestad and Simpson, 2000, p.584). Following this reasoning, the expectation would be that the earnings lower or approximately the same as the partner elevates a man's risk of IPV/abuse victimisation only if the woman's income is low. The latter is, however, difficult to establish using data collected in the sample.

However, the declared inadequate family support by the male partner was found to be one of the primary triggers of violence reported by the pilot research (Zukowska, 2004). The comparison of samples from two places of different women empowerment, and looking at the different groups of income differences between the partners, would verify whether there is any difference between differently developed regions of Poland in.

Social determinants such as gender inequality and socioeconomic status were found to be positively correlated with the rates of IPV perpetration against women in India and explained by a fear of men losing a dominant role in the relationships (Ackerson and Subramanian, 2008) (Chapter 2, section 2.3). However, a contrary explanation, offered by the power and resource theories (Chapter 4, section 4.1.1.2), links the resource imbalance with an elevated risk of IPV victimisation of women. If the latter is true for the Judicial System population, there should be a lower rate of male victimisation in couples with low differences in income. This could indicate a higher level of egalitarianism (e.g. Coleman and Straus, 1986; Gray-Little et al., 1996; Walby and Towers, 2018). Additionally, economic resilience was found to decrease the risk of falling victim of domestic violent crime for women (Walby and Towers, 2018). The analysis of frequencies of victimisation in the

couples of different relative incomes will allow verifying if this is likely to be true for male victims of IPV/abuse in Poland.

The number of children is one of the crucial factors modifying the economic needs of the families. It is recorded as part of the statistics describing divorcing couples (Statistical Office in Lublin, 2011; Statistical Office in Warsaw, 2011). Following this example, a number of children in the couples where the alleged abuse took place, was selected as one of the variables for the basic descriptive statistics as well as the further analysis of possible key variables that trigger the violent incidents or are the underlying reasons of such (proximate and ultimate causes).

The number of children in the couples divorcing in the sampled areas in 2011 and the analysed samples was compared to establish whether the difference was statistically significant.

Demographic variables consisted of the basic information regarding the alleged perpetrators, alleged victims and their relationships. These allowed the collection of basic statistical information for further processing.

Information about the **age** of alleged perpetrator and victim was used to find the statistics of occurrence in different age groups as well as work out the **age difference between the partners**.

The Polish general population poll by OPOP(2010), the largest and most comprehensive study of domestic violence in the country, recorded the prevalence of domestic violence victimisation in different age groups. Generally, most women reporting victimisation by the domestic violence and the IPV/abuse in 2010 were in their middle age – in their 30s and 40s, while there seemed to be two distinct groups of men: one in their 40s and another in early 20s. Also, the least victimised women were these below 30 years of age (Chapter 2, section 2.6). This inspired an interest if there are any similarities between the general population and criminal sample of men allegedly abused by their female partners and former partners.

Type and length of the relationship were of research interest because of the findings of Sets and Straus (1989), who examined whether the "marriage licence" is also a "hitting licence". Their research to find out the higher rate of assaults occurrence occurring in the cohabiting couples; only the second-higher amongst the married couples, and the lowest amongst the dating couples. The same authors also found that the most severe physical violence occurs in the cohabiting couples (Sets and Straus, 1989). This would suggest similar results should be expected in the samples examined for this study. However, the pilot study revealed the highest frequency of occurrence in marriages (35 per cent) and former marriages (51 per cent). The expectation would be the cases following a pattern similar to the one from a pilot study.

Two original categories of the relationship had been introduced in this PhD research design. Former cohabitation and former marriage categories were included because the pilot research and semi-official interviews with police officers revealed that the abuse often continues after the breakage of the relationship. The expectation of abuse occurring in these two categories is low (as indicated by the pilot study).

Age and marital status were found to have independent effects on violence by Sets and Straus (1989). Age was found to be irrelevant to Physical Violence Type I, which recognised who (Woman Only, Man Only or Both) in the relationship was violent. Their research found that all types of violence were most commonly occurring in the cohabiting couples, with the rate of both parties being violent twice as high as in the married couples. Additionally, Sets and Straus found that Female Only violence was least common in married couples, while Hester (2013), researching the criminal population of North-

East England, found that dual perpetration was almost twice as frequent as Female Only. The author of this expected similar results regarding the direction of IPV in the criminal population in Poland.

A new variable, inspired by the research on the age of the partners and introduced in the pilot study, was the **age difference** between the partners. Since one of the commonly reported reasons for female IPV/abuse perpetration is jealousy of male partner and/or infidelity of the female partner, the conflict between partner may spill into aggression (Chapter 4, section 4.3.3.1). Women with several childbearing years ahead of them, which makes them desirable sexual partners (Buss, 2000), and in the relationships with older men may be in danger of the elevated level of jealousy from their partners.

Figueredo et al (2001), who examined the influence of the **proximity of family members** on the occurrence and severity of family violence against women in Madrid, Spain and later in Hermosillo, Sonora, Mexico found strong support for the theories of Hrdy (1981) and Smuts (1995). He found the advantage of the proximity of male family members as prevention of female-directed partner abuse. His findings support the hypothesis that living near male relatives decreases the chance and severity of victimisation of women. This research offers a limited opportunity to find about the local density of their kin. Therefore, the information on whether the couple shared property with any family member, or women used any **accomplices in the perpetration** of the alleged abuse, was recorded. The assumption being that woman's family members could decide to get involved if they feel that her partner displays dangerous or threatening behaviours or doesn't look after the family needs.

Several variables recorded the **types and ways of the IPV/abuse perpetration**. The information, whether it was the first or subsequent incident, as well as the length of time the alleged abuse took place, were recorded. Direction or modes of perpetration: female to male or mutual were noted. The

general types of violence: physical, verbal/psychological or both were recorded, then broken into details: the physical abuse using a modified CTS scale (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1), the verbal/psychological abuse and control tactics using a Gender Neutral Power and Control Wheel (see Chapter 4, section 4.1.1).

Variables recording the **reasons for abuse** were inspired by a number of findings by previously published studies on the topic of the IPV against women and of women IPV perpetration towards their partners.

Several feminist researchers identified the proximate causes or reasons for abuse. One of the most commonly pointed to is reactive violence in the form of **self-defence** (Osthoff, 2002; Dasgupta, S., 2002; Moffitt et al., 2000, Hester, 2013). It is argued to be the main reason for the female use of violence against their long-term sexual partners. The findings of the pilot study place it as a second most frequently occurring (33 per cent), with **defending children** reported in 8 per cent of the cases. Hence, similar results are expected in the study with a larger sample. The place of sampling should not matter in this case.

Another variable identified as a trigger in the IPV incidents is **alcohol problems** and acting when the perpetrator, and sometimes victim, is under the influence of alcohol or drugs.

In Poland, problems with drug misuse do not occur as often as alcohol abuse. Hester (2013), in the analysis of criminal cases of partner violence in N-E England, found a significantly higher likelihood for the perpetrators to come into the attention of the judicial system and be arrested if under the influence of alcohol or having alcohol problems. In the sample from England, the majority (63 per cent) of the perpetrators appeared to abuse alcohol, while in the pilot study cases male-directed violence/abuse occurred because of problems with alcohol overuse (only over 6 per cent of women and 12 per cent of men reported). On the other hand, the study of the general Polish population in

2010 concluded that the risk of the IPV against women and domestic violence, in general, is greater where the perpetrator is under the influence of alcohol (OBOP, 2010)(see Chapter 2 section 2.6.2.3). Therefore the prediction would be that in Lublin and Warsaw, the alcohol use and miscues will be one of the common reasons for the female perpetration of the marital abuse. This should be true for the alleged victims as well as alleged perpetrators.

The ultimate or underlying causes of female perpetration of domestic abuse can be linked to **evolutionary biology** and increasing one's reproductive success.

Since a lower level of fear experienced by women towards one's partner is one of the likely causes of the female perpetration of male-directed violence at a higher rate than violent acts towards males that were not sexual partners (Cross and Campbell, 2011, 2012), even though women have) and a lower threshold of fear (Brebner, 2003), but both sexes experience the same level of anger (Archer, 2004), including some evolutionary explanations of the female-perpetrated IPV/abuse in the heterosexual relationships, seemed to add to the more complex understanding of the motives behind the use of physical violence and controlling behaviours (Chapter 4, section 4.1.2)

Jealousy and adultery were included as the possible motives for partner abuse in the pilot research. The assumption was based on the works of evolutionary psychologists (e.g. Buss, 2000), constituents of the theory of proprietariness (Serran and Firestone, 2004) and results of the preliminary research suggest them to be commonly reported reasons⁴⁴. Additionally, jealousy and sexual infidelity, especially in women, are one of the most common reasons for men's lack of men's parental investment in couple's children (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.3.1).

⁴⁴ The pilot research revealed that woman's jealousy was reported in approx. 13% of cases, man's jealousy in 13.9% of cases, woman's adultery in 15.7% and man adultery in 9.3 % of cases.

Among the non-human primates, the uncertainty of one's **paternity** is one of the main reasons for infanticide (Hrdy, 1977). It is also argued to have caused the evolution of monogamy (Opie *et al.*, 2013). According to Figueredo and McCloskey (1993), the certainty of paternity of children in the household is a crucial factor moderating the abuse towards woman and children by the father.

Women whose husbands suspect they support the children of another man are more likely to abuse them. They also are less likely to allocate the resources to meet their needs; as well as the needs of the mother. The paternity issue will be difficult to either confirm or disprove in the Polish samples and the pilot study established that in the vast majority of the couples both partners (82 per cent) were recorded as biological parents of all children in their household. Similar numbers are expected to be found in the main research samples.

Sexual jealousy of women towards their partners could be seen as one of the mate retention tactics; also used as a way prevent their investment in the children they may have with other women as a result (Buss, 2000)

Extracting parental investment from the man along with an attempt to force a man out of the family property, which would make it easier to claim it during the divorce proceedings, was the most commonly reported reason for abuse in the pilot study. It was noted in 87 per cent of cases. The choice reasons for abuse related to the partner's investment were **inspired by the power and resources theories** but also the problem of parental investment (see Chapter 4, sections 4.1.1.2 and 4.3.3).

Forcing the man to move out was the most common reason triggering violence found in the pilot research. It occurred in 50 per cent of cases. The frequency of reporting this reason is expected to be lower in Warsaw than in Lublin as the capital is the place with more opportunities of higher-paid employment for women; which (in theory) makes it easier to leave the partner and be able to support

herself and the children. If so, it would support the findings of Gangestad and Simpson (2000), who argue that women with higher empowerment index place less value on the earnings of a partner.

Financial problems caused by budget mismanagement by the woman and/or refusal of participation in the costs of living were found in the 8 per cent of cases analysed in the pilot research. Lublin is a less developed area of the country where we can assume more traditional outlooks on gender roles; this reason is expected to be reported more often, the value higher than in the pilot study, than in Warsaw, where the gender empowerment is higher.

Further data analysis also examined whether reporting financial problems as a reason for abuse occurs significantly more often in families with a higher number of children. This has been inspired by the finding from the pilot study (Zukowska, 2004) that the families where the alleged IPV towards male partners takes place tend to have a higher number of children than couples which divorced in that area in 2001⁴⁵

Judicial System variables were recorded to find out the details of criminal proceedings and provide an overview of the time and effort put in investigating the cases of alleged IPV/abuse towards male partners (see the full list in Chapter 5, Appendix 1).

The author decided to record basic information such as PPC qualification of the case, including whether it was changed during the proceedings. Other variables were: time taken to complete the legal proceedings, the number of witnesses and whether there were any court-appointed experts

⁴⁵ 37 per cent of couples had no children when divorcing, 39 per cent had no children, 39 per cent has one child, 19 per cent -2 children, 4 per cent -3 children, and 1 per cent had 3 and more; while in the couples where the alleged IPV towards men took place only 7 per cent of couples were without children, 43 per cent had 1 child, 35 per cent -2 children; 10 per cent had 3, while 4 per cent had 4 and more.

(including forensic medicine doctors, mental health specialists and social workers) evaluating the case.

The number of legal proceedings during processing the case investigation included information whether the alleged victims and alleged perpetrators were both interviewed as well as recorded the number and categories of witnesses if there were any. The outcome of the case, based on which the conclusions about conviction rates and points of attrition could be established, was also recorded, including the instances where the alleged victim withdrew the complaint or asked the police to issue his partner or former partner a warning, without taking the case further. These variables allowed the conclusion about the effectiveness of Polish Judicial System in cases of the male-directed IPV/abuse. (The full process of processing the cases of IPV/abuse is shown in Chapter 3). The most commonly occurring points of attrition were later compared with the work of Hester (2005 and 2013) on the point of attrition of IPV cases in Judicial System in the UK (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2.2.). The inspiration for investigating the effectiveness of the Judicial System in addressing the cases of domestic violence was data on help-seeking in the cases of IPV from the population poll by OBOP (2010). The results showing that only a minority of families where the domestic violence took place (26 per cent of the families with abuse in general) reported it to the Judicial System and more female than men victims did so (Chapter 2, section 2.5.2.5).

The Judicial system variables made possible construction of a profile showing the characteristics of a typical or average case processed by the Judicial System in Lublin and Warsaw. A separate analysis of judicial system variables from both sampling paces showed the regional differences in the Judicial System response.

5.4.2 Description of data sources

The research was conducted on the selected population that attracted the attention of the Polish Judicial System. Data were extracted from the cases of alleged abuse of male victims by their long-term female partners or former partners, recorded by the Police, Prosecution and the District Courts.

Data samples were drawn from two sampling places: Lublin and Warsaw. Lublin is the capital of the province in the east part of the country, where the primary sources of income are agriculture and services. At the same time, Warsaw is the capital of Poland, a place of highest economic development and economic prospects in the country (Eurostat Statistic Explained, 2016).

The sample was drawn from the Judicial System and as such non-random since only the criminal population was sampled. As such, the perpetrators that did not come to the attention of the Judicial System were excluded. The sample was also non-probability⁴⁶), since the process of sample selection, wasn't randomised. The sample was selected on the base of its accessibility, which makes it consecutive since all the accessible cases were included (Mathieson, K., 2014).

They represented the criminal populations of Lublin and Warsaw, were drawn from the areas of a similar number of inhabitants but were of different size: respectively 135 and 50 cases.

Information used in this research was extracted from the Judicial System proceedings of cases of alleged domestic violence/abuse perpetrated by women towards their current or former intimate partners (articles 207, 156 or article 157 of Polish Penal Code) from the following regional prosecutor offices: Lublin-North, Lublin-South, Warsaw-Wola, Warsaw Downtown-North, Warsaw-Ochota and two courts: District Court for the City of Warsaw and District Court for Warsaw Downtown. Extensive qualitative and quantitative information was recorded in a specifically-designed *pro forma* (Chapter 5 Appendix 4). The data sources were original interviews of alleged victims, alleged perpetrators and

⁴⁶ Jupp, (2006) The Sage Dictionary of Social Research Methods, Sage Publications, p. 196-197

witnesses. Additionally, where applicable, the information was extracted from official notes made by the police officers involved in the interventions (in cases of domestic disturbance), expert witnesses like forensic medicine doctors, psychologists, psychiatrists; probation officers, interviews with the prosecutors and records from the court-hearings.

Data were sorted into categories (to allow conversion of qualitative into quantitative data), coded, and recorded in an Excel database. The Excel database, in turn, was used to extract the basic statistical information in the form of descriptive statistics, alleged victim and perpetrator's profiles, and –finally- Chi² testing and Z-test of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment to examine the possibility of a relationship between chosen variables (the number of children in the household, mode of abuse perpetration, reasons for, and severity of abuse).

In the last part of data analysis, the samples from criminal populations from Lublin and Warsaw were analysed. Separately at first, then combined, as the increased sample size makes the hypotheses more sensitive, meaning indicating the relationship if it exists and the power of the statistical test is greater (Acharya et al., 2013).

5.4.3 Justification of research design as being the best approach to answering the Research Questions

There are a few factors to consider regarding this research design.

1. This research is exploratory. The topic of female-perpetrated and male-directed domestic violence/abuse is heavily under-researched in Poland, and this exploration of Judicial System sample can be used as an outline for further research projects. Judicial System files store a wealth of information and are currently underused in research. This study, during which the data was

collected and processed using the case files, assesses the suitability of these files for the future research projects.

2. Because the causes of and reasons for female perpetration of male partner-directed domestic violence/abuse are generally under-researched, the more information about case studies extracted the better chance to identify the crucial factors involved in triggering the violent response of the alleged female perpetrators. The limitations of a *pro forma* have been overcome by using additional information from the note section of the form. This allowed the recognition of recurring themes/variables that have been later recorded in the database. It was also a reason why the database is so extensive.

3. The police and court files are archived for a time stated by the Ministry of Justice Act of 2004 (2004a), meaning they are available for a particular time⁴⁷, and destroyed afterwards. Thus, this research is, in many cases, the last chance to preserve information from the cases from the years 2006-2012 and use them for research purposes.

4. The way information is recorded during the interviews by the Polish Judicial System is standardised by The Code of Criminal Procedure⁴⁸, completed by the police officer or prosecutor and, in theory, there should be specific categories of information recorded for each case⁴⁹. This, in turn, allows recording the research information using a *pro forma*, developed as a compromise between the information a researcher found worth taking into consideration and available in the files (Zawartka, M., 2017, p.91-97).

⁴⁷ (Chapter 2: Okresy przechowywania akt spraw karnych [Times of the criminal cases storage]). Category B art 2 § 7-8 case files, where the verdict was 25 years to a lifetime of imprisonment, are to be kept in storage for 50 years. The case files of cases where the verdict was over 5 years of imprisonment are to be kept in storage for 30 years. The case files of cases where the verdict was up to 5 years of imprisonment are to be kept in storage for 20 years. The case files of cases where the verdict of imprisonment was different are to be kept in storage for 10 years. The case files of cases where the verdict was different from the mentioned above are to be kept in storage for 3 years.

⁴⁸ Kodeks Postępowania Karnego, 1997

⁴⁹. The practice showed that the degree of completion of this information depends on how closely the officers follow these rules. Several case files in Warsaw consisted of very basic or incomplete information

5. Data obtained from the case files was a mixture of qualitative and quantitative information. For statistical analysis, the qualitative information was coded to be processed using the analytical procedures. More detailed information about the coding and data management is described in section 5.10.

6. To obtain information about the most common modes of perpetration, reasons for abuse and characteristics of alleged victims and perpetrators, descriptive statistics were performed as providing the best outlook of the problem. This information was later used to construct the profiles of an average alleged perpetrator and the alleged victim of abuse.

7. Profiles of the average victims and alleged perpetrators were constructed to compare demographic characteristics of typical perpetrators, their victims, characteristic of relationship and usual legal proceedings between Warsaw and Lublin areas.

8. Chi² test followed by the multiple Z-tests of two proportions were used in the search for the possible relationship between, what the author hopes to be key variables: the use of accomplices during the incidents of abuse; and reasons of abuse, abuse type and reasons for violence, the number of children and reasons for abuse, finally, the use of accomplices and kind of abuse allegedly perpetrated.

5.4.4 Approaches to collecting the data to answer the Research Questions for each of the variables tested

Statistical information on the occurrence and perpetration of common assault, aggravated assault and abuse (articles 157, 156 and 207 of Polish Penal Code) was used as a point of reference

comparing the trends in the occurrence of reported cases of female-perpetrated violence during the years of societal and economic transition in Poland.

Detailed information on the occurrence and course of violence/abuse in the couples was collected using a *pro forma* that was firstly developed by the author for her pilot study on the topic in 2002-2003. The suitability of the *pro forma* was analysed after the pilot research. Design from the pilot study was modified for this research. This was to ensure the collection of all possibly relevant measurable characteristics recorded during the standard Judicial System proceedings and to allow a comprehensive examination of variables that may have influenced the occurrence, severity and/or reasons for abuse. The introduced categories of reasons encompassed proximate or ultimate triggers of female-perpetrated and male-directed family violence/abuse.

The occurrence of controlling behaviours according to the Gender Neutral Power and Control Wheel (Appendix 2) made possible recording psychological and verbal violence/abuse.

5.5 Research Methods and Research Design

5.5.1 Description of the research methods used

Mixed methods research design

Mixed methods design as incorporating various qualitative and quantitative strategies in one project (Estevens and Pastor, 2004; Morse, 2010) was used for this study. Qualitative and quantitative pathways forming different components of the design were merged to extract the maximum information that the researcher anticipated was relevant to the profile of the research. Hence, the design used was - QUAN-QUAL mixed method design (see: Morse 2010, Figure 14.2), where the core component of the project was a quantitative and supplemental component of the project was

qualitative. The advantage of using a qualitative component when recording the information was an opportunity to explore the variables initially not taken into consideration when designing the research and using some of them to modify (in most cases by adding) the categories of information recorded in the database.

After the data collection, the qualitative data was transformed into quantitative and incorporated into the core QUAN(titative) data set.

Mixed methods are perceived as more valuable than purely qualitative or purely quantitative research methods (McKim, 2017). Several authors (e.g. McKim, 2017; Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2017) argue that a mixed-method design is a valuable partner of qualitative research allowing a realistic inside view into the cases studied. It also is an excellent tool to identify of the most appropriate (crucial) variables that influence the development of the phenomena in the cases studied (here: couple dynamics in cases of abuse perpetration and reasons for it; both proximate and ultimate).

This research design combined data from the police interviews of the alleged victims, perpetrators and witnesses; interviews conducted by the prosecutors, the information provided by the expert witnesses (in the form of reports or interview records) and notes from the police officers involved in the incident interventions.

According to the Code of Criminal Procedure (1997), an interview of an alleged victim, alleged perpetrator (assuming that the latter decides to provide them), and witnesses consist of three main parts: demographic information, unstructured interview and semi-structured interview. The information obtained during the first part of the interview (designed as a questionnaire) is quantitative. The second part, an unstructured interview, provides a wealth of qualitative information and is a record of the words of the interviewee, written as precisely as it is possible. The last part, a semi-structured interview to clarify and supplement the information provided in the former if the need

arises⁵⁰, consists of questions and answers designed to elicit the information from the interviewee to address the seven golden rules of crime detection (Holyst, 1996), which, in turn, allow police to establish whether the incident fulfils the criteria of a crime as described in the Polish Penal Code.

This part also provides information of a qualitative nature.

Because of the standardised interview structure, the same topics and categories of information are recorded for each alleged perpetrator, the alleged victim and a witness interviewed. The conduct of interviews by expert witnesses like forensic medicine doctors, psychologists, probation officers *etc.* are also conducted in a semi-structured and standardised way, providing similar categories of information.

Types of information recorded in the pro forma and the database

Based on the standardised way of recording information by the Polish Judicial System, both types of data (quantitative demographic data and qualitative information from the interviews) were extracted from the interviews and recorded in a *pro forma*, designed by the researcher. During the next stage of data collection, the qualitative information was coded and assigned categories (see the pro forma below). As such, it was transformed into quantitative information, recorded in the same database as demographic data and used for data analysis.

⁵⁰ The interviews are to address the seven golden questions of crime detection: who, what, where, when, what with, in what way, why (Holyst, 1996)

Modified Conflict Tactics Scale used for recording data

| | | | | | |
|--|---------------------------------|---|--|---|---|
| Researcher given number of a case | | Sample from | Lublin/ Lublin MET area/ Warsaw/ Warsaw MET area | | |
| Date of the incident (dd/mm/yy) | | Perpetrator | FEMALE | Subsequent incident | yes /not applicable/ No data |
| Age of perpetrator at a time of abuse | | Under the alcohol influence | yes /not applicable/ No data | Perpetrator's previous long-term relationships | yes /not applicable/ No data |
| Age of victim at a time of abuse | | Under the alcohol influence | yes /not applicable/ No data | Perpetrator's previous long-term relationships | yes /not applicable/ No data |
| Type of relationship | Marriage | informal long-term relationship | Ex-marriage | Former informal long-term relationship | |
| Number of years together | | Place of residence | Village/ | town with a population less than 100,000 | City with a population more than 100,000 |
| Type of residence | House / Apartment | House or apartment shared with woman's parents | | House or apartment shared with man's parents | |
| Education of a perpetrator | Elementary (up to 16yrs of age) | Vocational training completed (elementary +2-3yrs of education) | Technical school graduated (elementary +4yrs; vocational +2yrs of education) | Equivalent to A levels completed | College or university graduated (A levels +2yrs; A-levels +4yrs of education) |

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|---|---|---|
| Education of a victim | Elementary (up to 16yrs of age) | Vocational training completed (elementary +2-3yrs of education) | Technical school graduated (elementary +4yrs; vocational +2yrs of education) | Equivalent to A levels completed | College or university graduated (A levels +2yrs; A-levels +4yrs of education) |
| Estimated income of perpetrator (in comparison with victim's) | much lower/ lower/ | approx. equal/ | higher/ much higher | Abuse type | Physical/Verbal/ Both |
| Types of physical aggression towards partner | throwing objects/ shaking, pushing | hitting with fist/ kicking/ | threatening with knife, gun or a heavy object/ using knife, gun or a heavy object | | |
| Reasons for female abuse | woman's jealousy | man's adultery | man's jealousy | woman's adultery | woman's self-defence |
| | woman defending children | woman forcing a partner to move out (to gain the possession of material items or property) | | withholding financial support by man | budget mismanagement by man (woman expecting more contribution) |
| | budget mismanagement (or withholding financial support) by the woman | woman's alcohol problem (or acting under the influence) | | man's alcohol problem (or acting under the influence) | |
| woman's abuse towards children | Yes /not applicable/ No data | Type of abuse towards children | Physical/ | Verbal/ | Both |

[illegible]

Judicial System Statistics measures

Part of the *pro forma* recorded information about judicial system procedures used to investigate the cases of the alleged abuse. It was followed by registering several additional information: the place of residence in the form of town/city, and part of thereof (the address was not recorded to protect the anonymity), information about the persons involved in the incidents as accomplices or witnesses the length of abuse and basic demographic information about the alleged victim, including the fact whether the victim or perpetrator was under the influence of alcohol during the incident(s) was recorded. The information about the legal qualification of the alleged incident as stated by the Polish Penal Code, followed by whether the alleged victim, perpetrator and witnesses were interviewed (and if so, how many witnesses, divided into the categories), whether there were expert witnesses (such as forensic medicine doctors, court-appointed psychologist, psychiatrists etc were contacted for expertise), whether the alleged perpetrator was issued a warning (which was often what the alleged victim asked for), whether charges were pressed against the perpetrator, complaint was withdrawn by the alleged victim, how the proceedings ended (whether the case was discontinued, case was still in progress, the alleged perpetrator was sentenced or acquitted by the court), whether the PPC classification of the case was changed (e.g. from the abuse to assault), whether the victim appealed the outcome (and if so, how many times); finally: the length of time the completion of legal proceedings took to complete.

Initially, the researcher tried to make an assessment based on the six-factor test of credibility⁵¹ (Austin, 2000) to evaluate whether the report of abuse was truthful, and the alleged abuse did occur

⁵¹. The test is used to evaluate the plausibility of the IPV/DV allegations in the Child Custody Cases in the US. It takes into considerations as follows: 1. Objective data such as police reports or medical records showing injury. 2. Patterns of

or was falsely reported. However, further reading on the prevalence of false accusations of domestic violence/abuse proved to be inconclusive. There seemed to be no precise way of successfully assessing the number of false accusations (Mazeh and Widrig, 2016). Since in the feminist research and other studies on female IPV victimisation (e.g. Hester, 2013) treated all the reported accounts of violence as truthful, the author decided to follow the same principle in this research.

The information about the type of abuse that allegedly occurred was sorted into three distinctive categories: verbal/psychological, physical or both.

Additional information regarding the mode and perpetration of alleged abuse was extracted from the copies of **The Blue Card**⁵² the system was included in the case files⁵³ (Chapter 4, Appendix 1).

Demographic measures

Basic demographic measures such as type of relationship, age and education of the alleged perpetrators and victims were supplemented with additional ones, the age difference between them and relative differences in the income of both partners as well as the length of the relationship. The fact of sharing accommodation with the members of man's and/or woman's family was also established. Additionally, the number, sex, age and parentage of children in the household were noted.

abuse complaints and abuse allegations. 3. Corroboration by credible others. 4. Absence of discomforting verbal reports by reliable third parties. 5. Psychological profile and history of abusive behaviour by the alleged perpetrator. 6. Psychological status of the allegedly victimised spouse.

⁵². This tool was designed to identify the family violence quickly, identify the persons involved and serve as a deterrence measure to prevent escalation and alert the community police officers before an official complaint is made. The police officer alerted by the Blue Card report provides advice that is aimed to de-escalate the situation, provide essential legal information advice on the counselling and therapies available for the victims as well as the perpetrator of the incident.

⁵³ The additional information from the Blue Card System has been incorporated with police records from the alleged victims and perpetrator interviews

Physical violence measures.

The part of the *pro forma* recording physical abuse is a modified version Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS1), developed initially by Murray A. Straus (Straus, 1979). Their CTS recorded two major categories of physical violence: minor (categories: 1- throwing an object at partner, 2- pushing, grabbing, shaking and 3-slapping) and severe (4-kicking, beating or punching, 5-hitting or trying to hit with objects, 6- beating up, 7- threatening with a knife or gun, 8-using a knife and gun) violence. After analysing the information from case files, gathered in the pilot study in 2004, the researcher decided to modify this basic Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) to reflect better the modes of abuse observed in the sampled (Polish) population. New, more specific categories of physical violence were introduced and classified as three main categories of violence: minor, moderate and severe; each based on the possible damage their application is likely to cause⁵⁴. The minor violence included the following categories: throwing objects at a partner, shaking, pushing/grabbing, hitting with an open hand on the body, hitting with an open hand on the face; while the moderate violence included the actions: hitting with the fist on the body, hitting with a fist on face and head, kicking on the legs; and the severe violence included the categories: kicking on the body, kicking on the face/head, choking, scalding, hitting with objects on the body, hitting with objects on the face/head, threats of using a knife or sharp/heavy objects or a gun, using a knife or sharp/heavy objects or a gun.

Additional modes of perpetrating physical violence used during abuse incidents were also recognised and recorded under the category: other. The main, most occurring kinds of “other types of physical abuse” were identified and included in the analysis.

⁵⁴ This was decided upon after reading several reports by forensic medicine doctors appointed as expert witnesses by the Polish Judicial System in the analysed cases during the pilot study completed in 2004

The form used in this research did not recognise the number of times each of the abusive behaviours occurred. This kind of information is not always recorded in the police and prosecution files. Most of the interviews focus on whether a particular behaviour occurred, then whether it happened once or more than once.

Scoring the physical abuse scales

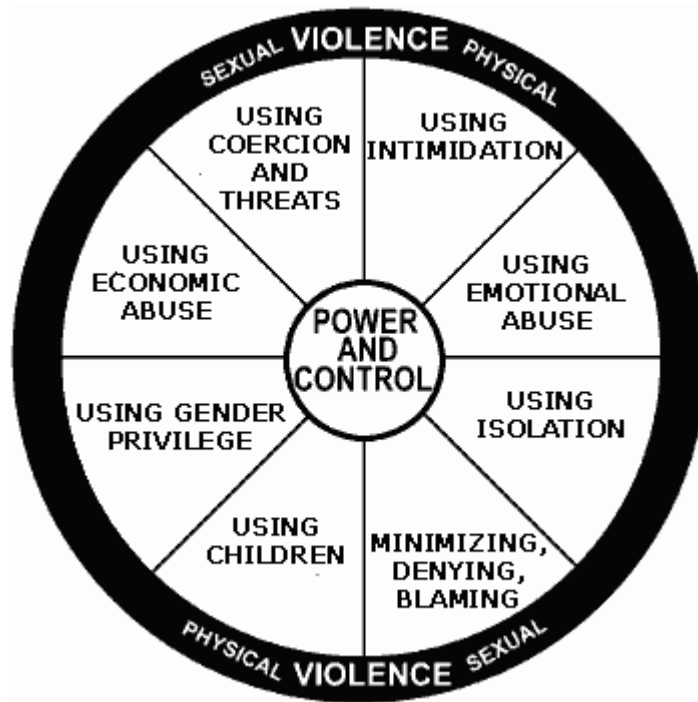
Scales scoring the physical violence/abuse were also modified in comparison with the original CTS1 and CTS2 (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.1.1). It was achieved by not allocating the original scores but recording the number of cases in which named forms of physical violence/abuse occurred, and this was reported in the form of general characteristics of the sample.

Psychological/Verbal abuse

To identify psychological /verbal abuse, the Gender Neutral Power and Control Wheel were used as recording the context of violence and the power and control issues behind it (attached below).

Gender-neutral Power and Control Wheel

(from the web page ADVOCATES AGAINST FAMILY VIOLENCE: <http://dvservices.tripod.com/id41.html>)



The wheel, developed firstly for the Duluth Model, Abuse Intervention Programs (Chapter 3, section 3.1.1.1), and later modified to become gender-neutral and, as such, be of use in the cases of female-perpetrated and male-directed family abuse (Hoff, 1998) records the following behaviours:

using intimidation

using emotional abuse

using isolation

using minimising

denying and blaming

using children

using gender privilege

using economic abuse

using coercion and threats

These strategies were identified during the police and prosecutor interviews of the alleged victims, perpetrator, witnesses and court-appointed specialists.

Reasons for abuse

Recording reasons for abuse was an original contribution from the author of this research. The categories were firstly developed for the pilot study of female-perpetrated male-directed marital violence in Wroclaw, Poland in 2004. They were based on theories from evolutionary psychology on the most desirable categories in the male partner (Buss, 1994; Gangestad and Simpson, 2000) and by making their antitheses. Hence the categories: woman's jealousy, man's jealousy, woman's adultery, man's adultery, not providing enough material support by the male partner, budget mismanagement and/or refusal to contribute to the family budget by the woman.

Findings by feminist researchers, such as reporting self-defence as a primary reason for female partner abuse (e.g. Osthoff, 2002; Dasgupta, S., 2002; Moffitt et al., 2000) inspired the category "self-defence", and "defending children". Additional categories: "alcohol problems of a man", "alcohol problems of a woman" and "forcing a man to move out" were as suggested by the police officers the researcher spoke with before finishing her design of pilot research as well as the published study of characteristics of female IPV perpetrators by Hester (2012). The reasons that didn't fall into none of those mentioned above categories were put under "other" and noted.

5.5.2 Rationale for choosing this type of methodology and not others

Mixed methods have been used successfully in the study of political and social violence and conflict (Thaler, 2017), providing a wealth of valuable information. Thaler argues that the use of mixed methods provided him with the opportunity to explore "different aspects of the phenomenon" and "a more complete picture" of "the context within social actions occur and why they are carried out

(Thaler, 2017, p.67). This supports the author's idea to use the information extracted from the police and court interviews, use the pilot research (completed as a Master's Dissertation in 2004) to verify the identified variables mentioned as the possible causes (or triggers) of male-directed family violence/abuse⁵⁵, and to analyse their frequency and importance as reported by the alleged victims, perpetrators and witnesses.

5.6 Population and Sample Selection

5.6.1 Sample selection and population researched

Samples were drawn from the criminal populations of females allegedly abusing their current or former male partners, in two cities of differently developed parts of Poland: Lublin -the capital of a district in the east part of the country, and Warsaw - the capital of Poland. Case files used as a source of information for this study were drawn from the Judicial System: Prosecutor offices and District Courts. The sampled period of time was 2006-2012. The size of the samples was different, with 134 cases in Lublin and 50 cases in Warsaw.

A larger sample makes the better representation of the researched population than a smaller one (Black, 2002, Dawson, 2002); hence the sample consisting of all available samples would be as representative as possible. This type of sampling, called consecutive sampling is considered the best of type of non-probability sampling method in controlling sample bias as it includes all available cases (Theves et al., 2018) and it is widely used in clinical research. It was the reason why it has been chosen for an exploratory study of a criminal population. During the sample selection, an attempt was made to include all relevant cases from the sampled areas. Thus, the sample included most of the criminal population for Lublin (except the files unavailable due to the scheduled court

⁵⁵ The categories for possible causes of violence/abuse were initially developed as an antithesis of desirable characteristics of a long-term male partner (Buss, 2000)

hearings) and the vast majority of cases for the sampled districts of Warsaw. This resulted in the very high level of confidence for Lublin (where the sample size was similar to the size of the population of women reported to have abused their husbands), and slightly lower level of confidence for Warsaw (where the sample was drawn from an area housing approximately 24 per cent of inhabitants⁵⁶)

5.6.2 Authorisation site process, confidentiality measures, participation requirements

The authorisation process to conduct this research started with the research proposal presented when the author applied for her PhD studies. The initial research proposal was expended and amended during the first year of her research in 2011-2012 and the final version submitted in May 2012. Ethical approval from Durham University was granted in autumn 2011, following the submission of the Research Ethics and Risk Assessment Form submitted in September 2011⁵⁷. The form is included in Appendix 3 for Chapter 5.

To be granted access to the data sources, several official applications were made to the following: the Lublin District Director of Public Prosecutions Office, Lublin District Police Commander, President of the Lublin District Court, Warsaw District Court Judge, Warsaw Downtown-North, Director of Public Prosecutions Office, Warsaw-Ochota Director of Public Prosecutions Office, Warsaw-Wola Director of Public Prosecutions Office and Vice-President of the Warsaw Downtown Court.

⁵⁶ Percentage worked out based on the statistical information for Warsaw, the year 2008 (Urząd Statystyczny w Warszawie (Statistical Office of Warsaw, 2009

⁵⁷. I have started my PhD studies at Durham University in October 2011 and transferred to Sussex University in 2013, following the promotion of my Primary Supervisor, Dr Seal

After signing a non-disclosure agreement, where she agreed to collect only the information relevant to her research, the researcher could access the documents from the case investigations. Examples of Access Request Letters are included in Appendix 2 for Chapter 5.

Confidentiality measures were taken to ensure the anonymity of the alleged perpetrators and their victims as well, and their details were not recorded. The researcher signed a standard confidentiality form, which made her liable for prosecution in the case of breaching the confidentiality clause.

5.7 Instrumentation or Sources of Data

This research was based on the analysis of primary data. Data were extracted from the case files, kept in the form of paper-recorded interviews. They recorded the following: alleged victims and perpetrators, witnesses, confrontations between the alleged victim and perpetrator in the presence of a police officer, opinions of the expert witnesses: court-appointed psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, probation officers, interviews of children (most often in the presence of or conducted by a court-appointed psychologist), reports by and/or interviews of the forensic medicine doctors on the presence and types of injuries, transcripts of text or communicator messages or emails.

Extracted data, recorded in the *pro forma* (Chapter 5 Appendix 1), was stored on the computer hard drive in the form of Microsoft Word files. After data collection, the information was typed into an Excel database, where the data was inputted into a spreadsheet. The next step of data processing was coding. During this process, the information, already categorised, was given a numerical value for each of the categories. It was later copied into the SPSS spreadsheet for the convenience of further data statistical analysis. SPSS 25 was used to generate statistical information in the form of descriptive statistics and frequencies as well as Chi² test of independence and multiple Z-tests of proportions with Bonferroni adjustment.

5.8 Validity

Information retrieved from the case files (and later recorded in a *pro forma* for this research) and was initially collected by professionals trained for conducting interviews for the judicial system. This involved taking notes of what was reported as well as guiding the interviewees to provide all relevant information needed to conduct the investigation and assess whether the events fulfil the PPC qualification for abuse, aggravated assault, common assault or other specifications.

Every person interviewed was *a priori* warned that he or she is under the penalty of perjury that the information provided is truthful to the best of his/her knowledge. This is the standard procedure in the Polish Judicial System, which is a factor decreasing the readiness to report events that have not taken place (Chapter 21, Article 190 § 1-2 and 191 § 1 of The Code of Criminal procedure, 1997, p.61).

Research where the victims of violence are interviewed, such as in the study of Hester (2013) the interviewers presume that the alleged victims provide an accurate account of events. In this research, the same assumption was made.

Studies validating the accuracy of reports of acts of violence by men and women during the interviews of couples (e.g. Beck et al., 2009, O'Leary and Williams, 2006) show disagreement in rating the violence/abuse reported. It is light in Beck's studies to varied, depending on what form of abuse was reported, in the O'Leary and Williams research with regards to the accounts of perpetrators and victims, with the tendency of alleged perpetrators recalling a smaller number of acts of violence/abuse. This research overcomes the problem by taking into account reports by the alleged victims and witnesses and perpetrators and combining them.

5.8.1 Was what was set to be measured actually measured?

In the vast majority of cases from Lublin, there was a wealth of qualitative and quantitative information recorded. Case files from Warsaw generally consisted of less information recorded by the police at the stage of a semi-structured interview, suggesting that some interviews were either conducted in a hurry (since the workload per officer in the capital is much higher than in the smaller city of Lublin). An alternative explanation is that the police officers, predicting that most of the cases of alleged male abuse perpetrated by their current or long-term partner will be discontinued, did not allocate enough time and effort to record all relevant information or did not take the reports seriously. Thus information extracted from the case files in Warsaw is more likely to have omissions. Occasionally, some of the demographic information was not recorded. Additionally, in Warsaw, there is a larger number of cases where the alleged perpetrator has not been interviewed at all. In the situation mentioned above, only the man's account was used for the analysis. (This omission is contrary to the code of good police practice, and may well have prevented verification beyond the reasonable doubts whether the abuse has taken place). Moreover, the attitude mentioned above could cause further victimisation of men reporting the incidents and prevent them from reporting violent acts in the future.

5.8.2 External and internal validity of the study

When considering the problem of external validity, one needs to keep in mind that the conclusions of this study can be applied to the criminal, but not general, the population of Poland. Since the samples were drawn from two areas of different economic development and different women empowerment, they should be representative of the urban criminal populations of the country. This minimises one of the threats to external validity when choosing a sample (Hanasono, 2018, p.482-483).

Both samples used in the data analysis were consecutive, included all cases of alleged abuse found in both populations (apart from a small number of cases scheduled for immediate court hearings), therefore the threats of the sampling error, ecological validity and reporting have been minimised (Hanasono, 2018, p.481-483). However, there is still a possibility of regional variance in the views on what is considered intimate partner violence/abuse, and on the degree considered severe enough to report it to the Judicial System. This decreases the external validity of the sample for rural areas, not included in this research (Hanasono, 2018, p.481-482).

The attrition rate (Hanasono, 2018, p.485) of cases analysed for this study was very low, as there were only a few cases files unviable due to the undergoing court proceeding. These were removed from the initial database.

Because of the differences in the sample size, with 134 cases in Lublin nad 50 cases in Warsaw, drawn from the area with approximately the same number of inhabitants, the validity of statistical analysis is not likely to differ. The appropriate statistical tests were used (see Chapter 5 section 5.11.3) to minimise the threats to the internal validity of the study (Hanasono, 2018, p.485).

Data retrieved from the Judicial System has high ecological validity for the criminal population as it represents the population in a real-life context (Hanasono, 2018, p.483).

With regards to reporting of the research findings, as a doctoral dissertation, this study will be accessible through the University of Sussex repository. The author also hopes to publish her findings in a scientific journal to increase the outreach of this research. This would be the impact of this study, minimising a threat of a low reach of the project (Hanasono, 2018, p.485).

Regarding the replication of the study, the design ensures that it can be done for any area of Poland, because of the standardised way the Judicial System records the information in the cases of domestic violence/abuse. This would allow drawing the samples consisting of a similar set of variables. Replication of this study in the other countries might be more difficult to ensure and will

depend on the amount and type of information recorded by the Judicial Systems in the countries where samples will be drawn. Another threat to the possibility of exact replication could also be that the interviews might not be conducted to the recommended standards and as such the information extracted from the case files would be incomplete and omitted from data analysis (Hanasono, 2018, p.484).

Steps have been taken to increase the internal validity of this study.

The first part of data analysis, descriptive statistics of the variables identified and recorded, was followed by more in-depth tests of Chi² and Fisher's exact test. The last two tests were used to check whether there are the differences between the incidents of occurrence between the categories within each sample and between the Lublin and Warsaw samples was statistically significant. Finally, a Z-test of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment was used to investigate the statistical analysis to examine the existence and shape of possible cause-and-effect relationships (Lavrakas, 2011, p. 346-351).

However, the relatively small sample sizes, especially in Warsaw, pose a threat to the internal validity of this study. And since this is a pioneer and exploratory research in the field, the internal validity of it is difficult to judge. The author would estimate it as moderate as it is likely to provide the "accuracy of the research findings in a specific context with a specific sample of people" (Hanasono, 2018, p.484).

5.9 Reliability

How my procedures ensured the reliability of the data collected

The pro forma was used to record the same kind of information from the cases of alleged abuse from the case files. If the information in any of the sections was unavailable, this part of the pro forma was left blank. The consistency of information extracted ensured its reliability.

Am I likely to replicate the procedure?

The same procedure and pro forma can be used to replicate the research in any place in Poland if the sample is drawn from the Judicial System. The pro forma can be modified to be used in sampling the general population.

Would the data collected in replication be similar?

Judging by the information collected from the case files from different years, there is a high chance for the data to be similar.

Reliability of the statistics used

Descriptive statistics and basic statistical methods are used to describe the individual, social groups and societies based on key variables but don't allow making judgements about the relationship between variables (Jupp, 2006). Their reliability is high. The descriptive statistics in this research served the purpose of exploring the sample in an attempt to identify the key variables that could be used in further exploration of the phenomenon investigated.

Inferential statistics allow testing the hypotheses (Jupp, 2006). In this case, two categorical variables were used when searching for possible correlations using Chi² test that was followed by the multiple

Z-tests of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment. Their reliability depends on the method of collection and sample size.

Using consecutive sampling, that includes all cases found in the target population, reduced the possible bias or sampling error to the minimum. Therefore, the reliability of the statistics used is sufficient for this type of research.

5.10 Data Collection and Management

After the Ethical Approval had been granted by the University of Durham on April 18th 2012, data access letters to the sampling places: Lublin District Police Commander, Lublin District Prosecutor, Lublin District Court Judge, Warsaw District Director of Public Prosecution Office, Warsaw District Court Judge requesting case file access were sent (Chapter 5, Appendix 3). Following permission to access the files, received in May-July 2012, data collection commenced. Data was collected in Lublin between August 2012 and January 2013 and between February 2013 and April 2014 in Warsaw.

Since the researcher used primary data, which was initially collected by the Judicial System, there was no possibility of gaining informed consent from the participants of the study. Polish Prosecution and Courts dealt with the problem by protecting the anonymity, and as such well-being, of persons involved by ensuring the researcher did not collect the personal information, signed the confidentiality clause and was supervised at all times when performing the data collection.

5.11 Data Analysis Procedures

Preparation of raw data

Raw data, it was firstly recorded in the pro forma: demographic data as short information; interview data in the "notes" section as the summary of what was reported during the interviews, in the expert witnesses reports and police notes from the incidents. Quantitative information was extracted from these and transferred into a database in Excel.

Data coding information

Data coding and classification of variables determined the further analysis of data from the sample. A lot of the data extracted was initially qualitative. To be recorded for further processing, qualitative data were assigned categories and as such, changed into quantitative data. This made the comparison and statistical analysis possible.

Each of the variables of interest to this research was given a shortcut name under which it was recorded in a database in Excel, coded using a numerical value and then transferred to a similar database in SPSS. The results of variables coding are presented in the Table1.

| Label | Coding information | | Data type and measurement scale | Variable type in SPSS |
|-------|--|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Id | Number on my list | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Place | Proc. Office Lublin North=1 Proc. Office Lublin South=2 | Proc. Office Warsaw Wola=3 Proc. Office Warsaw Downtown North=4 Proc. Office Warsaw Ochota=5 Regional Court for City of Warsaw=6 Regional Court for Warsaw Downtown =7 | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |

| | | | | |
|--|---|-----------------------------|---|---------|
| Lone-or-not | Alone=0 With son/s=1; daughter/s=2; children=3; her family=4; others=5 | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| Type of rela-p | Marriage=1; cohabit=2 Undergoing or planning a divorce/separation=3; separated=4' divorced=5; | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| Length of relat | No of years | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Nominal |
| Together; (living in the same property) | Separately =0 | Together =1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Other_people (accommodation shared other people) | No=0 | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Flat (type of residence) | House=0 | Flat =1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Woman_age | No of years | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Man_age | No of years | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Age diff. | Positive No =man older | Negative No =woman older | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Woman_edu | University=2; Secondary=1; primary-vocational =0; | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Man_edu | University=2; Secondary=1; primary-vocational =0; | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Income_diff | Much higher =5 Higher=4 Approx..equal=3; lower=2; much lower =1 | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Woman_alcohol (under the influence) | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Man_alcohol (under the influence) | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Subsequent | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Length of abuse reported (since_when | Less than a year =1; 1-3 years=2; 4-6 years=3; 7-10 years=4; 11-15 years=5; 16-20 years=6; | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |

| | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|--|---------|
| | more than 20 years=7 | | | |
| Qualification (PPC_qualification) | 207.1 =0, 157.1=1; 156.1=2; 190.1=3 | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| No of legal proceedings (legalproceedings) | No; 30and more =30 | | Qualitative' Categorical | Nominal |
| Time taken by the legal proceedings | Up to 4 weeks=0; 1-3 months=1; 4-6 months=2; 7-12 months=3; 13months-1.5 year=4; 1.6-2 years=5; 2.1-3 years=6; 3.1-4 years=7; 4.1 to 5 years =8 | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Victim interviewed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Suspect interviewed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Witnesses interviewed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Number of witnesses | Number; | 10 and more=10 | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Witness categories | None=0 Woman's family member/friends(s)=1; Man's family member/friends(s)= 2 Police officer(s)= 3; Neighbour(s)=4; Children of the couple=5 More than type of witnesses=6 Court-appointed specialists =7 | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| Court-appointed specialists (Court_Special) | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Caution issued | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Charges | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Complaint withdrawn by the victim | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| How ended | Discontinued=1; Case in progress or charges=2; verdict=3; acquitted =4 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Legal qualification changed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |

| | | | | |
|---|--|---|---------------------------------------|----------------|
| Final decision appealed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| How many times | No=0; rest just numbers | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Complaint truthful | Alleged victim lying=0 Truthful =1; both violent =2 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Abuse type | Physical=0 Psychological/verbal=1; both=2 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| All abuse types | Absent=0; | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Physical violence, categories** | No physical violence =0 Minor violence =1; Moderate violence =2; Minor and moderate violence =3; Severe violence =4; Minor and severe violence =5; Moderate and severe violence =6; Minor, moderate and severe violence =7 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Other types of abuse | Absent=0 | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Abuse type other (other_categories) | No=0; Twisting hands/fingers =1; biting =2; scratching =3; spitting on man= 4; pulling hair=5; sending others to beat man up= 6; threatening with/attempting suicide=7; destroying his property=8; more types together=9; one additional type=10 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Verbal, emotional and/or psychological abuse: -intimidation -emotional abuse -isolation -minimising, denying, blaming -using children -using gender privilege -economic abuse -coercion and threats -manipulating the system | Absent=0; | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Reasons for abuse | Absent=0; | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| <i>Reasons for abuse, cumulative categories</i> | <i>Jealousy</i> | <i>0= not occurring 1= woman's perpetration</i> | <i>Qualitative Categorical</i> | <i>Nominal</i> |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--|--|--|----------------|
| | | 2= man's <i>perpetration</i> 3= <i>perpetration by both partners</i> | | |
| | <i>Adultery</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>woman's perpetration</i> 2= <i>man's perpetration</i> 3= <i>perpetration by both partners</i> | | |
| | <i>Woman's self-defence and defending children</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>woman's self-defence</i> 2= <i>woman protecting children</i> 3= <i>self-defence and protecting children</i> | | |
| | <i>Forcing a man to move out</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>occurring</i> | | |
| | <i>Financial problems</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>caused by woman's mismanagement</i> 2= <i>caused by man's inadequate support/budget mismanagement</i> 3= <i>caused by both partners</i> | | |
| | <i>Alcohol problems</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>woman has alcohol problems</i> 2= <i>man has an alcohol problem</i> 3= <i>both have an alcohol problem</i> | | |
| <i>Other reasons of abuse</i> | <i>Absent=0</i> | <i>Present=1</i> | <i>Qualitative Categorical, binary</i> | <i>Nominal</i> |
| <i>Number of children</i> | 0 =none, 1= one child; 2=two children 3= three and more children | | <i>Qualitative Categorical</i> | <i>Nominal</i> |
| <i>Sex of children</i> | Boy=0 Girl=1; boy and girl =2; boys=3; girls=4 | | <i>Qualitative Categorical</i> | <i>Nominal</i> |
| <i>Ages of children</i> | up to 10 years; dependent =0; up to 15; dependent =1; up to 16-20; dependent =2; up to 25 and more; studying/dependent =3; adult; not dependent/ living with parents =4; different ages/categories =5; adult; living separately=6 | | <i>Qualitative Ordinal</i> | <i>Ordinal</i> |
| | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|--------|---------------------------------------|---------|
| Children from previous relationships | No =0; man's=1 Woman's=2; man's & woman's=3; woman's and their own=4 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Woman's abuse of children | No=0; | yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Man's abuse of children | No=0; | yes =1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Blue card male victim | No=0 | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Blue card female victim | No=0 | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Blue card | No=0; for man as victim=1 for woman as victim=2; for both as victims=3 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |

Table 1: Categories, types of variables and the coding information

Each case was given its own unique numerical identity. A number representing the category and coding of unique information was applied to the sampling places (Prosecutor Offices and District Courts in different areas of Lublin and Warsaw). The same procedure was used when coding the mode of abuse perpetration (abusing alone or with the help of various accomplices), type of residence, information whether the alleged perpetrator and her victim still shared the accommodation at the time of reporting the case. Levels of education for the man and woman, relative income differences, information on whether the man and/or woman acted under the influence of alcohol, and whether it was a one-off incident or a subsequent abuse were also coded and given numerical values. The researcher made her own attempt to verify whether the case was truthfully reported, the abuse was unidirectional, woman to man (truthful) or bidirectional (reciprocal).

Length of abuse was split into the following categories: less than a year, 1-3 years, 4-6 years, 7-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and more than 20 years; each of them assigned a number from 1 to 7.

Polish Penal Code qualifications of alleged acts of abuse, initially recorded as the article number (which indicated the type prohibited act allegedly committed), were coded as a number from 0 for the art. 207.1 (physical or psychological abuse), through 1 for 157.1 (bodily harm), 2 for 156.1 (aggravated bodily harm) and 3 for 190.1 (threats). Length of time taken by the legal proceedings (which was split into the categories: up to 4 weeks, 1-3 months, 4-6 months, 7-12 months, 13 months -1.5 year, 1.6 years to 2 years, 2.1-3 years, 3.1-4 years and 4.1-5 years) was assigned numbers from 0 to 8.

Categories of the witnesses interviewed in the course of Judicial Proceedings: none, woman's family members or friends, man's family members or friends, police officers (involved in the case at some point in time), neighbour(s), children of the couple, more than one type of witnesses, court-appointed experts/specialists, were assigned the numerical values from 0 to 7.

Four possible outcomes of the cases were possible under the Polish Law and assigned a numerical value from 1 to 4: case discontinued; case in progress or alleged perpetrator charged at the court; the verdict in the case reached; alleged perpetrator acquitted.

The following variables: was the victim, alleged perpetrator, court-appointed specialists (e.g. psychologists, psychiatrists, and/or medical doctors interviewed; was the caution issued, the alleged victim withdraws the complaint, legal qualification of the prohibited act changed, the final decision appealed, whether a particular type of abuse took place or not, abusing the couple's children by a man or woman occurred; finally, whether the Blue Card procedure was initiated on behalf of man and/or woman as a victim of family abuse, which required either "yes" or "no" answer, were coded using 1 or 0, respectively.

For the purpose of analysis in SPSS, several data categories were collapsed to reach a larger sample size. Features such as the length of the relationship, age of the alleged perpetrator and alleged victim, age difference between the partners, the number of children they were raising; were initially recorded as a numerical value. In the SPSS database, the cases were aggregated into the broader categories, for example, the length of relationship was allocated into the categories conglomerating cases at five-year intervals, ended with a category: 50 years and more.

Length of alleged abuse was spilt into the categories: up to 3 months, 4-6 months, 7-8 months, 9-11 months, 1-2 years, and the categories of 2 year-intervals up to 10 years of the alleged abuse. The abuse lasting 11-to 20 years was recorded in two categories: 11-15 years and 16 to 20 years. The last category consisted of cases where the alleged abuse took place for 21 years and longer.

Age of the alleged perpetrator and victim has segregated into the categories at five-year intervals, apart from the first one, which was: up to 30 years of age, and last category: 61 years and more.

The following categories of the age difference between the partners were identified as: 11 years and older, 7-10 years older, 5-6 years older, 3-4 years older, 1-2 years older (for male and female older than their partners put in the separate categories) and no age difference between the partners.

In the Edexcel database, the use of different types of abuse was recorded as: absent or present (0 or 1); to be conglomerated for further data analysis in SPSS into the general categories: no physical violence (0), minor violence⁵⁸ (1), moderate violence⁵⁹ (2), the mixture of minor and moderate violence (3), severe violence⁶⁰ (4), minor and severe violence (5), moderate and severe violence (6), minor, moderate and severe violence (7). Examining the possible associations between the reasons and types and the use of accomplices or not, using Chi² and Z-tests of two proportions with

⁵⁸ Throwing objects, shaking, pushing, hitting with an open hand on the body and hitting with the open hand on the face.

⁵⁹ Hitting with the fist on the body and head and kicking on the legs

⁶⁰ Kicking on the body, kicking on the face, choking, scalding, hitting with objects on the body, hitting with objects on the face/head, threats of using a knife or sharp/heavy object, using a knife or a sharp/heavy object or a gun

Bonferroni adjustment, the categories of physical violence were aggregated further, with categories 5, 6 and 7 collapsed into a mix of minor, moderate and severe violence types (7).

Additional types of physical violence/abuse found in the case files and recorded in: abuse type another category. The most common were: twisting hands/fingers (1); biting (2); scratching (3); spitting on man (4); pulling hair (5); sending others to beat man up (6); threatening with/attempting suicide (7); destroying his property (8); more types together (9); one additional type, not listed (10)

The reason behind conglomerating the categories of physical violence/abuse into the minor, moderate and severe kind was the possible damage these types of abuse can cause. It was based on information from the reports of forensic medical professionals included in the analysed case files.

Reasons for abuse were split into six main categories mentioned by the literature and/or found as a common theme in the case files: jealousy, adultery, alcohol problems, woman's self-defence and defending children, forcing a man to move out, financial issues, initially recorded as not occurring and occurring (0 or 1). For more in-depth analysis in SPSS, in the first four reasons for abuse, the initial categories were aggregated into the following: not occurring (coded as 0), woman's perpetration (1), man's perpetration (2), perpetration by both partners (3). In the fourth category, not occurring was given a 0 value, woman's self-defence -1, woman protecting children -2, self-defence and protecting children – 3. Category: forcing a man to move out had only two values: not occurring (0) and occurring (1); whereas, financial problems had four categories: not occurring (0), caused by woman's mismanagement (1), caused by man's inadequate support/budget mismanagement (2), caused by both partners (3). Other reasons for abuse were recorded as either absent (0) or present (1).

The number of children was put into the categories: no children, one child, two children, three and more children. The sex of children was coded as: boy=0, girl=1; boy and girl =2; boys=3; girls=4.

Ages of children were allocated into the following categories: up to 10 years and dependent =0; up to 15 and dependent =1; up to 16-20 and dependent =2; up to 25 and more and studying or dependent =3; adult and not dependent/ living with parents =4; different ages/categories =5; adult; living separately=6.

Children from previous relationships were recorded as none, meaning no children from previous relationships (coded as 0⁶¹); man's (1); woman's (2); man's and woman's (3); the woman's from a previous relationship and children of both partners (4).

Data analysis procedures

After collection, coding and identification of types of the variable to be used in this exploratory research, descriptive statistics have been computed.

Descriptive statistics

Frequencies and percentages of occurrence of variables explored were presented in tables, included in Appendix 1 for Chapter 6 and charts in the text of Chapter 6.

Within the descriptive statistics, all of the Quantitative, Numerical (Scale) variables have been checked for their mean, median, mode, standard deviation, variance, skewness and kurtosis. It provided information on how similar or different the variables are from the Gaussian bell curve (a normal distribution) and allow choosing the right indication of central tendency as in the skewed distribution mode is a better representation than average (mean) (Laerd Statistics, 2017b).

Since the bell curves show probability distribution of data and are symmetric, their mode, mean and median values are the same. Thus the existence of data set that can be represented by a bell curve proves that there is no overrepresentation of cases (or features analysed) in any of the extremes.

⁶¹ This category included the couples with no children at all

The standard deviation shows how closely together the values of the analysed feature are, as the smallest standard deviation the smaller the range of the value, and as such the differences in the analysed feature (Black, 2002; Laerd Statistics, 2017b).

In the interpretation of quantitative, continuous variables like length of the relationship, age of man and woman, the age difference between the partners, length of alleged abuse, and the number of children, a median (the middle value) was used. This allowed avoiding decimal numbers (e.g. 2.5 children per couple), and the differences in the numbers of cases where the age of man and woman was recorded did not cause awkward results (like it would have in mode, the most common reading for an age).

The minimum and maximum values, along with variance and standard deviation, provided information about how spread out the values are, while skew indicated the degree of asymmetry from the Gaussian curve. Symmetric distribution for a skewness has a value of 0; negative values indicate the sample being skewed to the right, with a higher number of larger values; and positive values indicate the sample skewed to the left, with a greater number of the smaller values). Kurtosis tells how “heavy” the tails (minimal and maximal values) are. In a Gaussian distribution, kurtosis should have a value of 0 (the positive tails are “heavier”, which makes the curve’s peak lower and negative tails “lighter” than in a normal distribution, which makes the curve’s peak higher than a peak in the Gaussian curve). The values of skewness and kurtosis acceptable in most of the psychometric uses are between ± 1 to ± 2 (Psychology Illinois State Edu., 2018; UCLA, 2018)

A sample that is skewed indicates an overrepresentation of cases (or features) closer to one of the extremes. The kurtosis tells how much overrepresentation there is. The overrepresented values allowed selection of features used to construct the profiles of a typical alleged perpetrator, victim, abuse perpetration or legal proceedings.

For the nominal (qualitative, categorical) variables the mode (modal), a most commonly occurring value was identified to find out what group (type or phenomenon) was most widely present in the analysed cases. Since each of the numbers was a code for a qualitative value, using a mean or median was not statistically sound.

The median (for quantitative) and mode values (for qualitative variables) allowed the production of profiles of a most commonly occurring alleged perpetrator, her victim, couple dynamics, legal proceedings the case was undergoing and abuse perpetration. The profiles were constructed for the sample as a whole, a sample from Lublin and a sample from Warsaw separately, in attempt to compare them (Chapter 6: Data Analysis and the Appendices for that chapter).

Comparisons of similarity of socioeconomic measures and chosen measurable characteristics

After the socioeconomic measures and other characteristics were presented as numerical and percentage values, the comparison between percentages of occurrence was made using the Chi² test of proportion calculator or (in cases where the number in one or more of the groups was lower than 5) the Fisher's exact test (MedCalc, 2019). The level of statistical significance indicating whether the claim can be accepted or rejected uses the p-value on the level 0.05. This gives a 95 per cent chance for the results to be correct, and 5 per cent chance of erroneous acceptance of the null hypothesis H₀: stating that there is no difference between compared samples or the alternative hypothesis H₁: there is a difference between analysed samples.

Based on these tests, several possible associations regarding the measurable characteristics were examined as presented in the sections 6.3.1.1 -6.3.1.10.

Profiles of the alleged perpetrator, victim, couple dynamics and legal proceedings

In the next stage, the profiles of alleged perpetrators and their victims were produced: firstly, using the conglomerated sample, later: using the samples from Warsaw and Lublin separately and presented in tables (Chapter 6, Appendix 3). The profiles presented a typical age, education, information whether they were typically acting while under the influence of alcohol, whether the police interviewed them in relation to the investigation, and whether or not they were suspected of abusing children in their care. The further profiles presented couple dynamics recording: a median age difference between the partners, modal type of relationship, median length of the relationship, modal differences in income between the partners, information whether the abuse was subsequent, whether the couple shared accommodation with the extended family members, number, most frequent sex, ages and the parentage of children in the household. Additional profiles were constructed for the typical legal proceedings characteristics, recording what occurred during the Judicial System Proceeding and how the case ended. The last profile pictured the modal abuse perpetration, presenting the abuse type, length of abuse (in the categories), the most commonly occurring form of physical abuse, psychological abuse and reasons for abuse.

Chi² and multiple Z-tests of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment

In the last stage of analysis data was tested for a possible association between deducted key variables such as the mode of abuse perpetration (whether the help of accomplices was used), and the following reasons for abuse: a general type of physical violence/abuse (none, minor, moderate, severe, a mixture of minor, moderate and severe) and reasons for abuse; the mode of abuse perpetration and types of physical violence/abuse; physical violence/abuse type and reasons for abuse; finally, the number of children and reasons for abuse.

For this part of data analysis, the Chi² test of independence (association) was used. It was deemed appropriate for this type of analysis because of meeting three underlying assumptions: variables were categorical, observations were independent, and the sampling cross-sectional (Laerd Statistic, 2016; Lavrakas, 2008).

The Chi² test was computed using SPSS version 25. Where the P-value was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis stating that there were no relationships between the variables tested were rejected, and an alternative hypothesis stating that there was a relationship between two categorical variables accepted, the follow-up test was applied.

In one instance, when computing the mode of abuse and forcing a man to move out, a Fisher's exact test was used because of a sample size (frequency of occurrence) being of five counts or smaller (MacDonald, 2014).

Tests, where the relationship between two categorical variables had been found, were followed-up by a multiple Z-test of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment⁶². It explored the possibility of an association between the chosen nominals (subgroups) of variables, looking at the significance of the difference in two proportions, to give more accurate results about the existence of the relationship between these and key variables tested (Chapter 6, Appendix 4).

Together, these two tests allowed clarification of the associations between the assumed key variables tested; and as such, making valid conclusions. The results permitted the discovery of associations that have never been tested previously. This served as an outline of the areas for the further research of the suspected variables being key in the modes and reasons for the perpetration

⁶². Multiple Z-test of two proportions was a follow-up test used after Chi² test to determine which of the groups compared differ significantly. The Bonferroni adjustment allows for multiple comparisons between all the groups (Laerd Statistic, 2017)

of female-perpetrated and male-directed abuse in the relationships; hopefully, using larger sample sizes and a larger variety of populations.

5.12 Ethical Considerations

Respect, justice and beneficence of the study design

This study was conducted with respect to the participants, following an appropriate code of ethical practice from a variety of recommended sources: Durham University School of Applied Social Sciences Ethics and Risk Assessment Policy and Procedures⁶³, British Sociological Association and Social Research Association⁶⁴.

Additionally, the researcher familiarised herself with Safety in Social Research⁶⁵, Code of Safety⁶⁶ developed by the Social Research Association⁶⁷ while developing the research design.

Data were handled in a manner recommended by the Data Protection Act. The researcher also followed the Declaration of Confidentiality, used by the Judicial System when granting access to confidential and/or sensitive data (Chapter 5, Appendix 3b).

Since this study was based on generating data from documents, the only contact with the research participants was through the statistics and case files of the Polish Judicial System. There was no communication with the persons whose case files were used. Thus no harm, discomfort, stress, anxiety or any other negative consequence has been caused to them by this research. The participants have not identified by name and cannot be identified as individuals.

⁶³ Revised in September 2010

⁶⁴ <http://www.britisoc.co.uk/equality/Statement+Ethical+Practice.htm>
<http://www.the-sra.org.uk/guidelines.htm#ethic>

⁶⁵ <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU29.html>

⁶⁶ <http://www.the-sra.org.uk/safety>

⁶⁷ http://www.dh.gov.uk/en/Aboutus/Researchanddevelopment/AtoZ/Researchgovernance/DH_4002112

The results of this study can benefit persons falling victim to, or being perpetrators of, female-perpetuated and male partner-directed violence/abuse in the future. The results of this study can aid the development of more successful measures of counselling and deal with the alleged victims and perpetrators by the Polish Judicial System. Since this research is exploratory, it can also help to identify the areas that require further and more in-depth studies of an under-researched type of dysfunctional relationship in the future.

Data storage and safeguarding

Case files used to extract the information used for this research are (under the law) property of Polish Judicial System. The data extracted from them is stored as computer files: Word documents, Excel spreadsheet and SPSS spreadsheet. Data do not contain information that could be used to identify the persons involved in the investigations by names or addresses; thus, their anonymity is protected. The electronic copies of completed *pro forma* consisting of information are in the safekeeping of the researcher, stored on her computer and designated hard drive.

5.13 Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations of the research methodology and research design

Several limitations have been identified in the course of designing and conducting this research in relation to the research methodology and design.

Formulation of research aims and objectives

The aim of this research was an exploration of two sets of data that have never been analysed before, to describe a phenomenon that is generally under-researched. The researcher used her judgement in the construction of her research questions for the study, reasoning that with the lack of previous studies to compare, a large number of variables should be recorded and analysed. This

was to narrow down the search for key variables that may have an impact on and/or trigger the abuse perpetration against male partners of heterosexual women. The result was a project had very ambitious scope; which and took much more time, effort and money than initially anticipated.

Type of data and implementation of the data collection method

Type of data limitations

Using data recorded by the police as a source of information for data analysis poses many restrictions on the type and form of information that can be collected and used (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 262).

This type of data, to some extent, shapes research design, the types of variable that can be collected and limits the ways the statistical analysis can be performed (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 261-264).

The information included in the analysed case files is finite. Additional questions cannot be asked, and the researcher works with information recorded and pre-processed by another person. This limits the complexity of the picture in the exploratory study design to the information that can be obtained from the dataset with regards to the variables that can potentially influence the shape of violence/abuse or be a reason for implementing it. For example, the information about abuse in the alleged perpetrator's family of origin was not included in the case files as this was not required or disclosed during the judicial proceedings apart from the rare instances of the psychological/psychiatric assessments that had been completed. The same was, in many cases, correct for the psychological/psychiatric problems of alleged victims and/or perpetrators (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 262-263).

Implementation of the data collection method

Implementation of the data collection method was very time, effort and resource consuming.

Gaining access to case files required several official letters verified and signed by Research Supervisors, sent internationally via post. Some of these requests needed to be clarified; which required further official correspondence.

The next stage was liaising with the Heads of Local Prosecutor Offices, courts and archives; some of which required travelling to the location and speaking with them in person.

A small number of cases was unavailable due to the ongoing judicial proceedings. Thus they were not taken into account (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 262; Connelly, 2013, p. 325).

Methodological limitations

This form of research design and data analysis, even though taking into account a vast number of measurable characteristics or variables, misses some others that may have an impact on the validity of results; thus, the contextualisation of data is somewhat limited.

Because of the source of data, incidents reported to the police, the least extreme cases of violence are likely to go unreported, and the whole sample is skewed towards more severe cases of abuse.

Application of results to the general population may be limited, as the minority of the cases of marital violence/abuse are reported to the police (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 261-263; Connelly, 2013, p. 325).

Sample size and profile

Samples from Lublin and part of Warsaw with a similar number of inhabitants were collected as consecutive samples, with all of the relevant cases included, are of very different sizes. The sample

collected in Warsaw, being almost three times smaller, is less reliable in statistical analysis in comparison with the sample from Lublin (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 262; Connelly, 2013, p. 325).

The sample represents city criminal populations; no (or very little) information was retrieved from the small satellite towns and countryside (and this was only true for the Lublin area). Hence, the conclusions about the population from the countryside may not be valid.

In many cases, the information of interest to this research was missing from some of the case files. This reduced the sample size for some of the key variables; and as such, made the reliability even lower.

Information collected in the samples is very comprehensive, with 83 variables recorded initially. Some of these (e.g. reasons for abuse, types of abuse) have been collapsed for further descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. Some of the information from the section on additional abuse types and additional reasons for abuse have not been included in the detailed analysis (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 262; Connelly, 2013, p. 325).

Lack of previous studies in the research area and access to the literature

There are several studies about female victims of male-perpetrated family violence/abuse; however, the topic of male victimisation in heterosexual relationships is far less researched.

Moreover, none of the previous studies on the male victims of domestic violence/abuse had been so comprehensive. This restricted the comparison of some of the findings of this study with other published work (Connelly, 2013).

Impact limitations

Since there have been no studies with a high degree of similarity published before, either in Poland or other countries, it is unclear whether the results of this research can be applied internationally. Reporting domestic violence/abuse is connected with the recognition of acts of physical or psychological abuse by the victim, willingness to report it, often breaking a social taboo regarding men falling victim to domestic violence, and the response of the Judicial System. For example, in The Polish Criminal Code⁶⁸, one of the constituents of domestic violence/abuse is the dependency of the alleged victim (financial dependence, including). Since most of the men reporting cannot be recognised as financially dependent on their wives, partners or former wives or partners, this is the cause for discontinuation of most cases of domestic violence/abuse reported by men in Poland.

Additionally, the study was done using samples from criminal populations. As such, it is unclear whether it can be applied to the general population in Poland or elsewhere (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 262-263).

Delimitations of the research methodology and research design

Scope of research

The initial scope of this research, although limited to the study based on two samples and cases from 6 consecutive years, was still unusually complex for research conducted and completed by one person with limited time and budget. Data collection started in July 2012 and finished in April 2014. During this time (and after exchanging several letters via official correspondence and speaking with some of the decision-making officers in person) the researcher visited two Prosecutor Offices in Lublin, and in Warsaw along with two Courts to read the pre-selected case files. The lack of accurate

⁶⁸ Article 207.1 of the Polish Penal Code

electronic records (and lack of permission to use the ones that existed), resulted in the case pre-selection taking more time than expected. It was conducted by examining paper records with basic information on each case reported during the years sampled (the paragraph of penal code, names of the alleged victims and perpetrators, and occasionally a short note on details of incident) (Ross and Bibler Zaidi, 2019, p. 263).

Choice of objectives

Even though the physical violence modes of perpetration were initially constricted to the categories mentioned in the modified Conflict Tactics Scale as used by the National Crime Surveys, their number was extended to reflect the types of injuries recorded in the course of the judicial system investigation to match their records more closely and to provide more accurate information (see Chapter 5, section 5.4.1.2)

The information about the presence and content of the Blue Cards (Chapter 4, Appendix 1) consisting of reports of prior incidents as recorded by the police was also included and incorporated in data collection. This provided more insight into the previous history of violence and couple dynamics.

The measure of Verbal/Psychological and Economic abuse was done using a slightly modified version of the Gender Neutral Power and Control Wheel (Chapter 5, Appendix 5). These were developed to measure different aspects of marital violence/abuse used in several completed and valid studies addressing violence against women.

The reasons for abuse were split into categories to allow recording for further analysis. These were as follows:

- ☐ woman's jealousy
- ☐ man's adultery (only if confirmed)
- ☐ man's jealousy, woman's adultery (only if confirmed)
- ☐ woman's self-defence
- ☐ woman defending children
- ☐ forcing a man to move out
- ☐ no or inadequate family support by a man
- ☐ budget mismanagement or financial problems caused by a woman/ refusal her of participation in the family budget
- ☐ woman's alcohol/substance abuse problems or acting under the influence
- ☐ man's alcohol/substance abuse problems or operating under the influence
- ☐ other (stated)

These categories were developed and modified by the researcher in her pilot study, which used the Judicial System sample and was completed in Wroclaw in 2004 as a part of a Master's Degree research and thesis (Zukowska, 2004). Some of these were the antithesis of desirable characteristics in a long-term partner as by evolutionary psychologist David Buss (1994, 2008). Others were the most commonly stated reasons for women hitting their abusive partners as reported by the researchers claiming that women abuse mostly in self-defence or defending children (Dobash et al., 1992; Hester, 2013). Finally, reasons most commonly brought to light during the police interviews.

The information about the existence of psychological or psychiatric disorders on either side of the conflict was recorded. Specific personality (personalities) development/types that could make the partners prone to resolving to the abuse as a conflict resolution technique were noted, but only if brought to light by the court-appointed psychologists and/or psychiatrists or during the investigation.

5.14 What to expect of Chapter 6

The next chapter presents the results of the research and data analysis. It starts with an outline of the sample type (section 6.1.1), followed by the introduction to data analysis (section 6.2.1) and a brief recollection of the research methodology (sections 6.1.3.1 - 6.1.3.3). Then, the chapter presents general characteristics of the samples (section 6.2): the percentage values of many measurable socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, including the characteristics of criminal proceedings the cases have gone through and their outcomes.

In Part 2 of data analysis (section 6.3), the processed data is introduced. The differences between percentage values of the characteristics within and between the Lublin and Warsaw samples (calculated using the χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test where appropriate) are established. The percentage values of the number of children per couple and levels of education were compared with the general Polish population. The same is done for the general types and reasons for abuse (section 6.3.2).

In section 6.3.2, the profiles of a typical alleged perpetrator and victim, couple dynamics and legal proceedings of the male-directed IPV/abuse are presented.

The last section of Part 2 (section 6.3.3) presents the results of the analysis of key variables, related to the reasons for, occurrence and severity of abuse. The findings of χ^2 test of independence and Z-test of multiple proportions with Bonferroni adjustment are introduced and interpreted.

The final, summary section, presents the evaluation on three broad research questions, the degree to which they were answered and whether the results met the expectations.

Chapter 6: Results and Data Analysis

Part 1: The Results

6.1 Introduction

6.1.1 The research problem statement and methodology

6.1.1 General characteristics of the sample

This section answers the first broad research question about the general characteristics of the sample.

General characteristics of the sample were presented as the frequencies of occurrence for variables recorded, in the form of quantitative variables. They are shown as numbers of occurrence as well as the percentage of occurrence in the sampled populations. This was done for the samples from Lublin and Warsaw separately.

Descriptive statistics showed several sample characteristics: the frequencies of quantitative and qualitative variables in the graphic form; the data distribution for the Numerical (Scale) variables and further characteristics of the samples including their minimum and maximum values, range, the symmetry of distribution and most common (or average for the Numerical) values of the variables recorded.

Profiles of alleged perpetrators and victims of abuse

Results obtained from investigating the general characteristics of the sample were used to construct the profiles of an average alleged victim and alleged perpetrator presenting the information as follows:

- an average age (using a median)
- most common education level (using a mode)
- whether they were acting under the influence of alcohol (using a mode)
- had accomplices (using a mode)
- allegedly abused the couple's children (using a mode)
- were interviewed by the police in the course of proceedings (using a mode)

They also showed couple dynamics such as:

- the average age difference between partners (using a median)
- length of relationship (using a median)
- the most common type of relationship (using a mode)
- whether the abuse was a singular event or subsequent (using a mode)
- type of residence (using a mode)
- the parentage of children the couple raised or was raising (using a mode)
- sex and age groups of children (using a mode)

The profiles showing the characteristics of legal proceedings recorded:

- the most common length of criminal proceedings
- whether the witnesses were interviewed (using a mode) and how many witnesses were there (using a median)
- if court-appointed specialists were used (using a mode)
- most common Polish Penal Code classification of the incident, and whether it was changed throughout proceedings (using a mode)
- whether the alleged perpetrator was issued a caution, charged in the court (using a mode)
- if the alleged victim withdrew the complaint (using a mode)
- if the final decision regarding the outcome of the investigation was appealed (using a mode)

- the ending of the case (using a mode)
- whether the Blue Card records were present for the alleged victim or perpetrator (using a mode)
- and type of relationship dynamics in abuse perpetration (using a mode)

The last of the profiles shows the most common abuse perpetration modes:

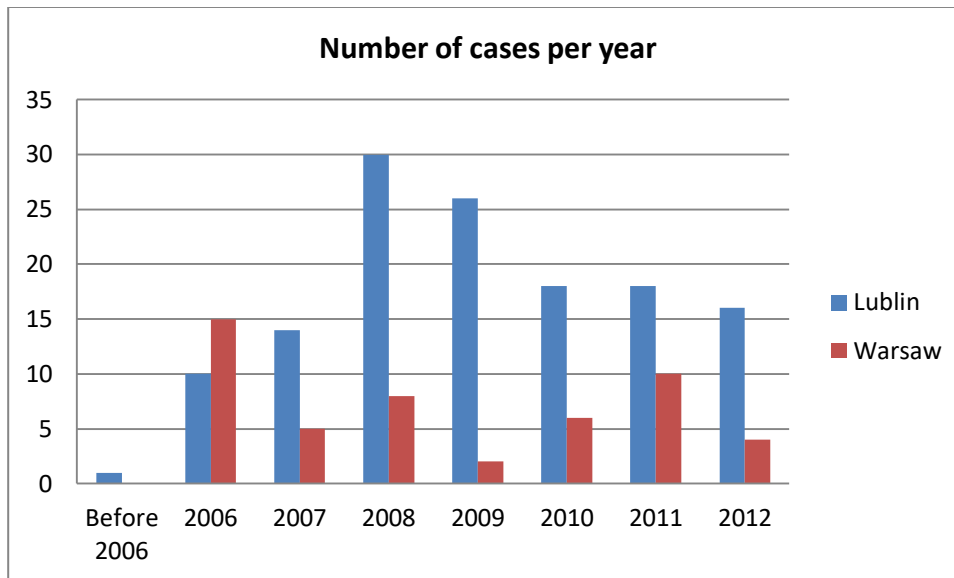
- length of time the alleged abuse took place (using a mode)
- type of physical abuse (using the mode)
- verbal/psychological abuse and controlling behaviours (using the mode)
- reasons for abuse (using the mode)

The profiles were created for both samples separately.

6.2 General Characteristics of the Samples

6.2.1 Number of cases reported over the years and recurrence of abuse

In each of the sampled years (2006-2012), there was a different number of cases. In Lublin, the number of cases of alleged abuse towards male partners grew steadily, reaching the peak in the year 2008 (30 cases), remained high in the following year (26 cases), to drop to 18 cases in the years 2010 and 2011. In the last sampled year (2012) it peaked again to 16 cases. In Warsaw, the number of reported cases was highest in 2006 (with 15 cases), then dropped but fluctuated, to reach second-highest number (10 cases) in 2011 (Appendix 1, Table 1).

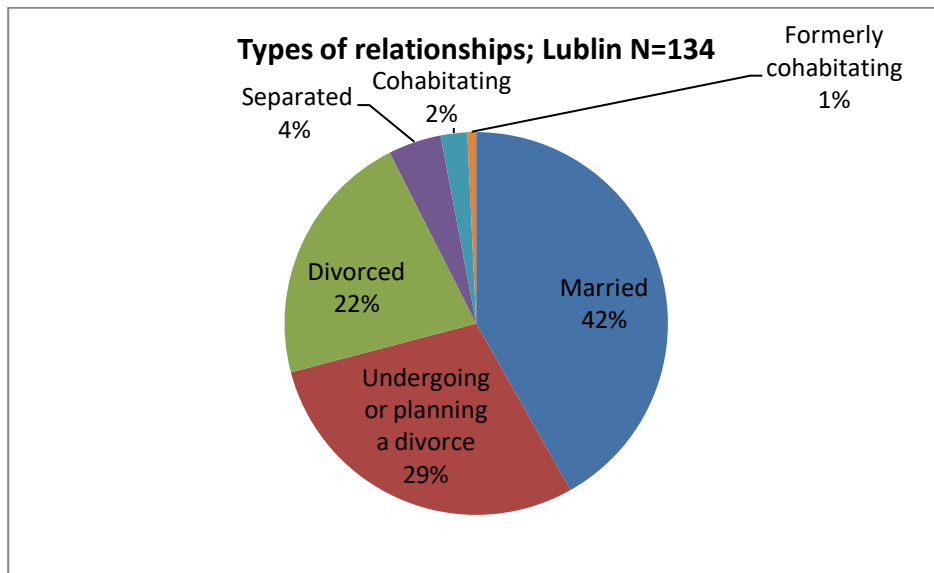


Graph 1: Number of cases per year

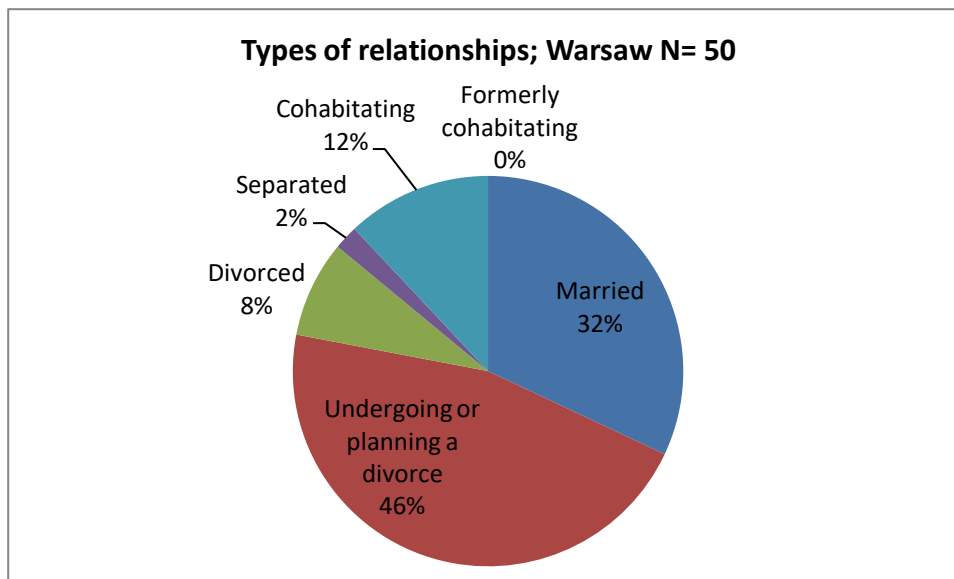
As revealed in the interviews, the abuse, not reported but occurring prior to the current case, occurred in 125 cases out of 134, 93 per cent of cases in the Lublin sample and 46 out of 50, and 92 per cent in the Warsaw sample.

6.2.2 Types of relationships in the sampled populations

Types of the relationship were reported in all recorded cases. The majority of couples from Lublin sample were married (41.8 per cent); however, in the Warsaw sample, the couples were planning for or undergoing divorce (46.0 per cent). The second most common type of relationship in Lublin was a marriage undergoing or planning for a divorce (29.1%). In contrast, in Warsaw, the second most common type of relationship was a marriage (32.0 per cent). (Appendix 1, Table 2). A higher number of couples in Warsaw lived in informal relationships -12 per cent of them were cohabitating in comparison with 2 per cent from Lublin. Twenty-two per cent of Lublin couples, where the alleged abuse took place, were divorced (in contrast with 8 per cent in Warsaw), and 4 per cent of couples were in separation (2 per cent in Warsaw). Only one per cent of Lublin couples were from informal relationships that ended, while in Warsaw, none of the couples was from a former cohabitation.



Graph 2.1: Types of relationships in the Lublin sample



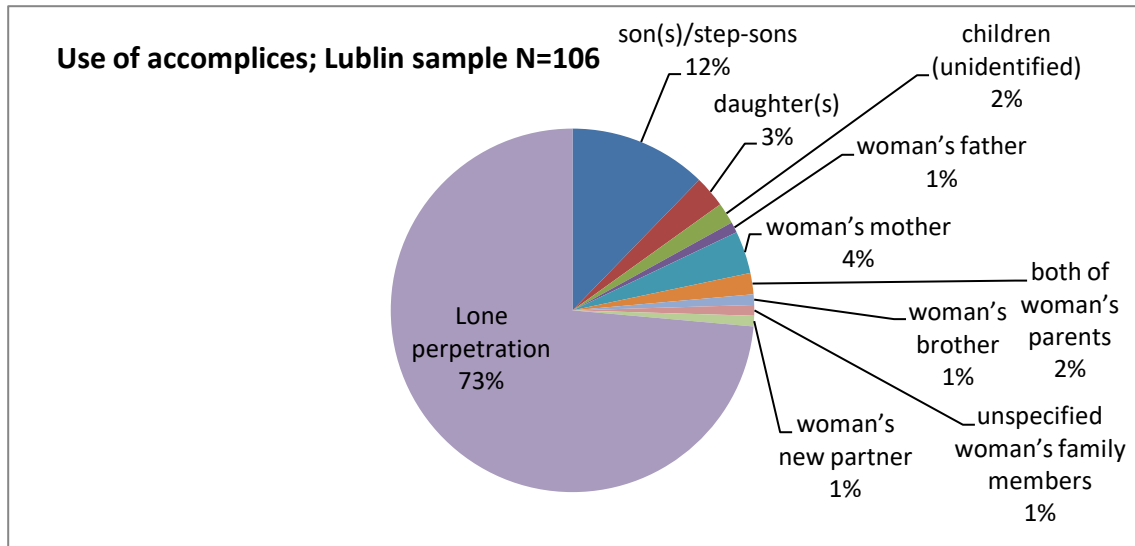
Graph 2.2: Types of relationships in the Lublin sample

6.2.3 The use of accomplices in the perpetration of violence/abuse

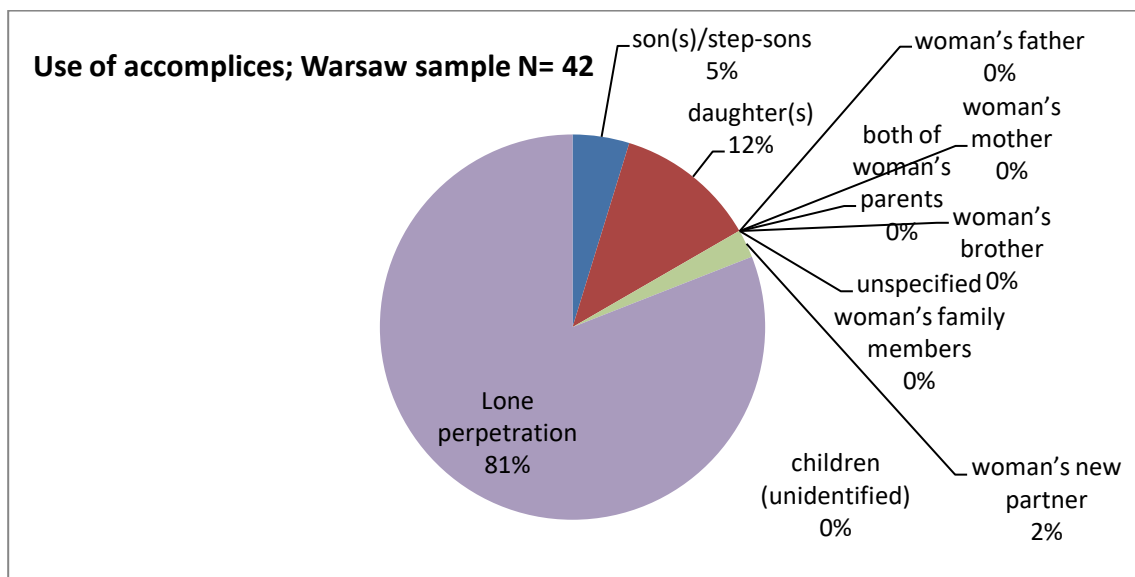
Women most commonly abused alone. This occurred in 73 per cent of cases in Lublin and 81 per cent of cases in Warsaw. When abusing with accomplices, the most common ones were children: sons or step-sons in Lublin and daughters in Warsaw. Sons and daughters (and children of

unspecified sex) were reported to aid their mother by participating in the perpetration of physical or psychological/verbal abuse to a various degree in 17 per cent of cases in both sampled places. The use of other family members was incidental, except for the woman's mother in the Lublin sample, where it was recorded in 4 per cent of cases (in comparison of no such incidents in Warsaw).

(Appendix 1, Table 3)



Graph 3.1: The use of accomplices in the perpetration of violence in the Lublin Sample

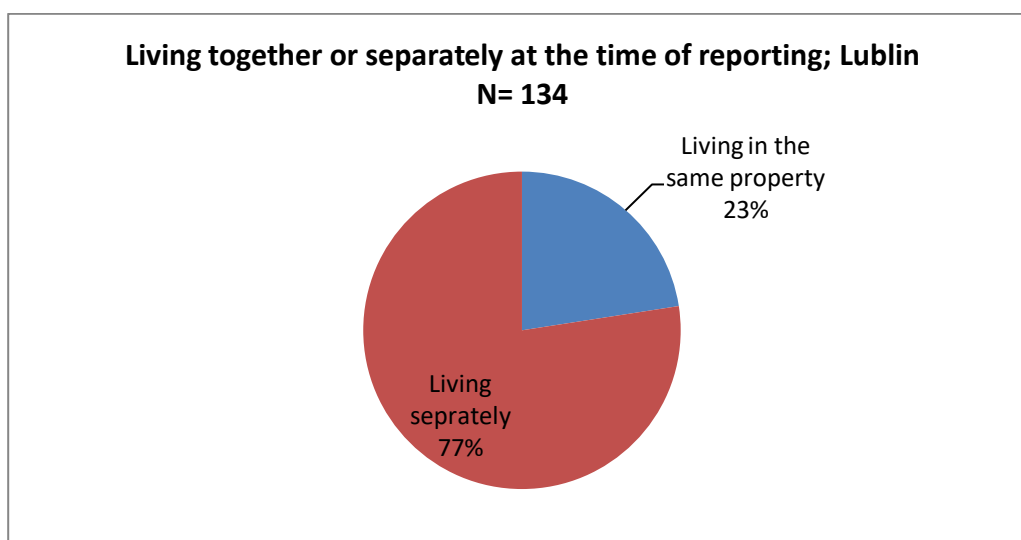


Graph 3.2: The use of accomplices in the perpetration of violence in the Warsaw Sample

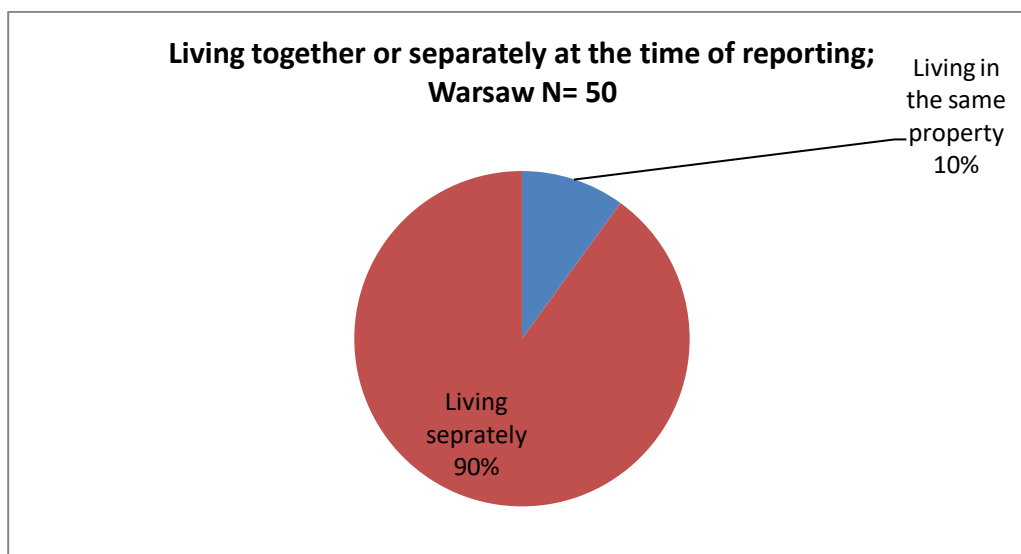
6.2.4 Number of couples living in the same property at the time of reporting abuse

Over three-quarters of the couples, where the alleged abuse towards a male partner or former partner took place did not cohabit at the time of recording the allegations. Only 23 per cent of couples from Lublin and 10 per cent couples from Warsaw still lived in the shared property.

(Appendix 1, Table 4)



Graph 4.1: Number of couples living in the same property after divorce or separation (Lublin sample)

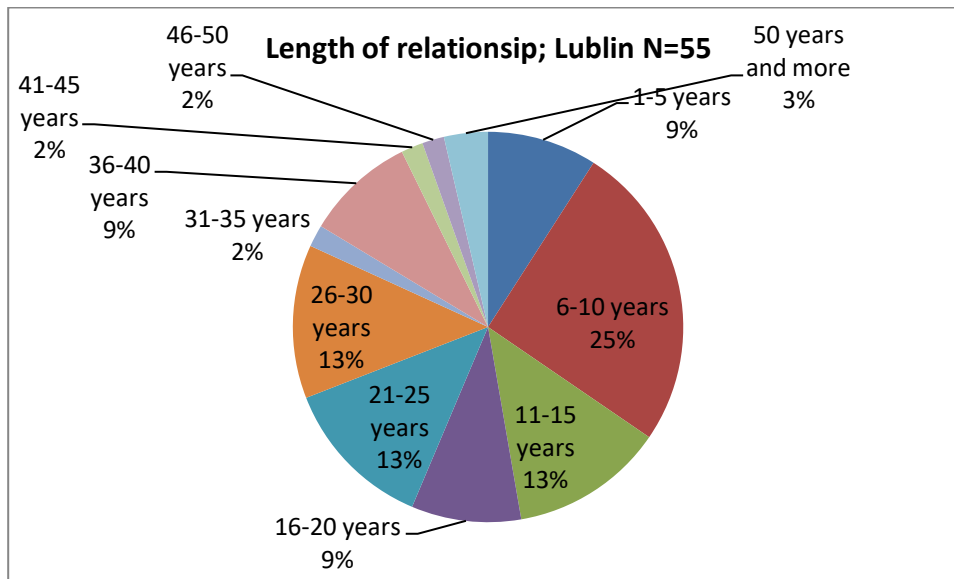


Graph 4.2: Number of couples living in the same property after divorce or separation (Warsaw sample)

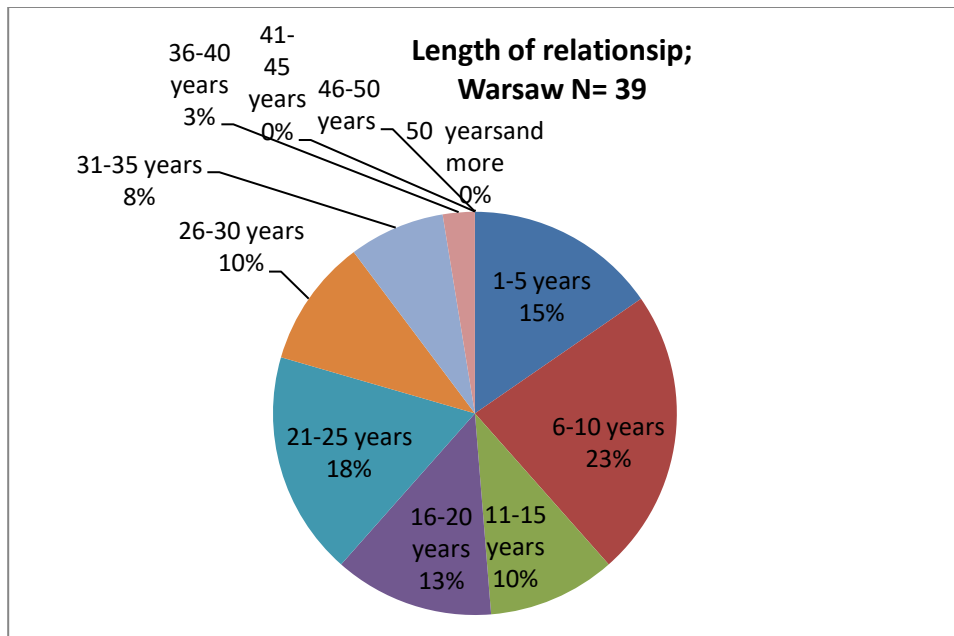
6.2.5 Length of relationship in the sampled couples

The largest group of allegedly abusive relationships lasted for 6-10 years in both sampling places.

The second-largest groups of relationships in Lublin were 11-15 years, 21-25 years and 26-30 years, each of them contributing to 13 per cent of cases. In Warsaw, the second-largest groups was the one with 21-25 years together (18 per cent of cases), followed by 1-5 years together (with 15 per cent of cases). (Appendix 1, Table 5)



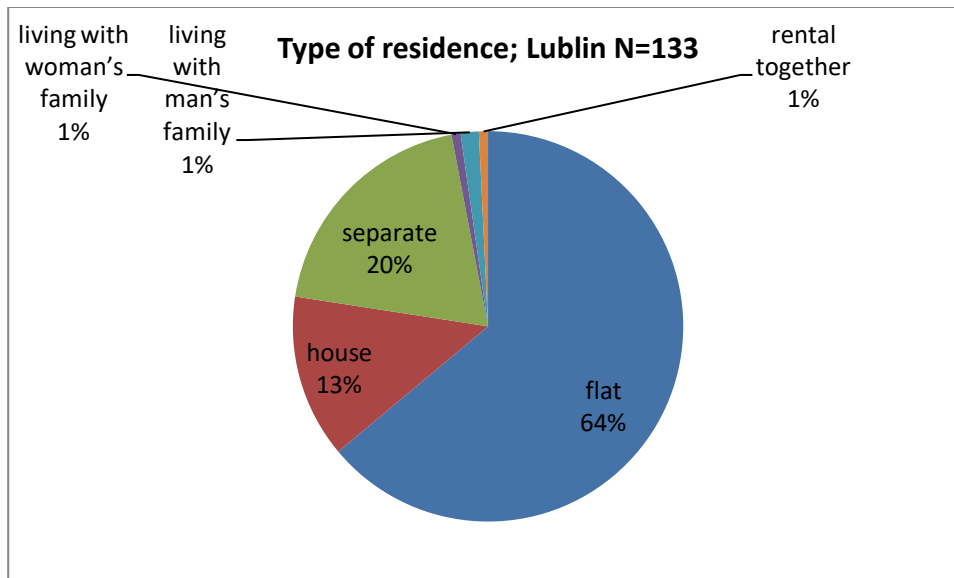
Graph 5.1: Length of relationship in years (Lublin sample)



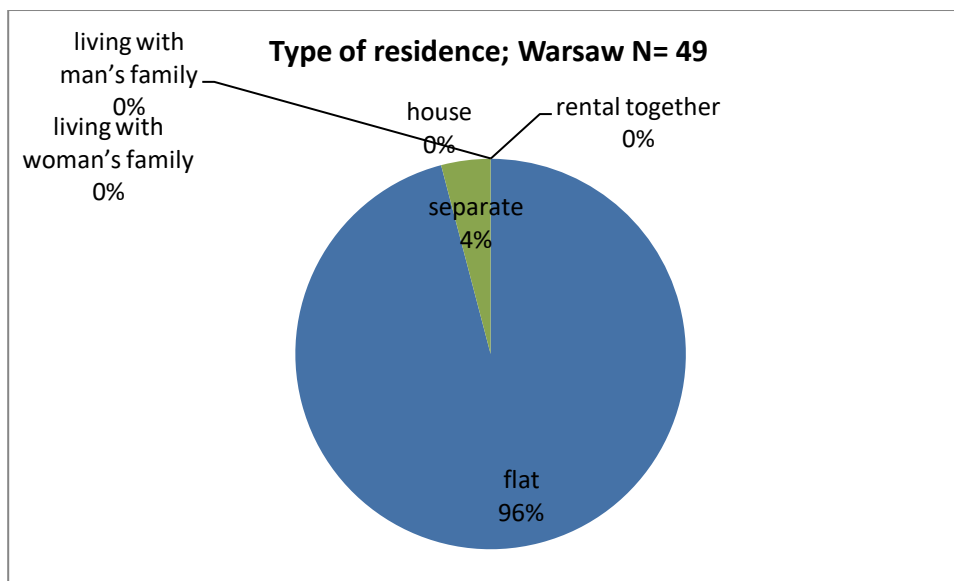
Graph 5.2: Length of relationship in the sampled populations (Warsaw sample)

6.2.6 Type of residence

Most couples lived in the flats, which were their property (64 per cent in Lublin, 64 per cent in Warsaw). In Lublin, however, 13 per cent of couples owed houses. One per cent of couples from Lublin lived in rented properties, 1 per cent shared with the woman's family, and 1 per cent shared accommodation with the man's family. (Appendix 1, Table 6)



Graph 6.1: Type of residence in the sampled populations (Lublin sample)



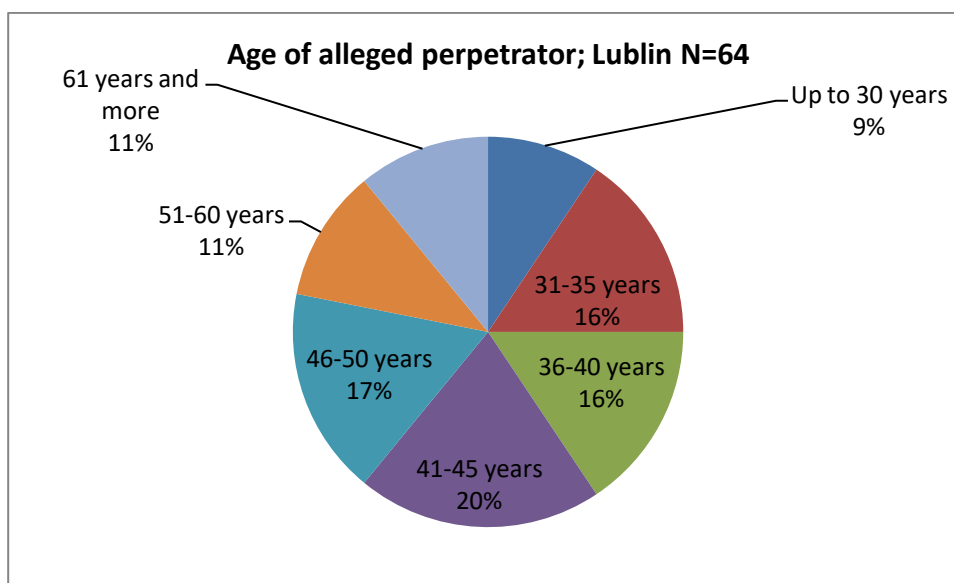
Graph 6.2: Type of residence in the sampled populations (Warsaw sample)

6.2.7 Age of alleged perpetrators

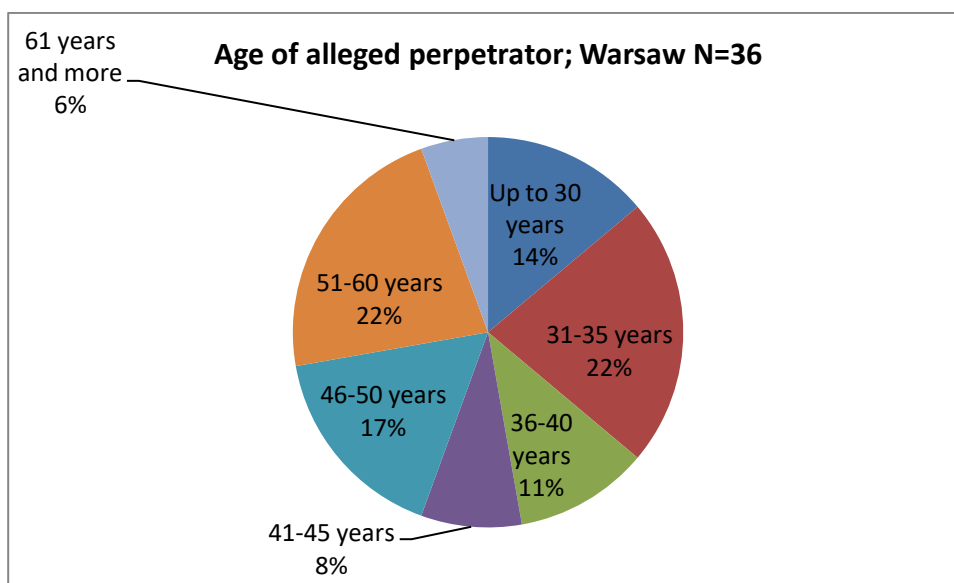
The age groups of alleged perpetrators seem to be evenly spread in both samples.

The largest age group of alleged perpetrators in Lublin was 41-45 years (20 per cent). The group of 46-50 years contributed to 17 per cent of the sample. In contrast, the groups 31-35 years and 36-40 years made-up 16 per cent of the population each. In Warsaw, the two largest age groups were: 31-

35 years and 51-60 years (with 22 per cent), followed by the age group of 46-50-year-old (17 per cent) and up to 30 years old (14 per cent). (Appendix 1, Table 7)



Graph 7.1: Age of alleged perpetrators in the sampled populations (Lublin sample)



Graph 7.2: Age of alleged perpetrators in the sampled populations (Warsaw sample)

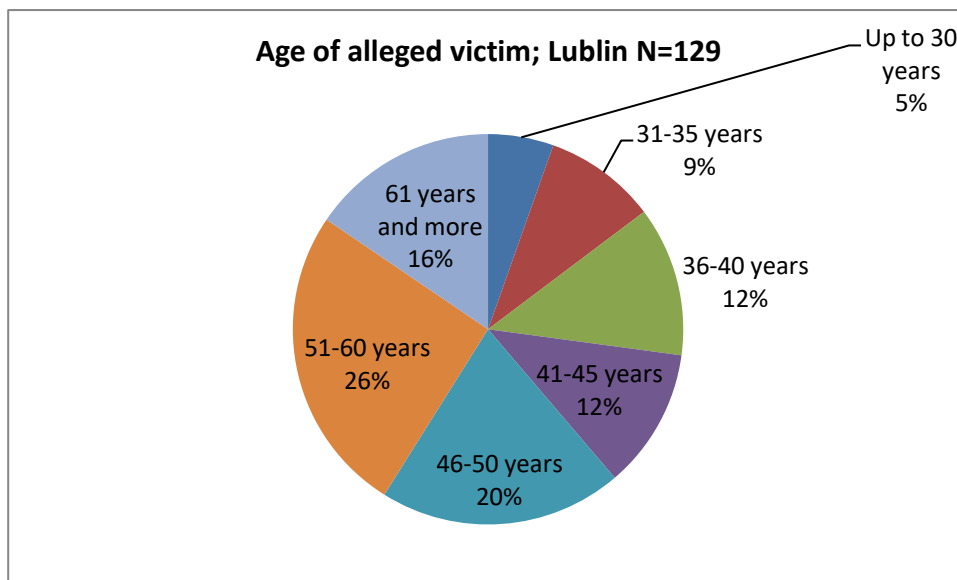
6.2.8 Age of alleged victims

The age groups of alleged victims are differently spread in the samples from Lublin and Warsaw, with the percentage of reported cases rising with the age group in Lublin from 5 per cent for the men

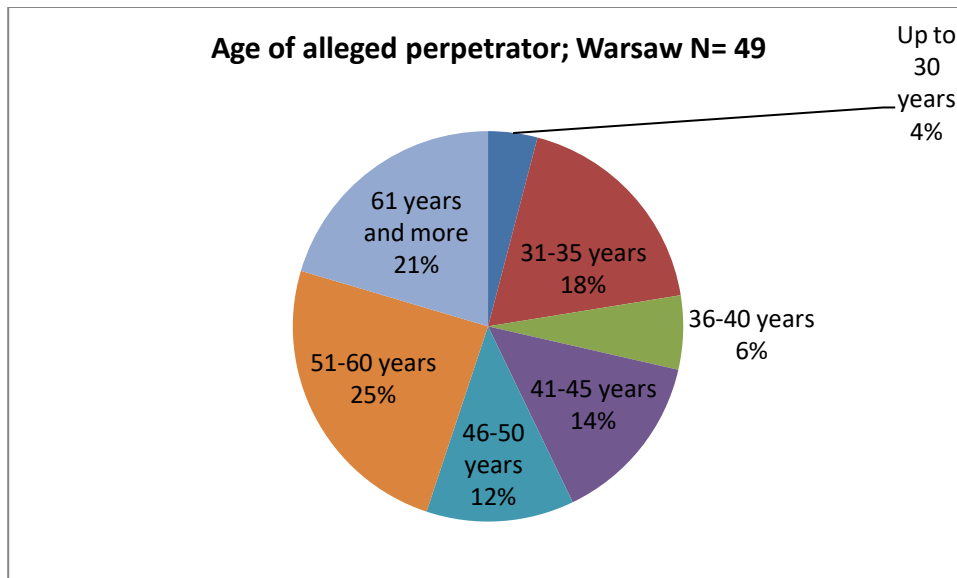
in up to their 30s to reach 26 per cent for the group of 51-60 years old men, and then decreases to 16 per cent for the men of 61 and more years old.

The pattern in Warsaw is different for the younger age groups, with the rise from 4 per cent in the younger group of men up to 30 years old. There is a peak of 18 per cent of occurrence for the men of 31-35 years old, then a drop to 6 per cent in the group of 46-50-year-olds, and a similar percentage in the older age groups.

(Appendix 1, Table 8).



Graph 8.1: Age of alleged victim in the sampled populations (Lublin sample)



Graph 8.2: Age of alleged victim in the sampled populations (Warsaw sample)

6.2.9 Age difference between the partners

There were not many women older than their partners in the analysed samples. No woman was 11 and more years older than her partner. Six per cent of women in Warsaw (and none in Lublin) were 7-10 years older, 5 per cent of women in Lublin were 3-4 years older than their partners.

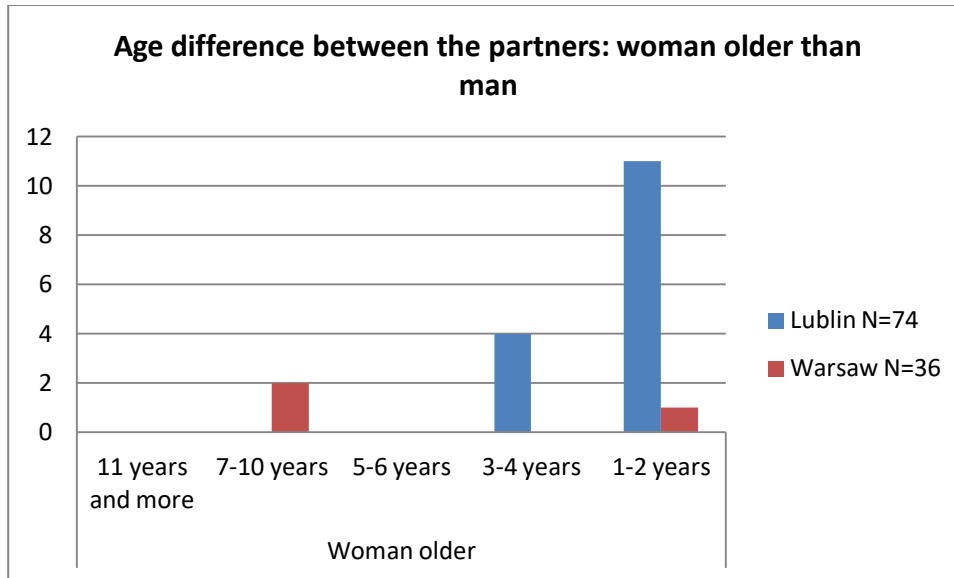
Approximately 15 per cent of women in Lublin and over 3 per cent of women in Warsaw were 1-2 years older than their partners. (Appendix 1, Table 9)

Table 9: Age difference between the partners in the sampled populations

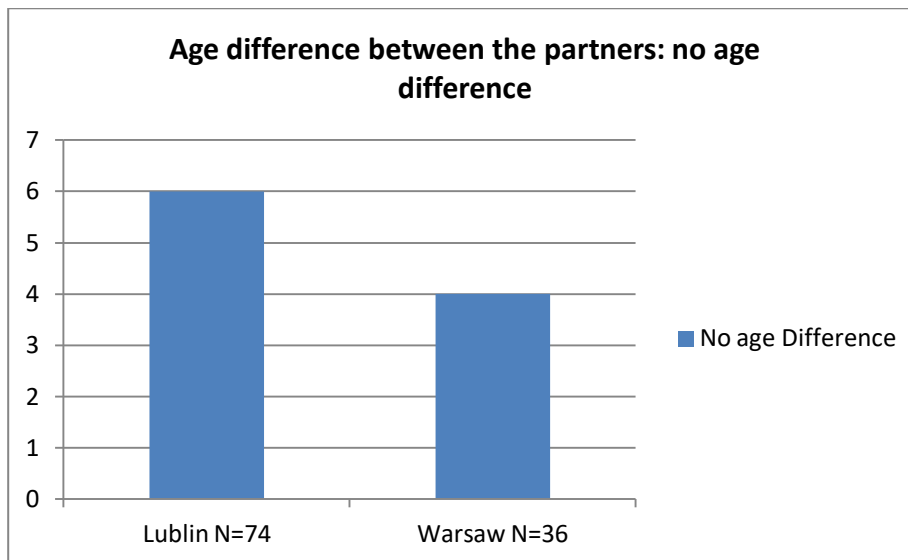
| Sample | | | | Lublin N= 74 | Warsaw N = 36 |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|------|-----------------|------------------|
| Age difference between the partners | Woman older | 11 years and more | Freq | 0 | 0 |
| | | | % | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| | | 7-10 years | Freq | 0 | 2 |
| | | | % | 0.0 | 5.6 |
| | | 5-6 years | Freq | 0 | 0 |
| | | | % | 0.0 | 0.0 |

| | | | | | |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|------|------|------|
| | | 3-4 years | Freq | 4 | 0 |
| | | | % | 5.4 | 0.0 |
| | | 1-2 years | Freq | 11 | 1 |
| | | | % | 14.9 | 2.3 |
| | No age Difference | | Freq | 6 | 4 |
| | | | % | 8.1 | 11.1 |
| | Man older | 1-2 years | Freq | 26 | 7 |
| | | | % | 35.1 | 19.4 |
| | | 3-4 years | Freq | 13 | 11 |
| | | | % | 17.6 | 30.6 |
| | | 5-6 years | Freq | 4 | 2 |
| | | | % | 5.4 | 5.6 |
| | | 7-10 years | Freq | 6 | 6 |
| | | | % | 8.1 | 16.7 |
| | | 11 years and more | Freq | 4 | 3 |
| | | | % | 5.4 | 8.3 |

Graph 9.1: Incidence of the age difference between the partners: woman older



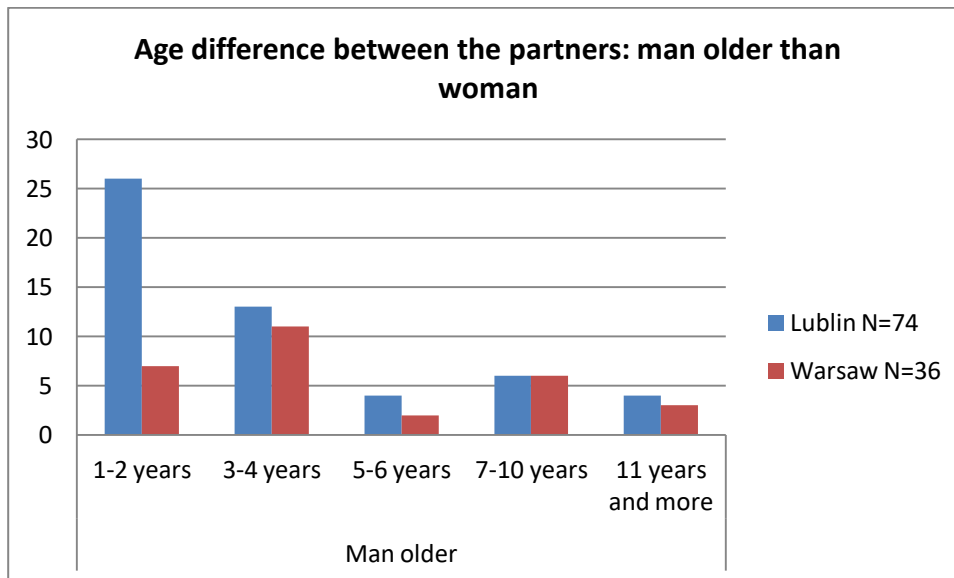
There were 8 per cent of women in Lublin and 11 per cent of women in Warsaw sample that are of the same Age as the partners they allegedly abused.



Graph 9.2: Incidence of the age difference between the partners: no age difference

In the majority of couples, it was men that were older than their partners. The most common age difference in Lublin (in 35 per cent of cases) was the man being 1-2 years older than his partner (in comparison with 19 per cent in Warsaw). In Warsaw, most the men (30 per cent) were 3-4 years

older than their female partners (in comparison with 18 per cent in Lublin). A similar percentage of men were 5-6 years older than their partners (5 per cent in Lublin and 6 per cent in Warsaw). A higher rate of men in Warsaw were 7-10 (17 per cent in Warsaw and 8 per cent in Lublin) and 11 years and older than their spouses (respectively 8 per cent in Warsaw and 5 per cent in Lublin).

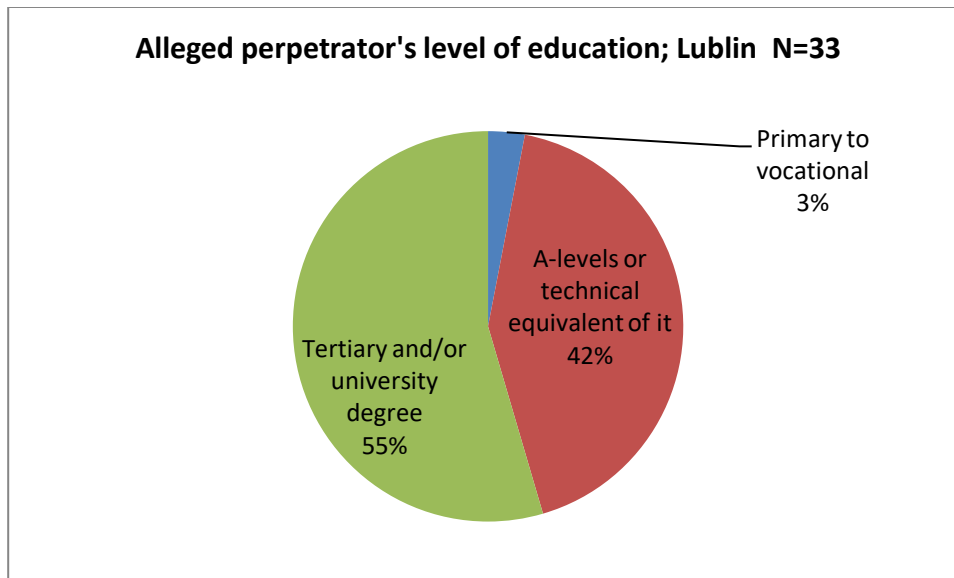


Graph 9.2: Incidence of the age difference between the partners: man older

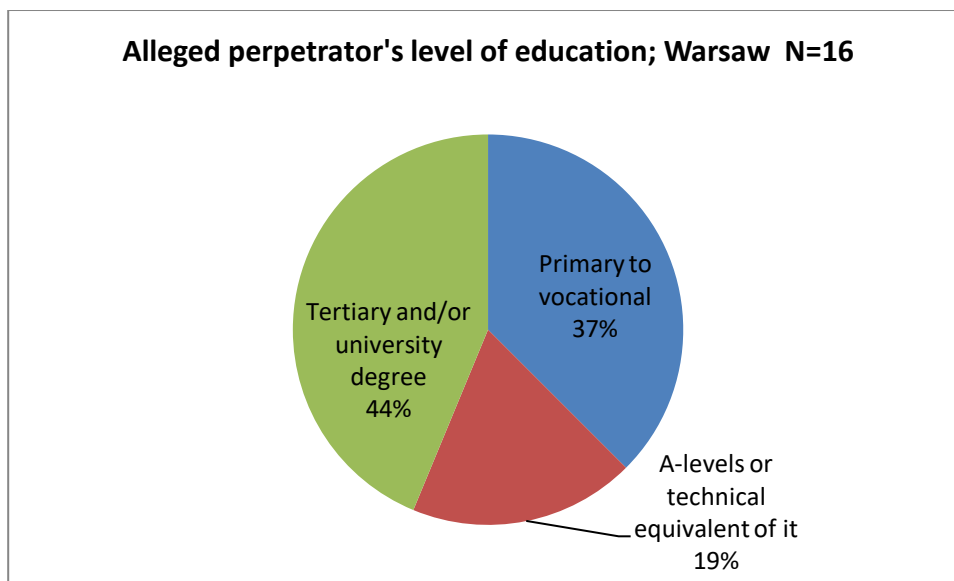
6.2.10 Alleged perpetrator's level of education

The most common level of education (55 per cent in Lublin and 44 per cent in Warsaw) was a tertiary education and/or university degree. The second most common education level was different in Lublin and Warsaw, with higher representation of alleged perpetrators with A-level and equivalent (42 per cent) in Lublin (in comparison with 19 per cent in Warsaw) and a higher level of women with primary to vocational education in Warsaw (37 per cent in comparison with 3 per cent in Lublin).

(Appendix 1, Table 10).



Graph 10.1: Alleged perpetrator's level of education (Lublin sample)

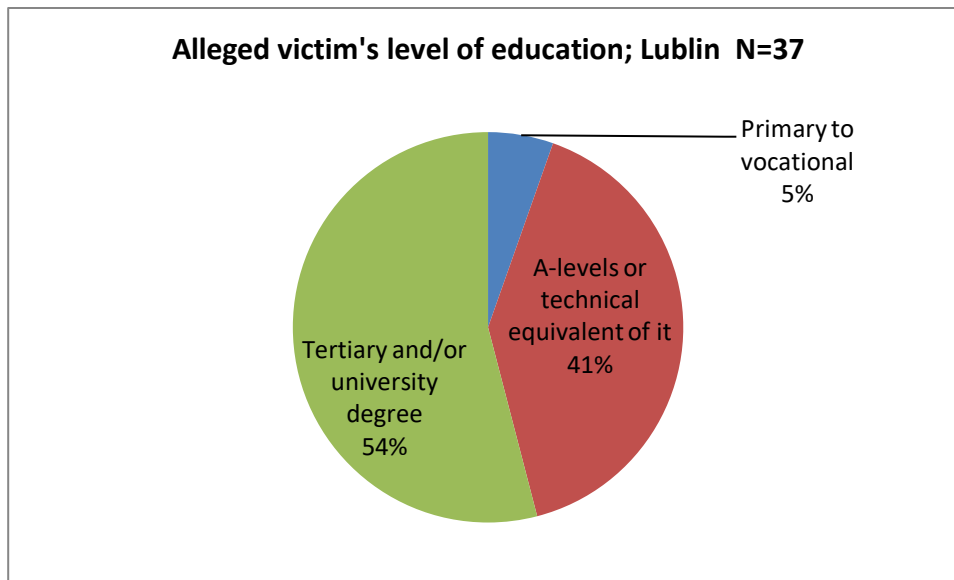


Graph 10.2: Alleged perpetrator's level of education (Warsaw sample)

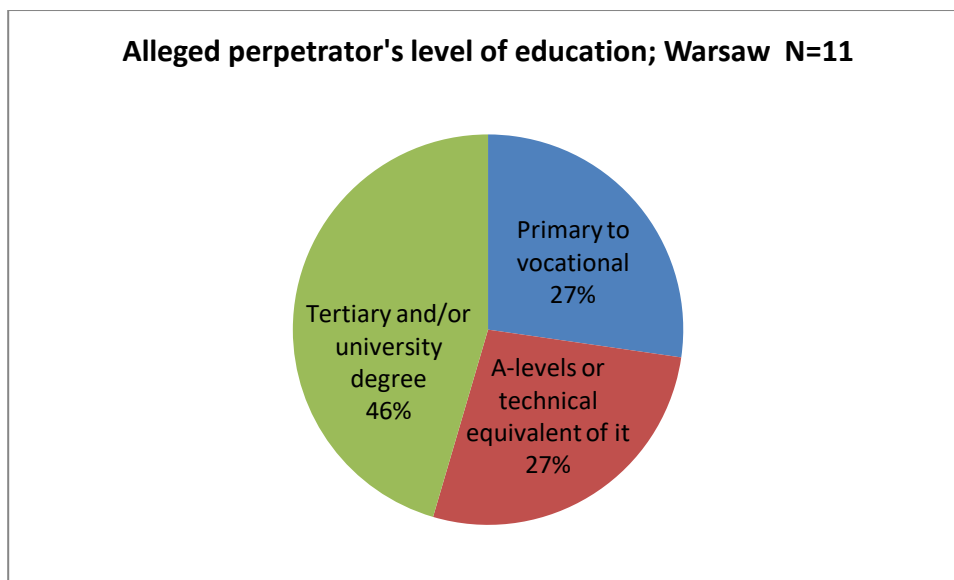
6.2.11 Alleged victim's level of education

The most common level of education of alleged victim was the same as the level of the education of the alleged perpetrator: it was tertiary and/or higher education in both samples (54 per cent in Lublin and 46 per cent in Warsaw). In Warsaw, there was the same percentage of men with Primary to vocational education and A-level and equivalent: 27 per cent, whereas in Lublin, men with A-level

education contributed to 41 per cent of cases and alleged victims with primary to vocational education made 5 per cent of cases. (Appendix 1, Table 11)



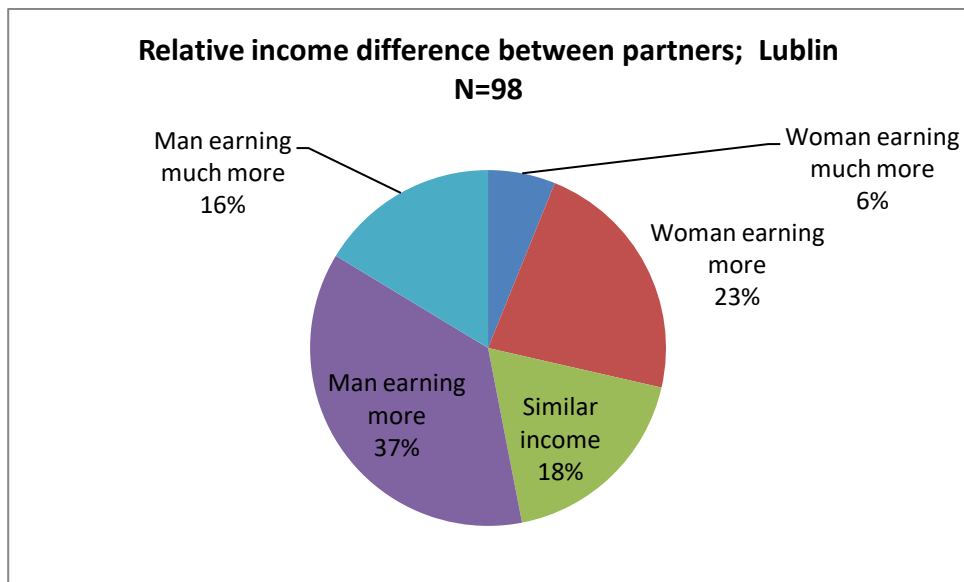
Graph 11.1 Alleged victim's level of education (Lublin sample)



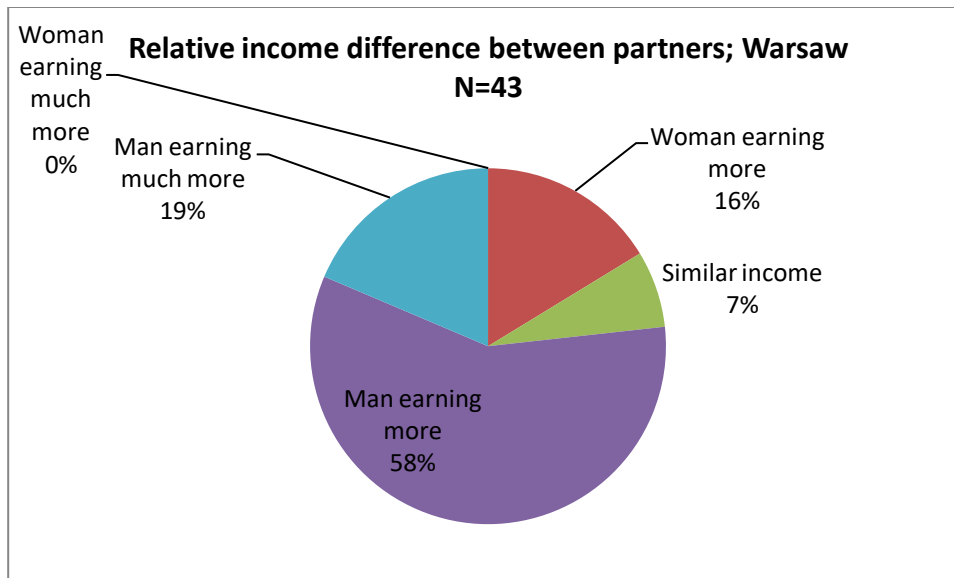
Graph 11.1 Alleged victim's level of education (Warsaw sample)

6.2.12 Relative income difference

Information in the case files allowed an estimation of the relative difference in income between alleged perpetration and the alleged victim, only in the Lublin sample, where women were earning much more than their partners (in 6 per cent of cases). Women earned more than their partners in 23 per cent of cases from Lublin and 16 per cent of cases in Warsaw. Similar income was recorded in 18 per cent of cases in Lublin and 7 per cent cases in Warsaw. In the majority of cases (respectively 37 and 58 per cent) it was men, who earned more or much more (16 per cent of cases in Lublin and 19 per cent of cases in Warsaw) than their partners. (Appendix 1, Table 12)



Graph 12.1 Relative income differences between the alleged perpetrator and alleged victim (Lublin sample)

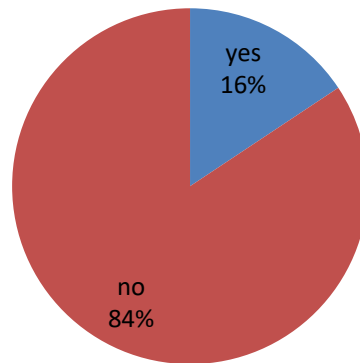


Graph 12.2 Relative income differences between the alleged perpetrator and alleged victim (Warsaw sample)

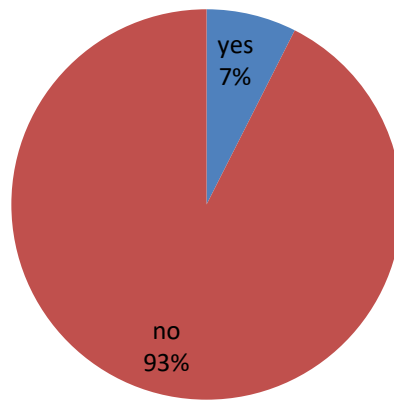
6.2.13 Acting under the influence of alcohol

The vast majority of alleged perpetrators and victims in domestic violence/abuse cases examined were not under the influence of alcohol when the reported incidents took place as reported by partners and police. In Lublin, 16 per cent of women and 7 per cent of men were reported to have acted under the influence. in contrast, 26 per cent of women and 8 per cent of men were reported in Warsaw. (Appendix 1, Table 13)

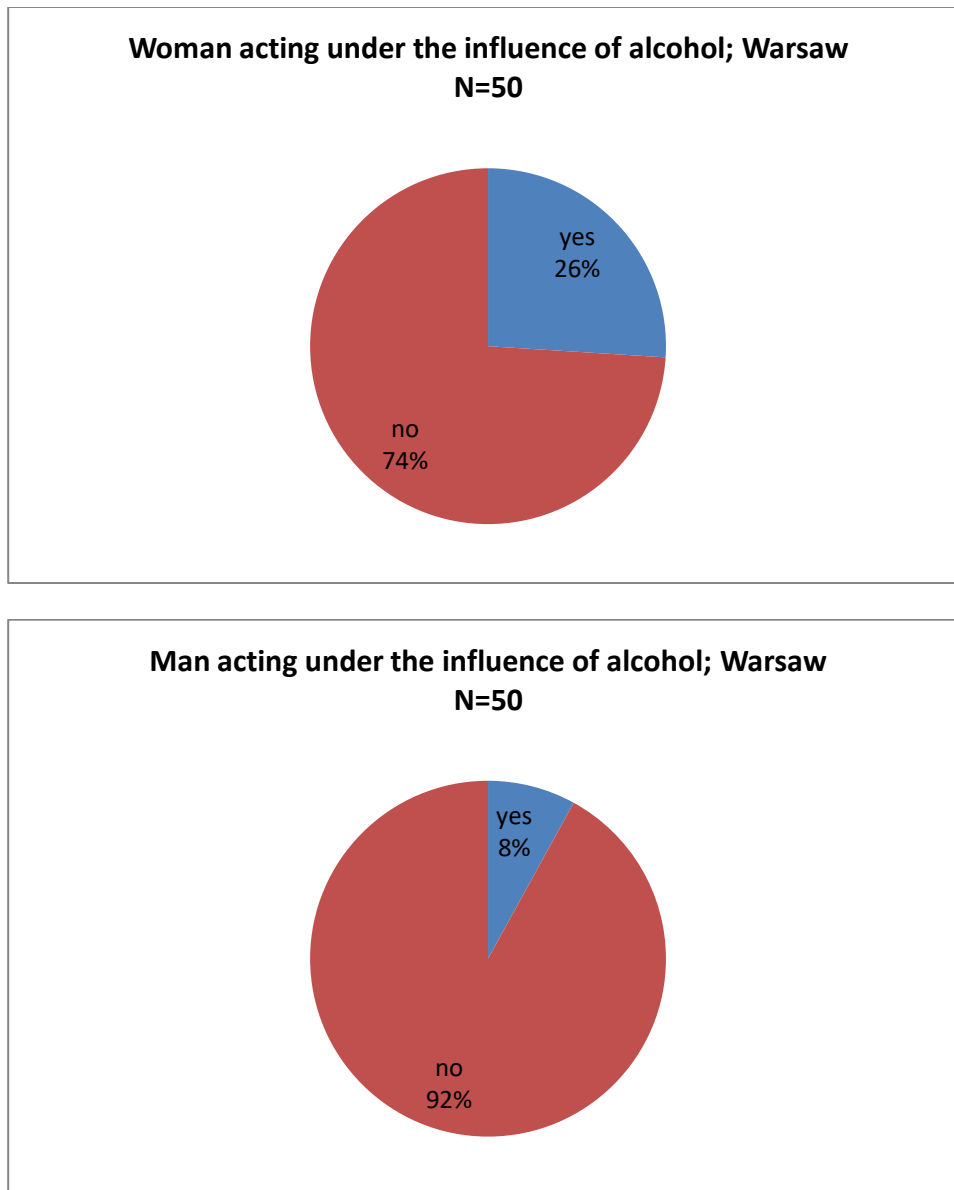
**Woman acting under the influence of alcohol; Lublin
N=134**



Man acting under the influence of alcohol; Lublin N=134



Graph 13.1 Acting under the influence of alcohol (Lublin sample)

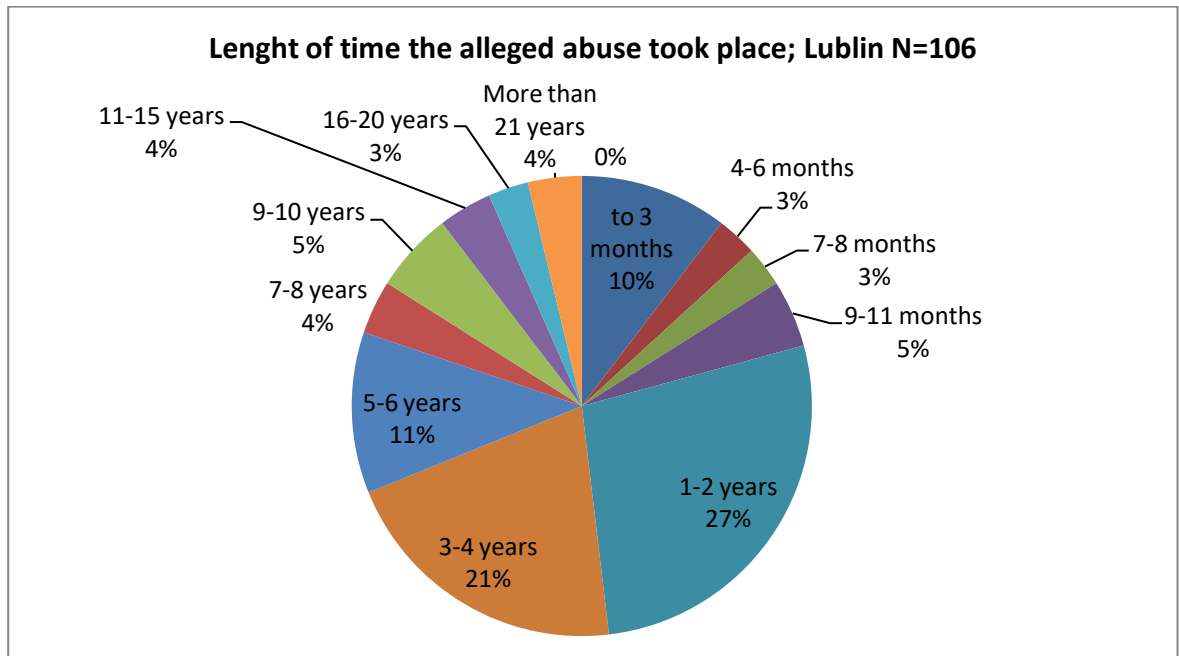


Graph 13.2 Acting under the influence of alcohol (Warsaw sample)

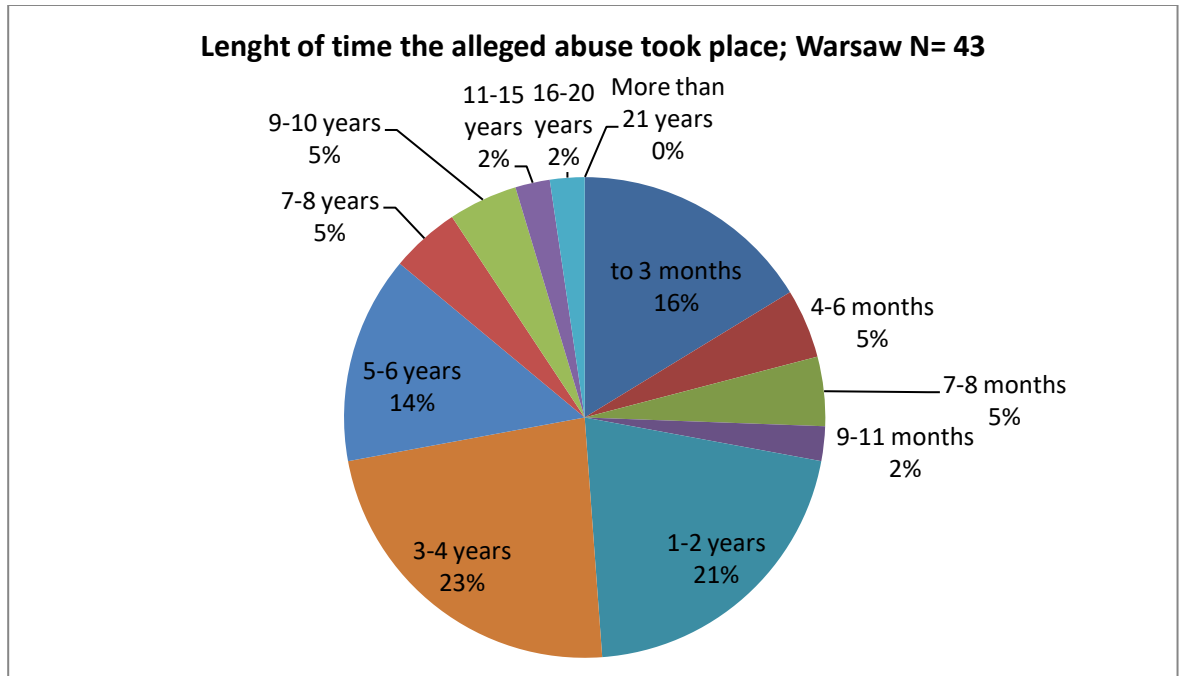
6.2.14 Length of time the alleged abuse took place

Another variable examined was the length of time the alleged abuse took place. The most common time frame in Lublin was 1-2 years (27 per cent of cases), followed by 3-4 years (21 per cent), while in Warsaw these groups were reversed, with the most common length of abuse being 3-4 years and second most common 1-2 years (23 and 21 per cent of cases). A higher percentage of couples in

Warsaw reported the abuse taking place for up to 3 months (16 per cent in comparison with 10 per cent of cases from Lublin). Additionally, in a higher percentage of Warsaw couples, the abuse took place for 5-6 years (14 per cent in comparison with 1 per cent in Lublin). Percentages of occurrence for the lengths of abuse between 4 months to a year and between 7-8 years to more than 21 years were relatively small; none of them occurred in more than 5 per cent of couples in either sampling place. (Appendix 1, Table 14)



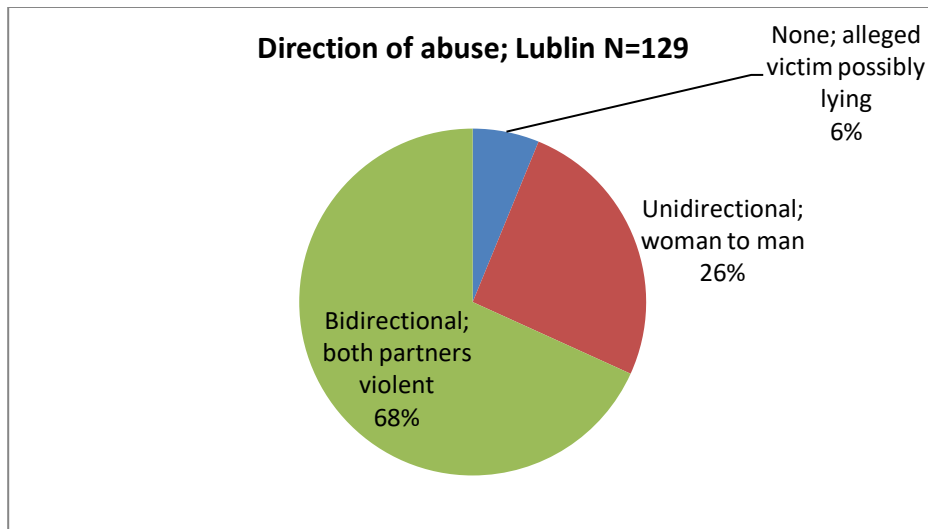
Graph 14.1 Length of time the alleged abuse took place (Lublin sample)



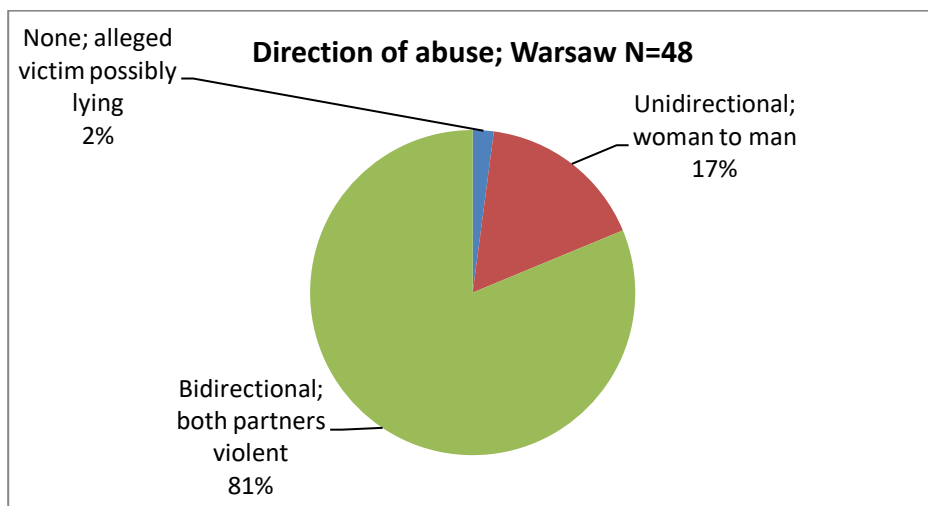
Graph 14.2 Length of time the alleged abuse took place (Warsaw sample)

6.2.15 General types of and direction of abuse

The researcher used her judgement (with the aid of a six-factor test of credibility by Austin, 2000) to establish whether the reported cases for abuse were truthful. In cases, where she strongly suspected that the woman was falsely accused, she classified the case under the category "alleged victim lying" based on the history of previous cases of domestic violence perpetration by the man or the testimonies of the witnesses in the case files. Still, she included the case in further analysis. Cases, where there was a strong suspicion that the alleged victim reported the incident (or incidents) untruthfully, were a small minority: 6 per cent of all cases in Lublin and 2 per cent of cases in Warsaw (Chapter 6, Appendix 2, Table 15a, see section 5.5.1.2.1 for more details).



Graph 15.1 Direction of abuse (Lublin sample)

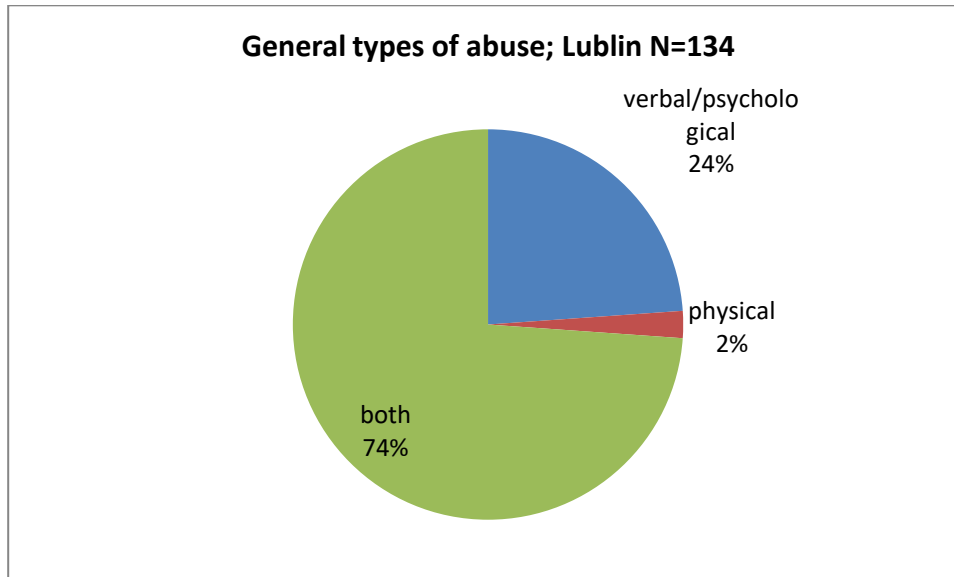


Graph 15.2 Direction of abuse (Warsaw sample)

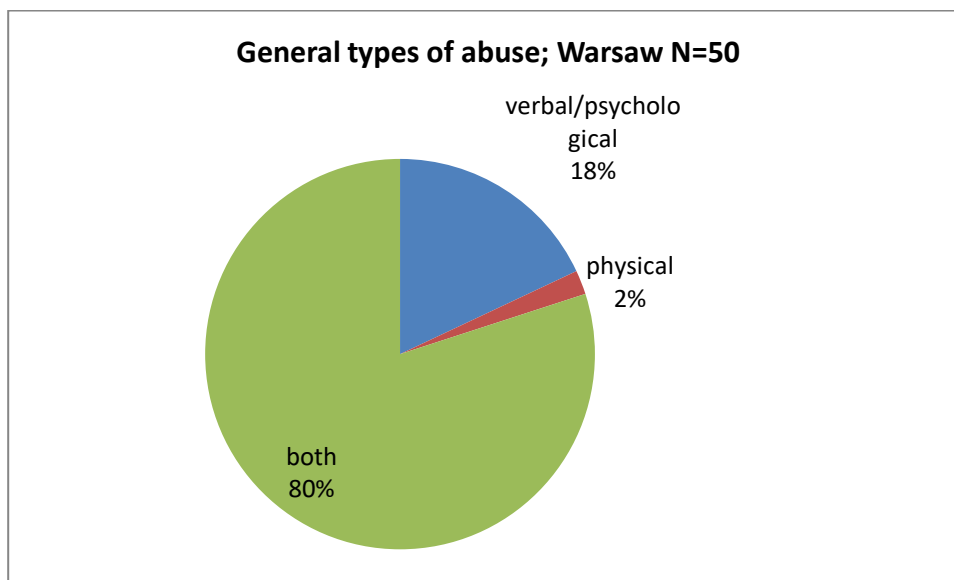
The most common type of abuse perpetration was a combination of physical and psychological (emotional) abuse. When looking at the general division of abuse types, physical abuse occurred in 75 per cent of cases in Lublin and 82 per cent of cases in Warsaw, while verbal/psychological abuse –in 98 per cent of cases in Lublin and Warsaw.

Were both basic types of abuse occurred, and a separate category was created to show this, both types of abuse occurred in 74 per cent of cases from Lublin and 80 per cent of cases in Warsaw.

Women in Lublin used just verbal (psychological) abuse more often than women in Warsaw: in 24 per cent of cases in comparison with 18 cases. The same small percentage (2 per cent) of alleged perpetrators used physical abuse only. (Appendix 1, Table 15b)



Graph 15.3 General types of abuse (Lublin sample)



Graph 15.4 General types of abuse (Warsaw sample)

6.2.16.1 Types of physical abuse

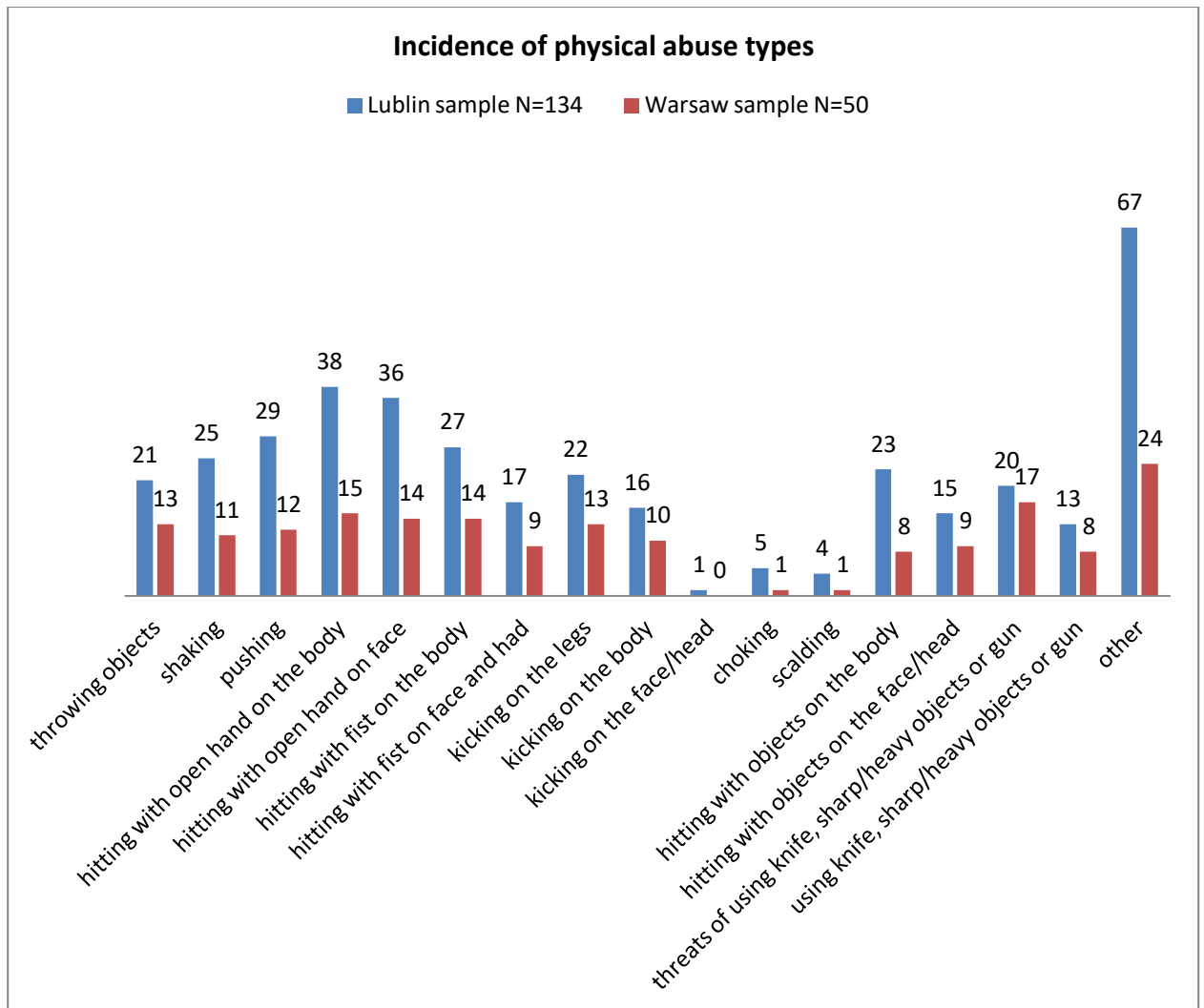
When looking at the perpetration of physical violence/abuse, there is a generally higher percentage of occurrences in the majority of cases of physical abuse types in Warsaw than in Lublin (Appendix 1, Table 16).

In Warsaw, the highest percentage of occurrence was recorded in the category: threats of using a knife, sharp/heavy objects or gun (34 per cent of cases in comparison with 15 per cent of cases from Lublin). There, in thirty per cent of physical or mixed (psychological and physical) abuse cases, women hit with an open hand on the body (28 per cent, and the highest occurrence in terms of physical abuse categories, in Lublin). In 28 per cent of cases where physical abuse took place, women hit with an open hand, and with a fist on the face (comparing with 27 and 20 per cent of cases in Lublin). Kicking on the legs, and throwing objects, took place in 26 per cent of Warsaw cases (16 per cent of cases in Lublin) while pushing the partner occurred in 24 per cent of cases (22 per cent in Lublin). Kicking on the body allegedly happened in 20 per cent of Warsaw cases (12 per cent of Lublin cases) and hitting with objects on the face or head occurred 18 per cent of cases from Warsaw and 11 per cent of cases from Lublin. Women in Warsaw were reported to hit their partners with an object on the body and used a knife, sharp/heavy objects or gun in 16 per cent of cases. Women in Lublin were reported to do the same in 17 and 10 per cent of cases. Choking, scalding and other, unidentified, types of physical abuse were more commonly occurring in Lublin (respectively in 6, 3, and 50 per cent of cases in comparison with 2, 2, and 48 per cent of cases in Warsaw (Appendix 1, Table 16).

Table 16a: Types of physical abuse in the sampled populations

| Type of physical abuse | Lublin sample N= 134 | | | | Warsaw sample N= 50 | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|------|---------------|------|------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | Occurring | | Not occurring | | Occurring | | Not occurring | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| throwing objects | 21 | 15.7 | 107 | 79.8 | 13 | 26.0 | 34 | 68.0 |
| Shaking | 25 | 18.7 | 105 | 78.4 | 11 | 22.0 | 36 | 72.0 |
| Pushing | 29 | 21.6 | 99 | 73.9 | 12 | 24.0 | 35 | 70.0 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|------|-----|------|----|------|----|------|
| hitting with open hand on the body | 38 | 28.4 | 90 | 67.2 | 15 | 30.0 | 32 | 64.0 |
| hitting with open hand on face | 36 | 26.9 | 92 | 68.7 | 14 | 28.0 | 33 | 66.0 |
| hitting with fist on the body | 27 | 20.1 | 101 | 75.4 | 14 | 28.0 | 32 | 64.0 |
| hitting with fist on face and head | 17 | 12.7 | 111 | 82.8 | 9 | 18.0 | 38 | 76.0 |
| kicking on the legs | 22 | 16.4 | 106 | 79.1 | 13 | 26.0 | 34 | 68.0 |
| kicking on the body | 16 | 11.9 | 112 | 83.6 | 10 | 20.0 | 37 | 74.0 |
| kicking on the face/head | 1 | 0.7 | 127 | 94.8 | 0 | 0.0 | 47 | 94.0 |
| Choking | 5 | 5.7 | 123 | 91.8 | 1 | 2.0 | 46 | 29.0 |
| Scalding | 4 | 3.0 | 124 | 92.5 | 1 | 2.0 | 46 | 29.0 |
| hitting with objects on the body | 23 | 17.2 | 105 | 78.4 | 8 | 16.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| hitting with objects on the face/head | 15 | 11.2 | 113 | 84.3 | 9 | 18.0 | 38 | 76.0 |
| threats of using knife, sharp/heavy objects or gun | 20 | 14.9 | 108 | 80.6 | 17 | 34.0 | 30 | 60.0 |
| using knife, sharp/heavy objects or gun | 13 | 9.7 | 115 | 85.8 | 8 | 16.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| Other | 67 | 50.0 | 65 | 48.5 | 24 | 48.0 | 26 | 52.0 |



Graph 16.1 Incidence of the types of physical abuse (Lublin and Warsaw samples)

6.2.16.2 Types of verbal/psychological (emotional) abuse and controlling behaviours

This research identified nine categories of verbal/psychological abuse. These were modelled on the Power and Control Wheel; with the category “using male privilege” changed into “using a gender privilege” and adding “manipulating the system” as an additional category (Chapter 5, Appendix 5).

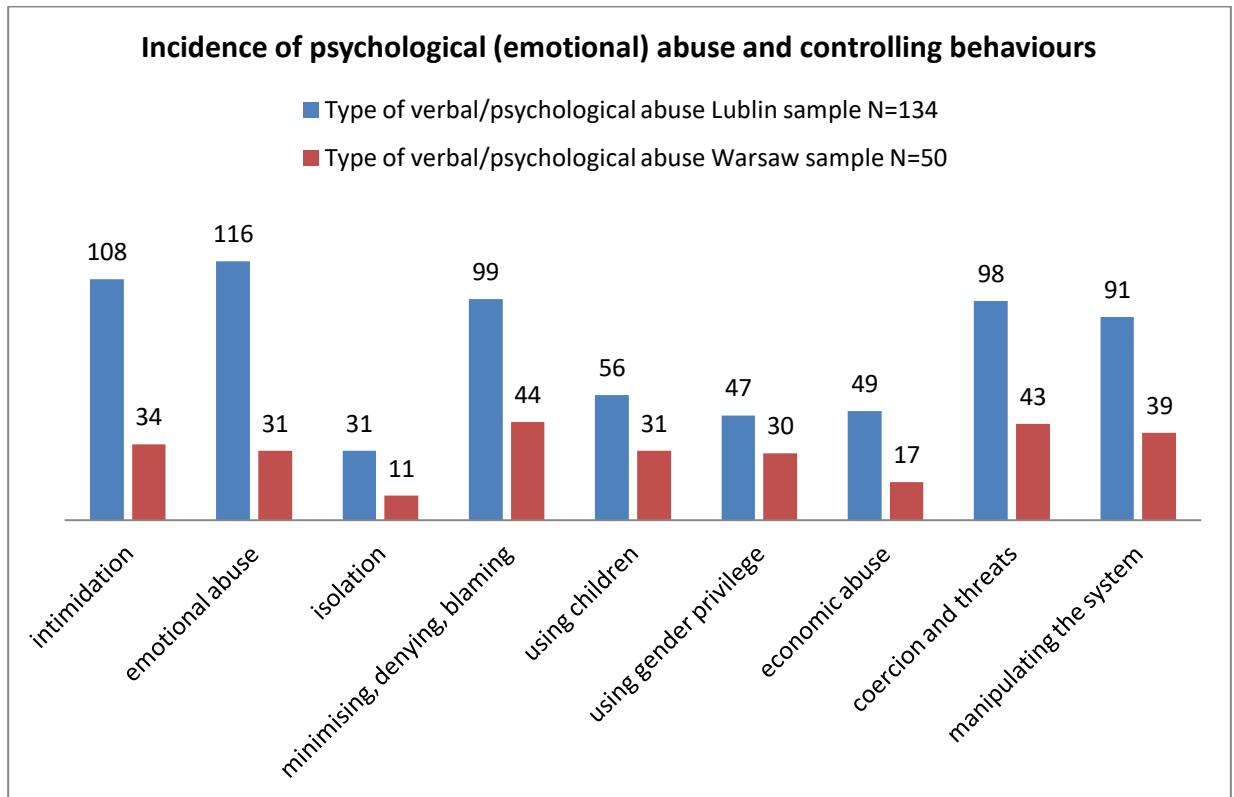
Table 16b: Types of psychological (emotional) abuse and controlling behaviours in the sampled populations

| Type of verbal/psychological abuse | Lublin sample N= 134 | | | | Warsaw sample N= 50 | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|------|---------------|------|------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | Occurring | | Not occurring | | Occurring | | Not occurring | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| intimidation | 108 | 80.6 | 25 | 18.7 | 34 | 68.0 | 16 | 32.0 |
| emotional abuse | 116 | 86.6 | 17 | 12.7 | 31 | 62.0 | 19 | 38.0 |
| Isolation | 31 | 32.1 | 102 | 76.1 | 11 | 22.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| minimising, denying, blaming | 99 | 73.9 | 34 | 25.4 | 44 | 88.0 | 6 | 12.0 |
| using children | 56 | 41.8 | 77 | 57.6 | 31 | 62.0 | 19 | 38.0 |
| using gender privilege | 47 | 35.1 | 86 | 64.2 | 30 | 60.0 | 20 | 40.0 |
| economic abuse | 49 | 36.6 | 84 | 25.4 | 17 | 34.0 | 33 | 66.0 |
| coercion and threats | 98 | 73.1 | 35 | 26.1 | 43 | 86.0 | 7 | 14.0 |
| manipulating the system | 91 | 67.9 | 42 | 31.3 | 39 | 78.0 | 11 | 22.0 |

The most common abuse types in Lublin were intimidation and emotional abuse; each one occurring in 81 per cent of cases where psychological/emotional abuse was recorded. Intimidation occurred in 68 per cent of Warsaw cases, while emotional abuse in 62 per cent of cases. Minimising, denying and blaming the partner happened in 74 per cent of Lublin cases and 88 per cent, and most of Warsaw cases. Coercion and threats were identified in 73 per cent of cases from Lublin and 86 per cent in Warsaw (where it was the second most common abuse type). Evidence of a female partner trying to manipulate the system was reported in 69 per cent of cases in Lublin and 78 per cent of cases in Warsaw. Women from Warsaw used children and gender privilege more often than these in Lublin: in, respectively, 62 and 60 per cent of cases in comparison with 42 and 35 per cent. Economic abuse and isolation of partner were the least commonly reported: in 37 and 31 per cent of cases from Lublin and 34 and 22 per cent in Warsaw.

Overall, in Warsaw, in seven of nine categories, the percentage of occurrence was 60 per cent and higher; while in Lublin, this occurred in five categories.

(Appendix 1, Table 16)



Graph 16.2 Incidence of the types of psychological (emotional) abuse and controlling behaviours (Lublin and Warsaw samples)

6.2.17 Reasons for abuse

No or inadequate financial support by the male partner was the most commonly identified reason for abuse in both sampling places: reported in 43 per cent of cases in Lublin and 50 per cent of cases in Warsaw.

The second most common category was forcing a man to move out, identified in 34 and 48 per cent of cases, respectively.

Third most common categories were: woman's self-defence in Lublin (29 per cent of occurrence, in comparison with 19 per cent, and a seventh-place, in Warsaw), and financial problems caused by

the woman in Warsaw (38 per cent of occurrence in comparison with 27 per cent, and a fourth-place, in Lublin).

Financial problems caused by the woman was the fourth most common reason for abuse in Lublin (the third most common reason in Warsaw)

The fifth most common reason was female jealousy, which was identified in 24 per cent of cases in both places.

Alcohol problems or acting under the influence by a male partner was the next most common reason for female abuse in Lublin, in 21 per cent of cases; and fifth most common (along with female jealousy) category in Warsaw, with 24 per cent of occurrence. In Warsaw; the sixth most common reason for abuse was (proven or strongly suspected) woman's adultery (which occurred in 22 per cent of cases, while in Lublin, this was identified in 18 per cent of cases).

Male jealousy was identified as a reason for female violent behaviour in 20 per cent of cases in both sampling places.

Male adultery and woman defending children were the two least commonly recorded reasons for abuse. In Lublin, male adultery was reported in 14 per cent, while in Warsaw in 12, per cent of cases. In comparison, defending children was reported in 9 per cent of cases in Lublin and 10 per cent of cases in Warsaw (Appendix 1, Table 17).

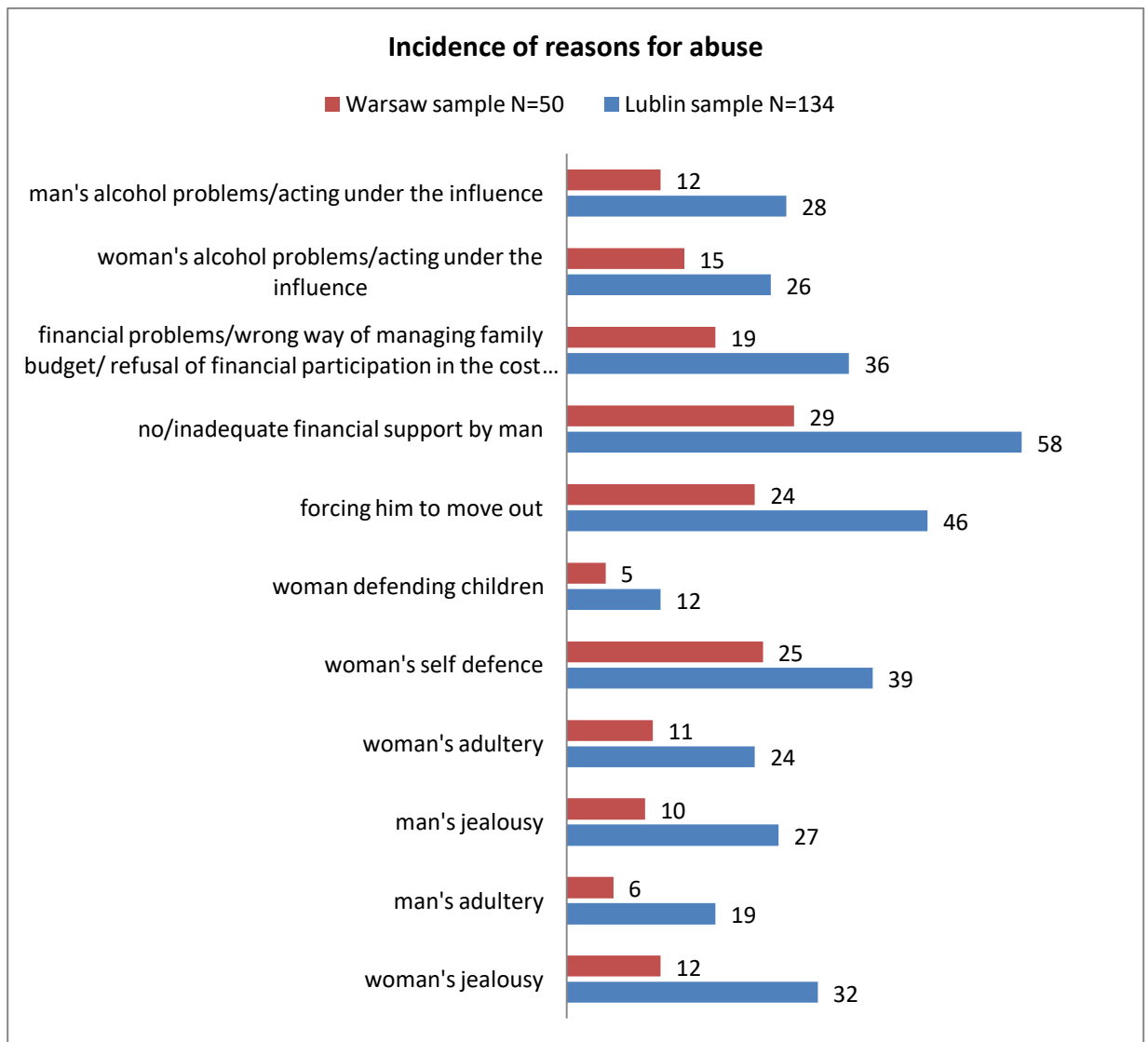
Table 17: Reasons for abuse in the sampled populations

| Reasons for abuse | Lublin sample N= 134 | | | | Warsaw sample N= 50 | | | |
|--|-------------------------|------|---------------|------|------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | Occurring | | Not occurring | | Occurring | | Not occurring | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| woman's jealousy | 32 | 23.9 | 92 | 68.7 | 12 | 24.0 | 37 | 74.0 |
| man's adultery | 19 | 14.2 | 104 | 77.6 | 6 | 12.0 | 43 | 86.0 |
| man's jealousy | 27 | 20.1 | 97 | 72.4 | 10 | 20.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| woman's adultery | 24 | 17.9 | 100 | 74.6 | 11 | 22.0 | 37 | 74.0 |
| woman's self defence | 39 | 29.1 | 85 | 63.4 | 25 | 18.7 | 24 | 48.0 |
| woman defending children | 12 | 9.0 | 112 | 83.6 | 5 | 10.0 | 44 | 88.0 |
| forcing man to move out | 46 | 34.3 | 78 | 58.2 | 24 | 48.0 | 25 | 50.0 |
| no/inadequate financial support by man | 58 | 43.3 | 66 | 49.2 | 29 | 58.0 | 20 | 40.0 |
| financial problems/wrong way of managing family budget/refusal of financial participation in the cost of living by a woman | 36 | 26.7 | 88 | 65.7 | 19 | 38.0 | 30 | 60.0 |
| woman's alcohol problems/acting under the influence | 26 | 19.4 | 100 | 74.6 | 15 | 30.0 | 34 | 68.0 |
| man's alcohol problems/acting under the influence | 28 | 20.9 | 98 | 73.1 | 12 | 24.0 | 37 | 74.0 |

When female jealousy and male adultery were combined, they occurred in approximately 25 per cent of cases in both sampling places. Combined male jealousy and female adultery have been found in 28 per cent of cases in Lublin and approximately 25 per cent of cases in Warsaw.

Money matters combined into one category (by aggregating the categories: financial problems and/or wrong way of managing the family budget and inadequate contribution by a woman and no or

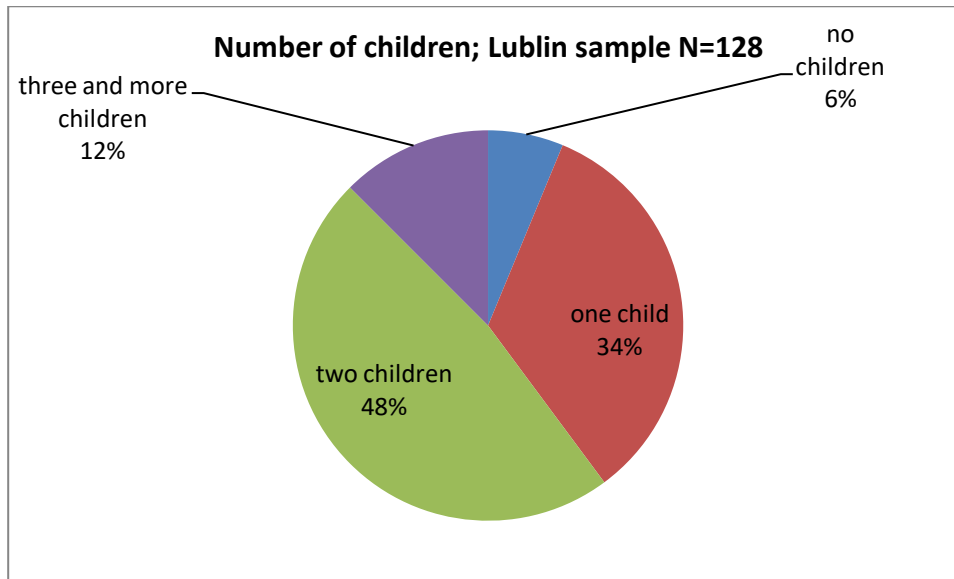
insufficient financial support by man) have been found in 60 per cent of Lublin and 69 per cent of Warsaw cases.



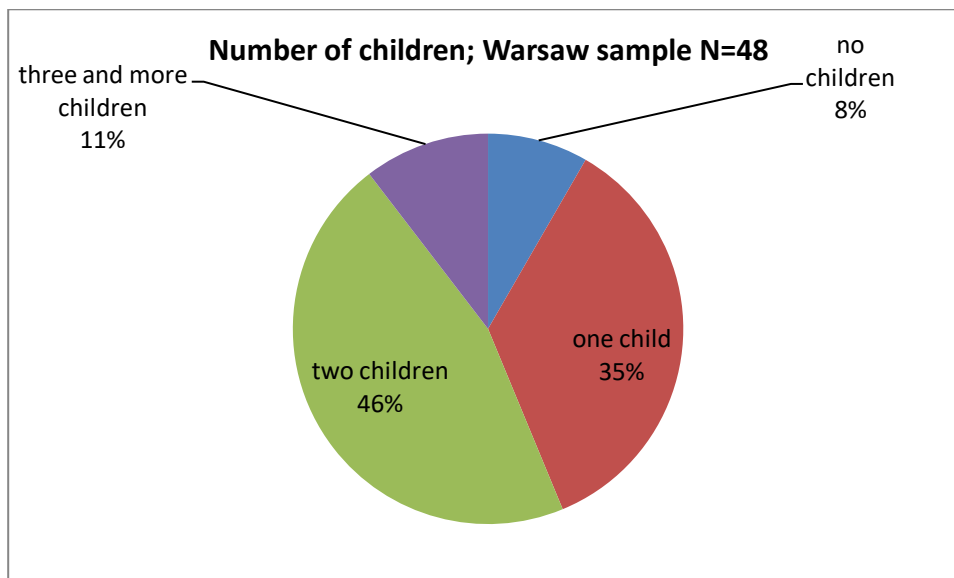
Graph 17.1 Incidence of reasons for abuse (Lublin and Warsaw samples)

6.2.18 Number and parentage of children

Most couples in Lublin and Warsaw had two children (respectively 48 and 46 per cent). The second-largest group of couples had one child: in 34 per cent of cases from Lublin and 35 per cent of cases from Warsaw. Respectively 12 and 11 per cent of couples had three or more children and 6 and 8 per cent no children. (Appendix 1, Table 18a)



Graph 18a.1 Number of children raised by the couple (Lublin sample)

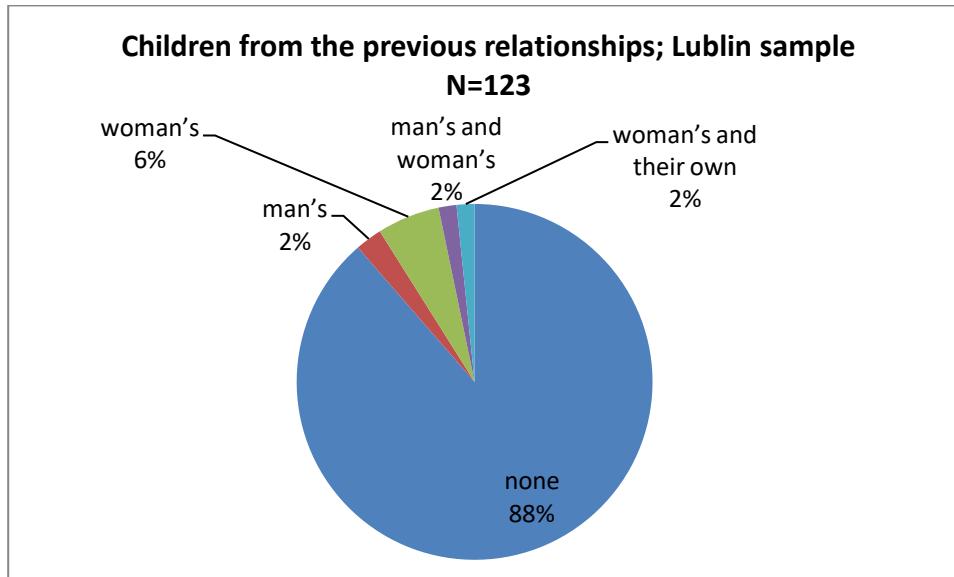


Graph 18a.2 Number of children raised by the couple (Warsaw sample)

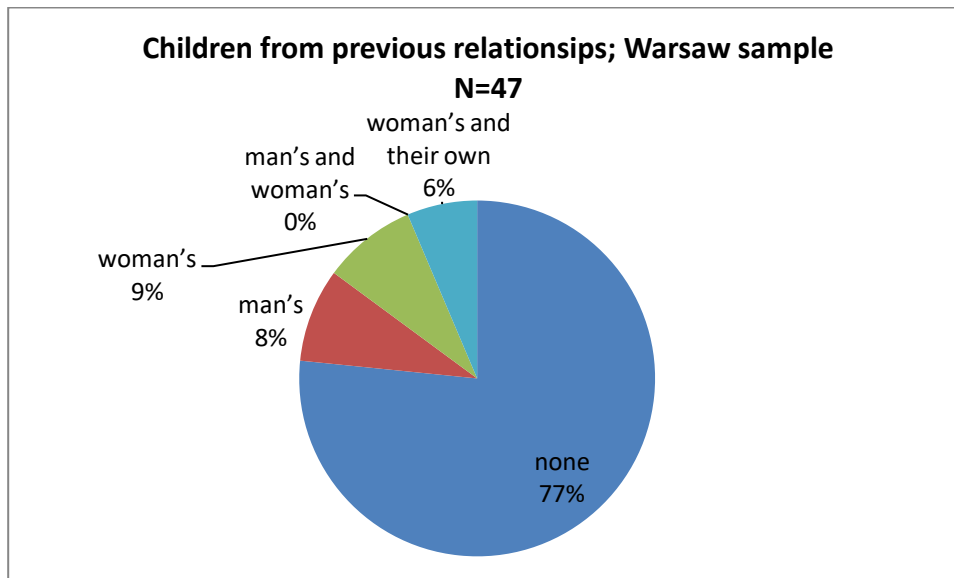
With regards to the parentage of children, the vast majority (88 per cent in the Lublin and 77 per cent in the Warsaw sample) of couples did not have children from previous relationships. A higher percentage of couples in Warsaw, lived in patchwork families, with the woman's child (or children) from previous relationships, 9 per cent in Warsaw and 6 per cent in Lublin. Children from the man's previous relationships were reported in 8 per cent in Warsaw and 2 per cent in Lublin, and from the

woman's previous relationships and children they have together in respectively 6 and 2 per cent.

Children from previous relationships of both partners were found only in the Lublin sample (in 2 per cent of cases). (Appendix 1, Table 18b)



Graph 18b.1 Children from the previous relationships (Lublin sample)



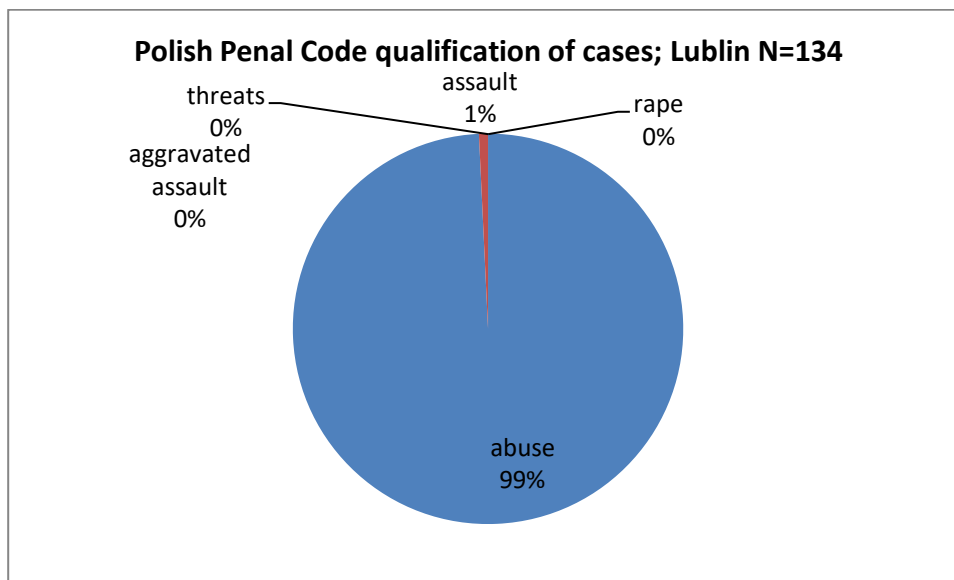
Graph 18b.2 Children from the previous relationships (Warsaw sample)

6.2.19 Legal proceedings

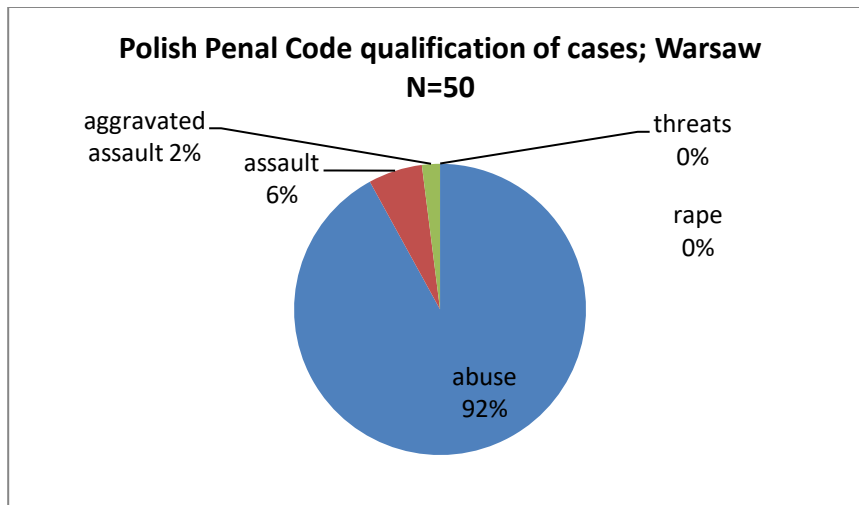
Several variables were examined to get the fullest possible picture of legal proceedings applied to the cases of partner abuse in Polish Judicial System (Appendix 1, Table 19).

Cases of partner abuse can be classified as one of the four articles in the Polish Penal Code: abuse (art 207.1), assault (art 157.1), aggravated assault (156.1), threats (190.1), rape (197.1).

In the sample from Lublin, 99 per cent of cases were classified as alleged abuse and 1 per cent of cases as an alleged assault; no cases of alleged aggravated assault or rape have been found. In Warsaw, 92 per cent of cases were classified as alleged abuse, 6 per cent as assault and 2 per cent as aggravated assault. Like in Lublin, no alleged cases of rape have been found.

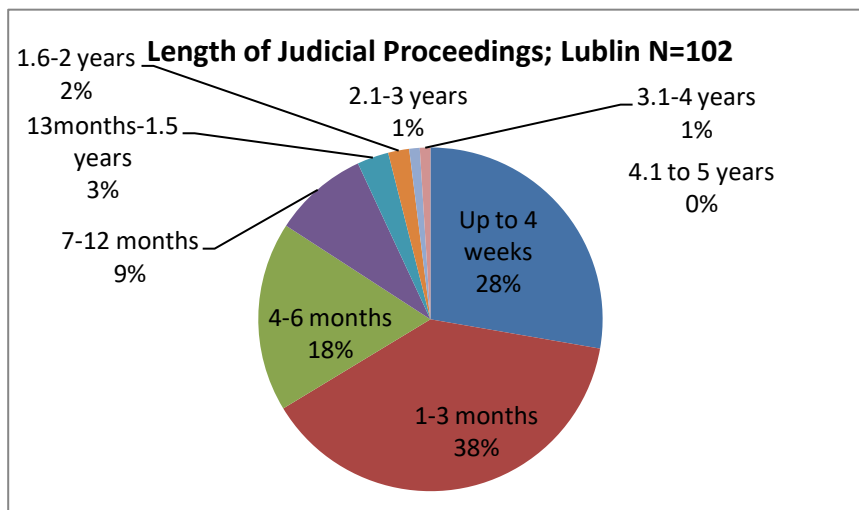


Graph 19.1.1 Polish Penal Code (PPC) qualifications of cases (Lublin sample)



Graph 19.1.2 Polish Penal Code (PPC) qualifications of cases (Warsaw sample)

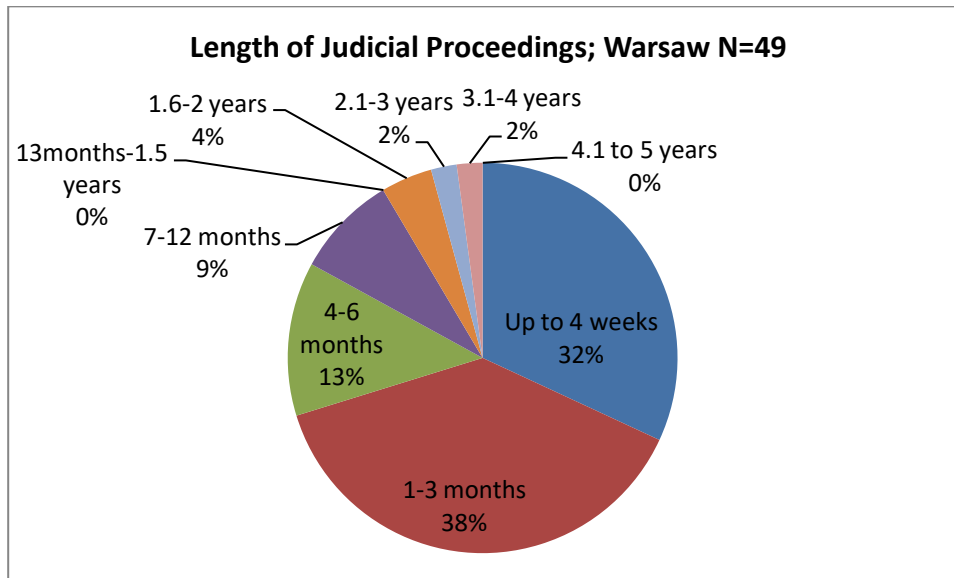
During the investigation, the legal qualification of a prohibited act allegedly committed was changed in 5 per cent of cases in Lublin and 6 per cent of cases in Warsaw.



The most common length of Judicial Proceedings in Lublin and Warsaw was 1-3 months, followed by up to 4 weeks (28 per cent in Lublin and 32 per

Graph 19.2.1 Length of the Judicial Proceedings (Lublin sample)

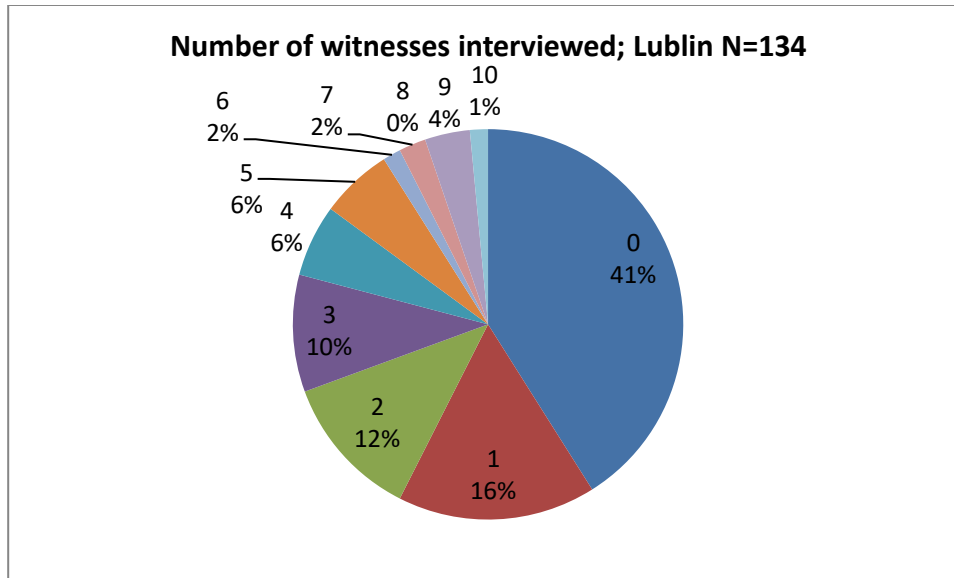
cent in Warsaw), 4-6 months (18 per cent and 13 per cent respectively) and 7-12 months (9 per cent for both places). The percentage of cases taking more than a year is very small (between 3 to 1 per cent) and the most extended period of time taken by the proceedings was 3.1 -4 years (in 1 per cent in Lublin and 2 per cent in Warsaw).



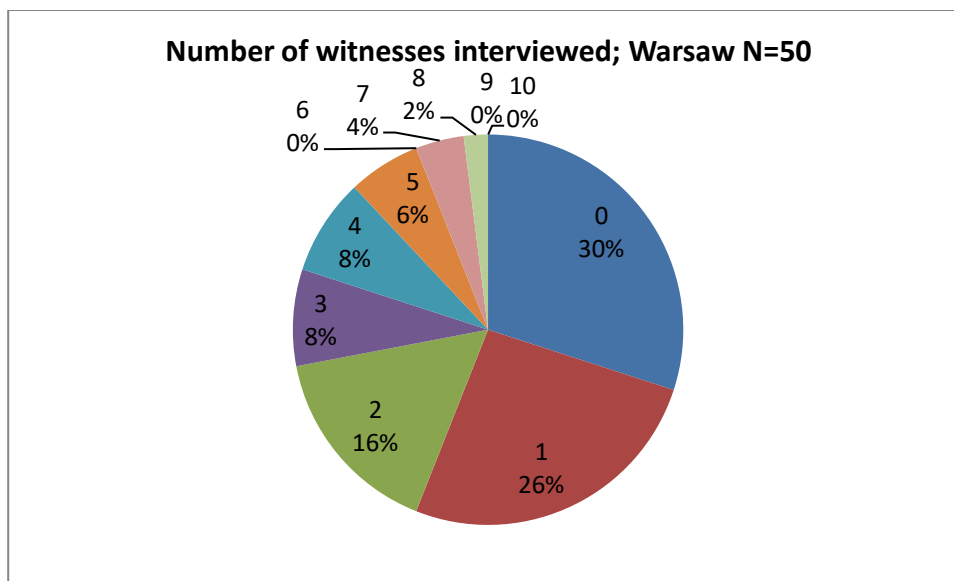
Graph 19.2.2 Length of the Judicial Proceedings (Warsaw sample)

All alleged victims have been investigated but only 69 per cent of alleged perpetrators in Lublin and 78 per cent in Warsaw.

In the highest percentage of cases, 41 per cent in Lublin and 30 per cent in Warsaw, no witnesses have been interviewed. When the witnesses were interviewed, it was most commonly one person (16 per cent of cases in Lublin and 26 in Warsaw); there rarely were more than five witnesses interviewed.



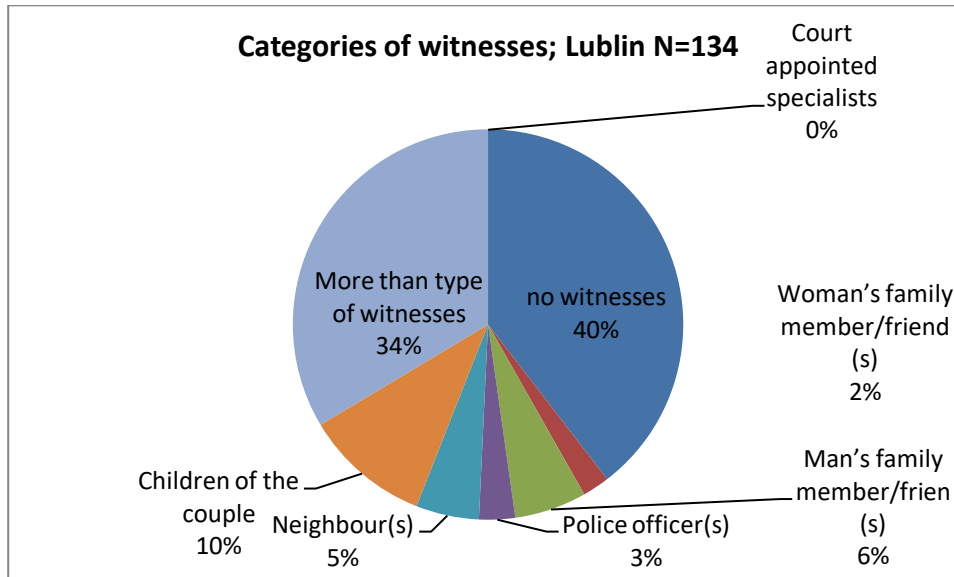
Graph 19.3.1 Number of witnesses interviewed (Lublin sample)



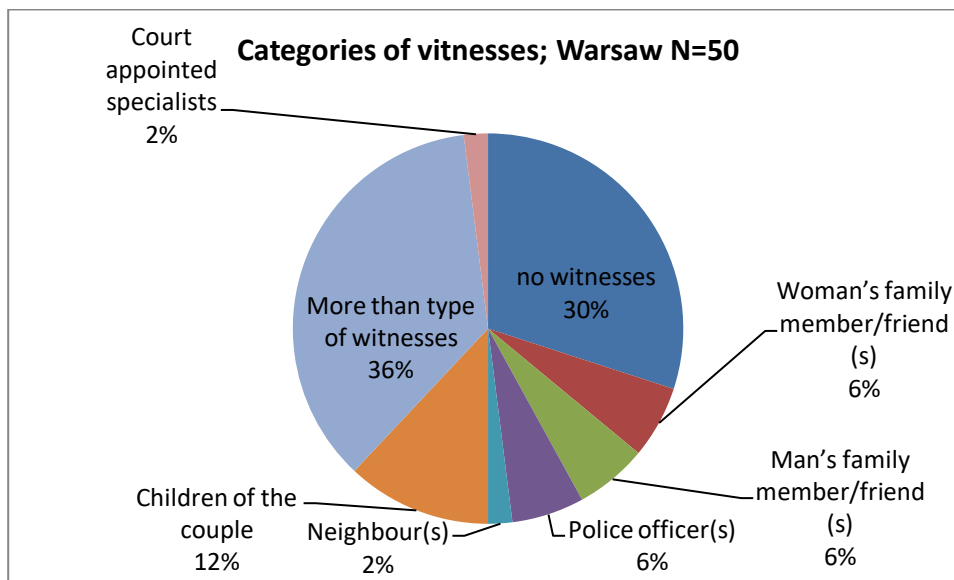
Graph 19.3.2 Number of witnesses interviewed (Warsaw sample)

When the witnesses were interviewed, they usually belonged to more than one category (34 per cent in all cases from Lublin and 36 per cent of all cases in Warsaw). The largest group of witnesses interviewed alone were children of the couple; who made 10 per cent of Lublin and 12 per cent of Warsaw cases. Other groups of witnesses were: man's family and/or friends (in 6 per cent of cases in both places), neighbours (5 per cent of cases in Lublin and 2 per cent in Warsaw), police officers

involved in the case (respectively 3 and 5 per cent), woman's family and/or friends (2 per cent in Lublin in comparison with 6 per cent in Warsaw), finally, court-appointed specialist, who was rarely interviewed as the only witnesses (this happened only in 2 per cent of cases in Warsaw).



Graph 19.4.1 Categories of witnesses interviewed (Lublin sample)



Graph 19.4.2 Categories of witnesses interviewed (Warsaw sample)

A separate comparison has been made to find out the percentage of cases, where court-appointed specialists were asked to assess the case. This happened 15 per cent of the cases in Lublin and 28 per cent of cases in Warsaw.

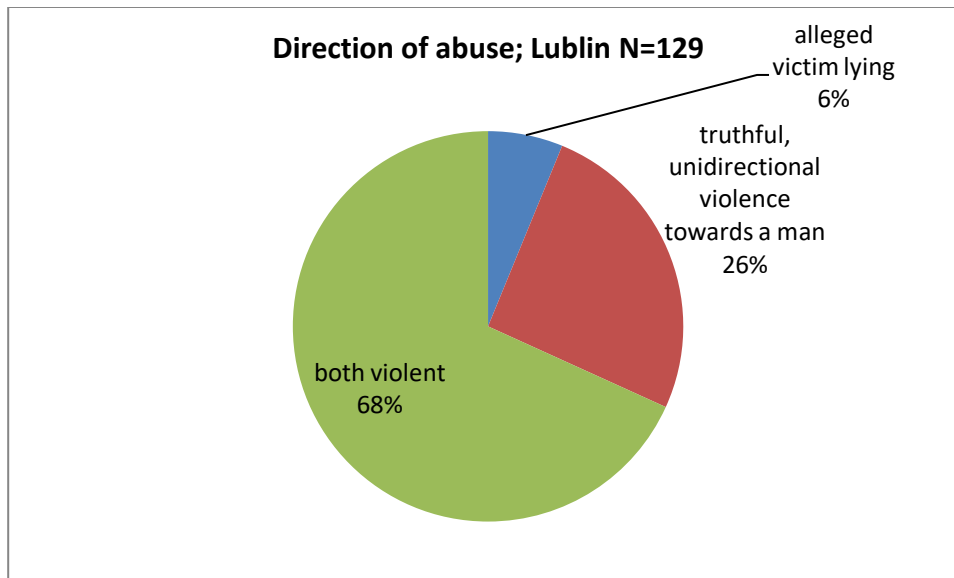
A caution issued was issued in 16 per cent of cases from Lublin and 8 per cent of cases from Warsaw.

Cases of alleged partner abuse against men rarely were referred to the Family Courts for further investigation. This happened in 16 per cent of Warsaw and 4 per cent of Lublin cases. It is impossible at this stage to examine whether this was due to the alleged victims withdrawing complaints. Complaints have been withdrawn in 25 per cent of cases in Lublin and 20 per cent in Warsaw.

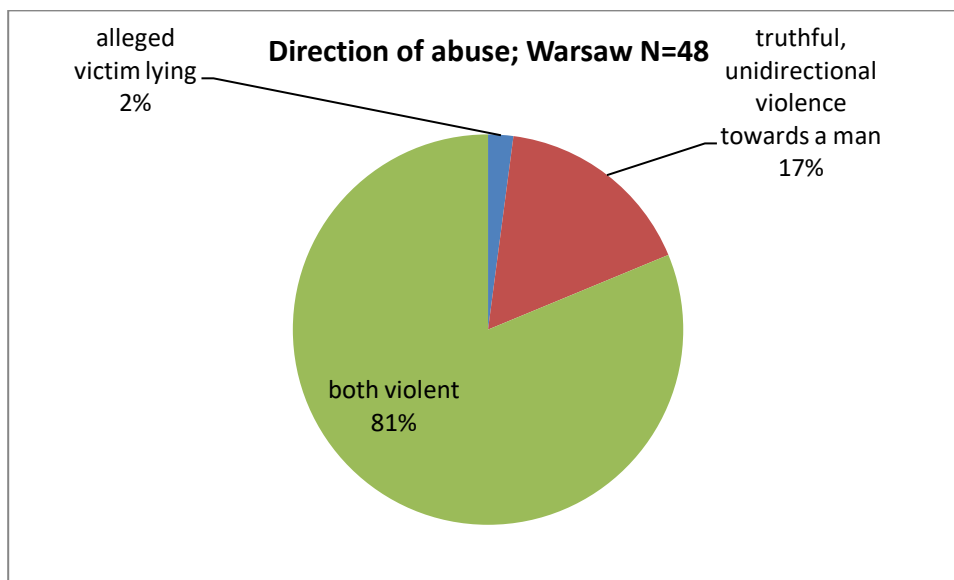
The vast majority of cases have been discontinued (99 per cent in Lublin and 94 per cent in Warsaw). Only in 1 per cent of cases from Lublin and 2 per cent of cases from Warsaw was passed-on to the court for further investigation. Two per cent of cases from Warsaw ended with a verdict, finding a woman guilty of abuse and in 2 per cent of cases, women were acquitted. A final decision with discontinuing the case or issuing a verdict was appealed in 19 and 20 per cent of cases respectively.

In most analysed cases, violence/abuse was bi-directional⁶⁹This occurred more often in Warsaw (81 per cent of cases) than in Lublin (68 per cent). Unidirectional abuse towards a male partner happened in 26 per cent of Lublin, and 17 per cent of Warsaw cases. There is strong evidence that the alleged victim was lying about the direction of abuse in 6 per cent of cases in Lublin, and 2 per cent cases in Warsaw.

⁶⁹ as established from the interviews and/or medical assessments from the judicial proceedings, meaning that both partners were violent towards each other.



Graph 19.5.1 Typology of the direction of abuse perpetration (Lublin sample)



Graph 19.5.2 Typology of the direction of abuse perpetration (Warsaw sample)

Part 2: Analysis of data

6.3 Processed data

6.3.1 Number of children per couple

The number of children in sampled couples was compared with the number of children in the local population of couples divorcing in 2010, using data from the Lublin and Warsaw Statistical Yearbooks for the year 2011 (Statistical Office in Lublin 2011; Statistical Office in Warsaw 2011) respectively. Additionally, the number of children in sampled couples in Lublin and Warsaw samples was compared.

Results are presented in the Diagrams 1-3 below and tables 18a and 26 in Chapter 6 Appendices.

Table 26 General Statistical Office for Lublin and Warsaw Districts data on number of children in the couples divorcing in 2010⁷⁰ (Statistical Yearbook for 2011 in Lublin District and Statistical Yearbook for 2011 in Warsaw District)

| Children in the couples divorcing in 2010 | Lublin N= 2483 | | Warsaw N= 8314 | |
|---|-------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| 0 | 994 | 40.03 | 3597 | 43.26 |
| 1 | 999 | 40.23 | 3081 | 37.06 |
| 2 | 433 | 17.43 | 1395 | 16.78 |
| 3 and more | 107 | 4.31 | 241 | 2.90 |

Table 18a: Number of children in the couples from sampled populations

| Number of children | Lublin sample N= 128 | | Warsaw sample N= 48 | |
|--------------------|-------------------------|------|------------------------|------|
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| 0 | 8 | 6.2 | 4 | 8.3 |
| 1 | 43 | 33.6 | 17 | 35.4 |
| 2 | 61 | 47.7 | 22 | 45.8 |
| 3 and more | 16 | 12.5 | 5 | 11.6 |

⁷⁰ The categories 3 children and 4 and more children have been combined to allow a comparison with data from the researched sample

Comparison of number of children per couple in the sample and in divorcing couples in Lublin

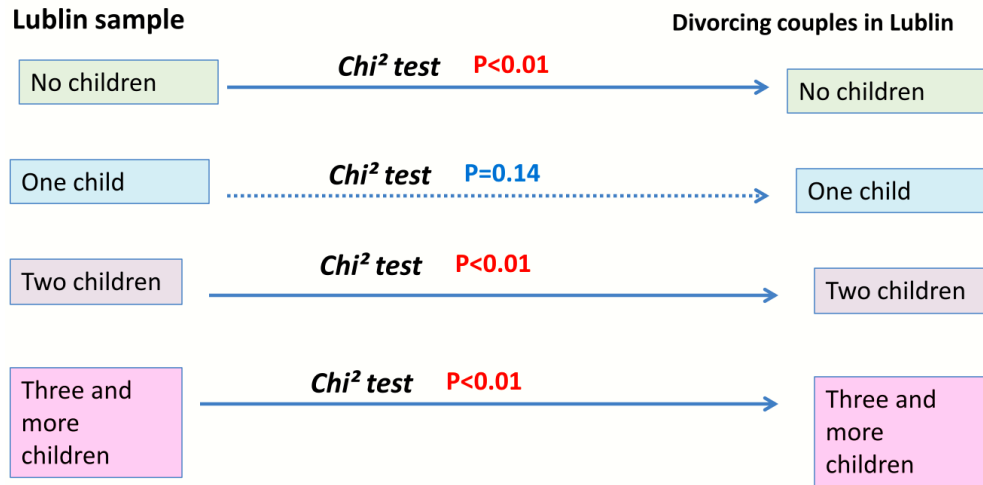


Diagram 1 Differences in the number of children in the Lublin sample and the number of children in couples divorcing in Lublin in the year 2010.

Comparison of number of children per couple in the sample and in divorcing couples in Warsaw

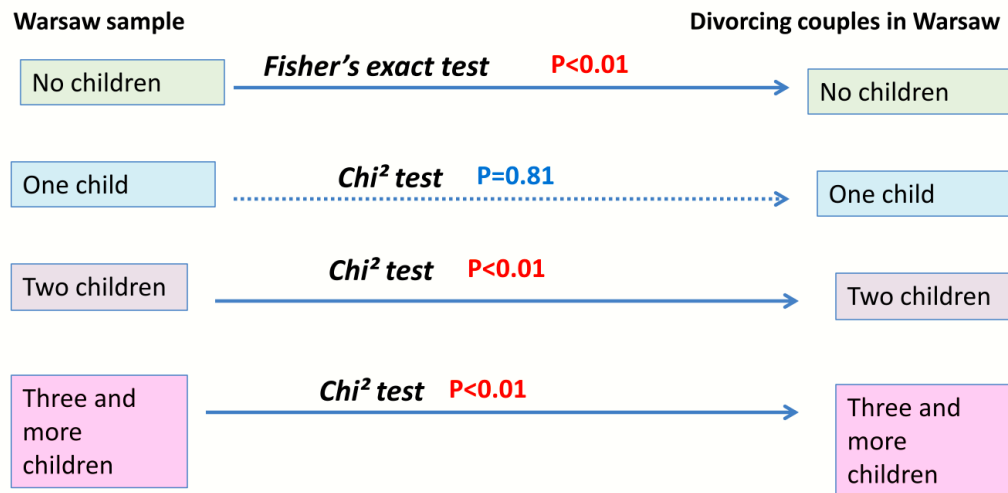


Diagram 2 Differences in the number of children in Warsaw sample and the number of children in couples divorcing in Lublin in the year 2010.

Comparison of number of children per couple in Lublin and Warsaw samples

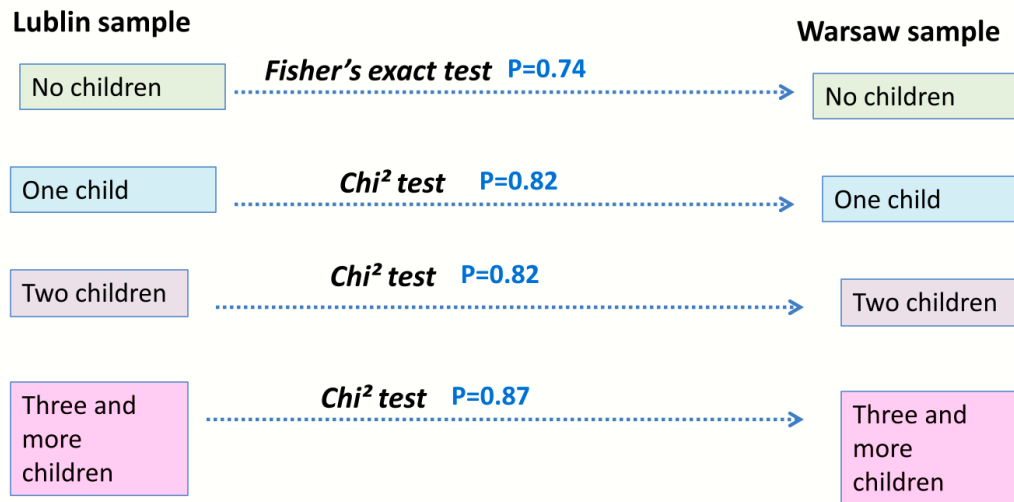


Diagram 3 Differences in the number of children in Lublin and Warsaw samples

There was a significantly different percentage of divorcing couples with no children, two children, and three and more children in Lublin and Warsaw samples alike; couples where alleged abuse of the male partner takes place tend to have significantly larger number of children.

In divorcing couples, 40 per cent in Lublin, and 43 per cent in Warsaw had no children, in comparison with 6 per cent of couples where the alleged abuse took place in Lublin and 8 per cent in Warsaw.

The percentage of couples with one child is similar in both samples as well as in divorcing couples. In the judicial system samples, 40 per cent of couples from Lublin and 37 per cent of couples from Warsaw had one child, while this was true for 34 per cent of divorcing couples in Lublin and 35 per cent in Warsaw.

The percentage of couples with 2 children was 48 percent of couples in the Lublin, and 46 percent of the couples in the Warsaw sample, significantly higher than the percentage value in divorcing couples: 17 per cent in Lublin and 17 percent in Warsaw.

Approximately 12 per cent in Lublin sample, and 12 percent in Warsaw sample had 3 and more children. This was true for 4 of couples divorcing in Lublin and 3 percent of couples in divorcing in Warsaw (Chapter 6, Appendix 1 Table 18a and Appendix 5 Table 26)

6.3.2 The structure of education

The structure of education of alleged victims and perpetrators was cross-examined with the education structure of Poland in the year 2010.

Results of the comparison of **education** structure between the **alleged perpetrators** are presented in the Diagrams 4-9 and in the tables 10 for the structure of education in the Lublin and Warsaw samples and 27 for the structure of education in the general population of Poland (see Chapter 6 Appendix 1)

Table 27 Structure of education in Poland⁷¹

| Modified table on structure of education in Poland in the year 2009 (people aged 25-64) | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Tertiary and/or university degree | 5261370 | 25.00 |
| A-levels or technical equivalent | 6490900 | 30.70 |
| Primary to Vocational | 937500 | 44.30 |
| Total | 21130 000 | 100.00 |

Table 10: Alleged perpetrator's level of education in the sampled populations

| Sample | Alleged perpetrator's level of education | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|------|--|------|-----------------------------------|------|
| | Primary to vocational | | A-levels or technical equivalent of it | | Tertiary and/or university degree | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 33 | 1 | 3.0 | 14 | 42,4 | 18 | 54.6 |
| Warsaw N= 16 | 6 | 37.5 | 3 | 18.5 | 7 | 43.7 |

⁷¹ Data on the structure of education in men and women separately is unavailable

Comparison of education levels of alleged perpetrators in the Lublin sample and general Polish population

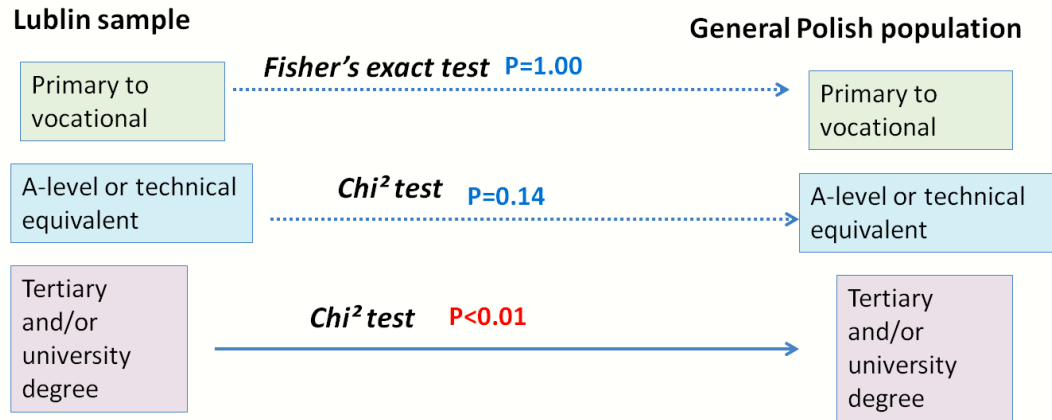


Diagram 4 Differences in the structure of education of alleged perpetrators between the Lublin sample and general Polish population

Comparison of education levels of alleged perpetrators in the Warsaw sample and general Polish population

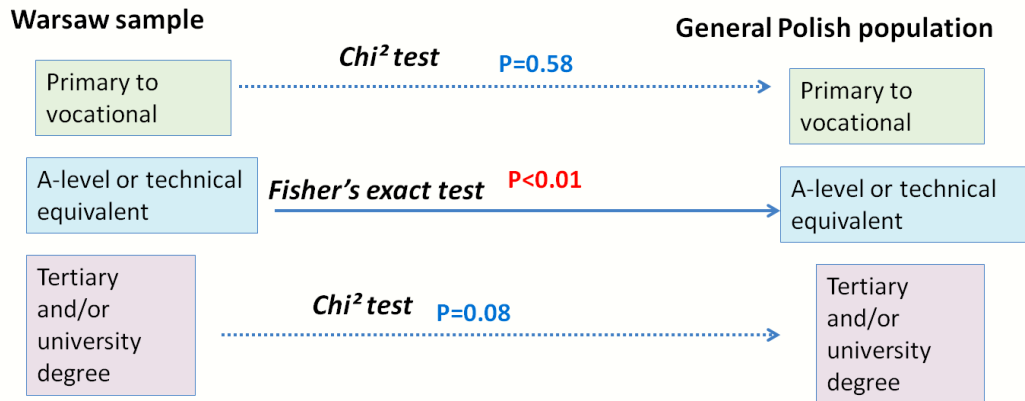


Diagram 5 Differences in the structure of education of alleged perpetrators between the Warsaw sample and general population of Poland

Comparison of education levels of alleged perpetrators in the Lublin and Warsaw samples

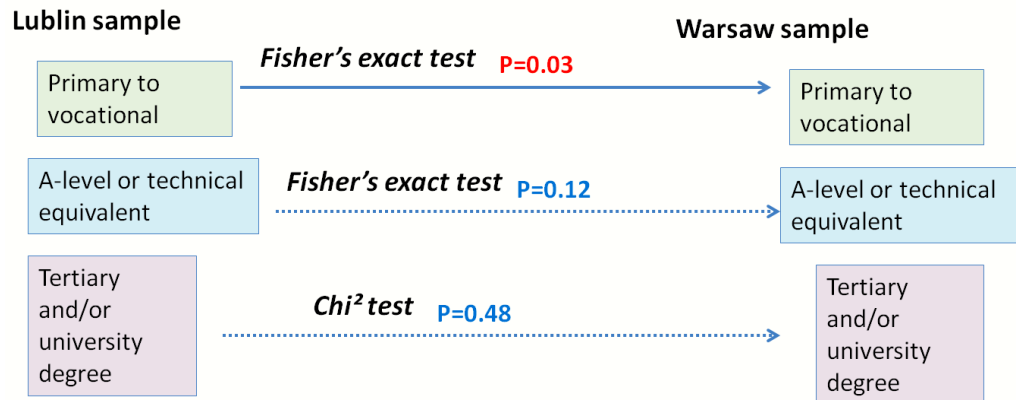


Diagram 6 Differences in the structure of education of alleged perpetrators between the Lublin and Warsaw samples

The comparison between the percentages of alleged perpetrators with primary to vocational level of education is significantly lower in Lublin (3 per cent) than in the Warsaw (38 per cent) sample.

Neither of these is significantly different to the percentage of people with higher education in the general population of Poland in 2010 (44 per cent).

There is no significant difference between the percentage of women with A-level or technical equivalent education in the Lublin (42 per cent) and Warsaw (18 per cent) samples. However, there is a significantly lower percentage of the alleged perpetrators with this level of education in Warsaw when compared with the general population (31 per cent).

The percentage of women with tertiary and/or higher education in the Lublin sample (55 per cent) was significantly higher to than the percentage of women with the same level of education in the general population, where 25 per cent of people attained it. Moreover, there was no significant difference in the percentages when the Lublin sample was compared with the Warsaw sample, where 44 per cent of women were reported to have attained the highest level of education. There was also no statistically significant difference between the Warsaw sample and the general Polish

population in 2010. In the Lublin sample, however, there were significantly more women with the tertiary or higher level of education than in the general population

Results of the comparison between levels of education of the alleged victims in the Lublin and Warsaw samples and the general population of Poland in 2010 are shown in Diagrams 7 to 9. The numerical and percentage values are presented in the tables 11 (structure of education in the Lublin and Warsaw samples) and 27 (structure of education in the general population of Poland) (see Chapter 6 Appendix 1)

Table 11: Alleged victim's level of education in the sampled populations

| Sample | Alleged victim's level of education | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|------|--|------|-----------------------------------|------|
| | Primary to vocational | | A-levels or technical equivalent of it | | Tertiary and/or university degree | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 37 | 2 | 5.5 | 15 | 40.5 | 20 | 54.0 |
| Warsaw N= 11 | 3 | 27.3 | 3 | 27.3 | 5 | 45.4 |

Comparison of education levels of alleged victims in the Lublin sample and general Polish population

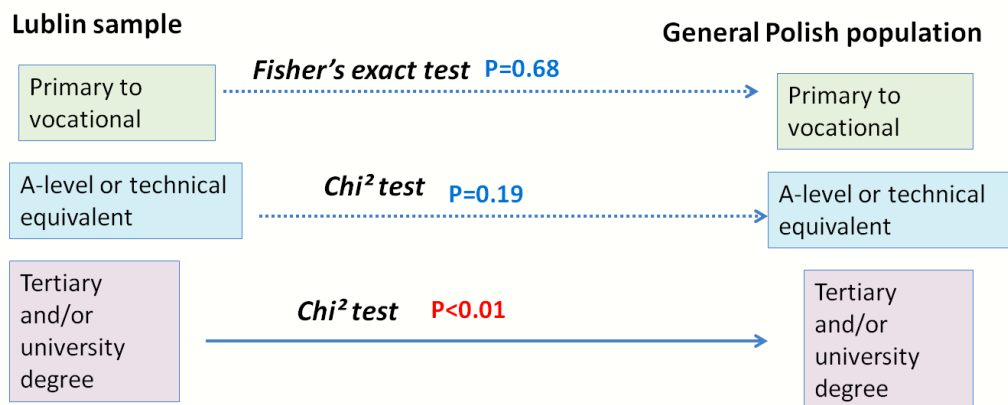


Diagram 7 Differences in the structure of education of alleged victims between the Lublin sample and general population of Poland

Comparison of education levels of alleged victims in the Warsaw sample and general Polish population

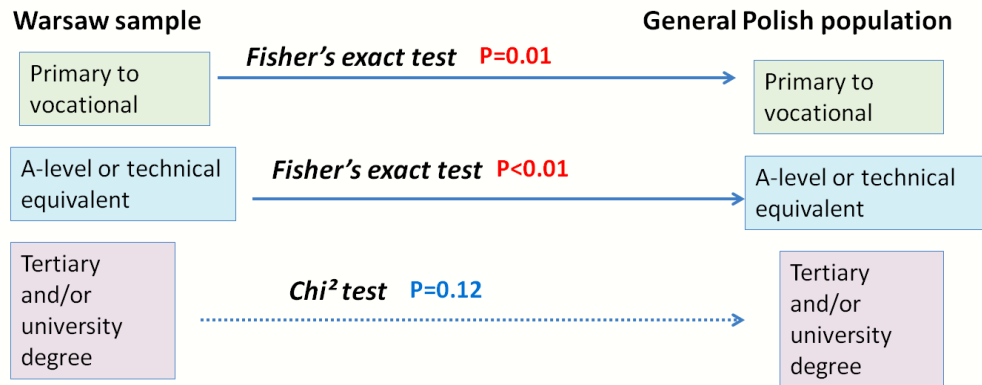


Diagram 8 Differences in the structure of education of alleged victims between the Warsaw sample and general population of Poland

Comparison of education levels of alleged victims in the Lublin and Warsaw samples

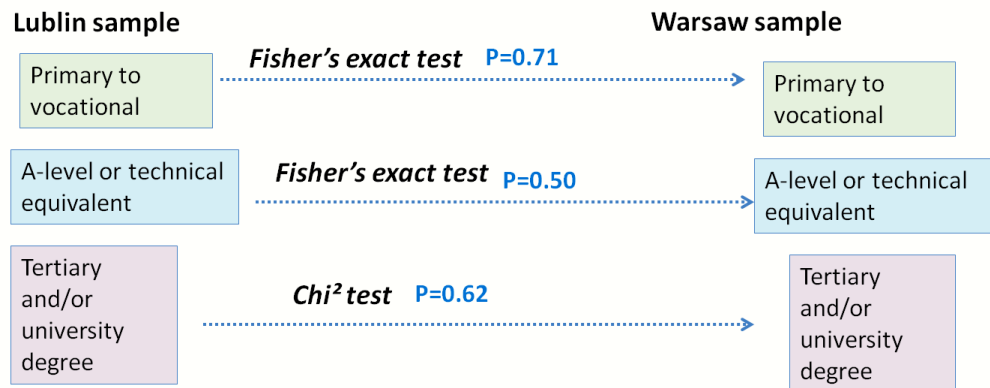


Diagram 9 Differences in the structure of education of alleged perpetrators between the Lublin and Warsaw samples

There were no significant differences in percentages of levels of education of the alleged victims in the Lublin and Warsaw samples.

A comparison between the levels of education in each of the samples and levels of education in the general population of Poland in 2010, shows a significantly higher percentage of men having tertiary or higher education in the Lublin sample (53 per cent) than in the general population

(where it was attained by 25 per cent of people). There was also a significantly lower percentage of men with primary to vocational education between in Warsaw (37 per cent) sample in comparison with the general population (44 per cent), and between the men with A-levels and technical equivalent (found in the 18 per cent of cases) and the general population of Poland (where it was found in 31 per cent of cases).

The results of an analysis of levels of education indicate that education may be one of the key factors in reporting the perpetration of domestic abuse towards men, who recognize themselves victims of the IPV. The structure of education, similar when compared between the samples, is different from the general structure of education in Poland. Differences in the structure of education of the alleged female perpetrators in both sampling places, apart from the lowest level of education which is underrepresented in Lublin, may suggest the similarity in level of education of the couples where the alleged abuse takes place. More educated men, however reporting the abuse more often, or more educated women perpetrating the IPV more often; with both explanations not being mutually exclusive.

The implications of these findings will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

6.3.3 Income patterns

Income differences between the partners were compared between the Lublin and Warsaw samples.

Results are displayed in Diagrams 10-12 and table 12 (see Chapter 6 Appendix 1)

Table 12: Relative income difference between the alleged perpetrator and alleged victim

| Sample | Income difference between the partners | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|-----|--------------------|------|----------------|------|------------------|------|-----------------------|------|
| | Woman earning much more | | Woman earning more | | Similar income | | Man earning more | | Man earning much more | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 98 | 6 | 6.1 | 22 | 22.4 | 18 | 18.4 | 36 | 36.7 | 16 | 16.3 |
| Warsaw N= 43 | 0 | 0.0 | 7 | 16.3 | 3 | 7.0 | 25 | 58.1 | 8 | 18.6 |

Comparison of income differences between the of partners in the Lublin and Warsaw samples

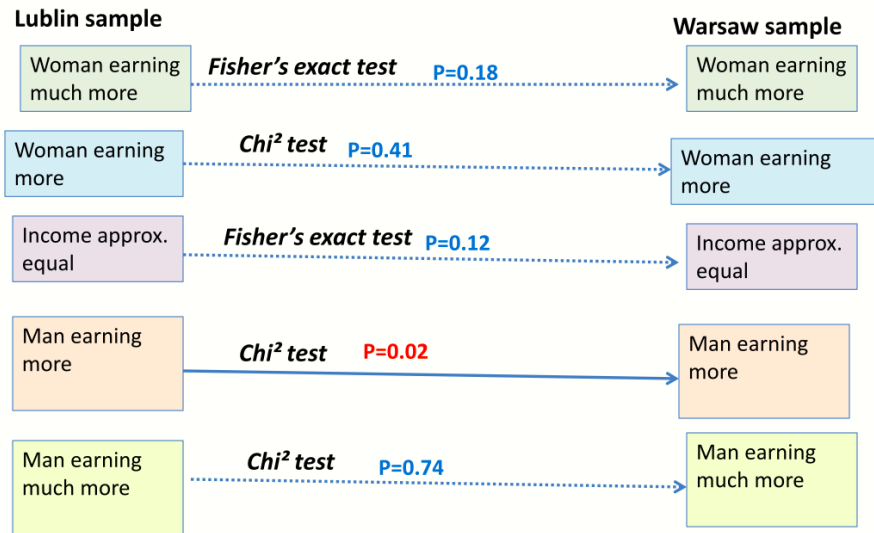


Diagram 10 Differences in the income patterns in Lublin and Warsaw samples

A comparison between different patterns of income shows that significantly higher group of men earning more than their partners in Warsaw in comparison with Lublin.

Comparison of income levels of partners within the Lublin sample

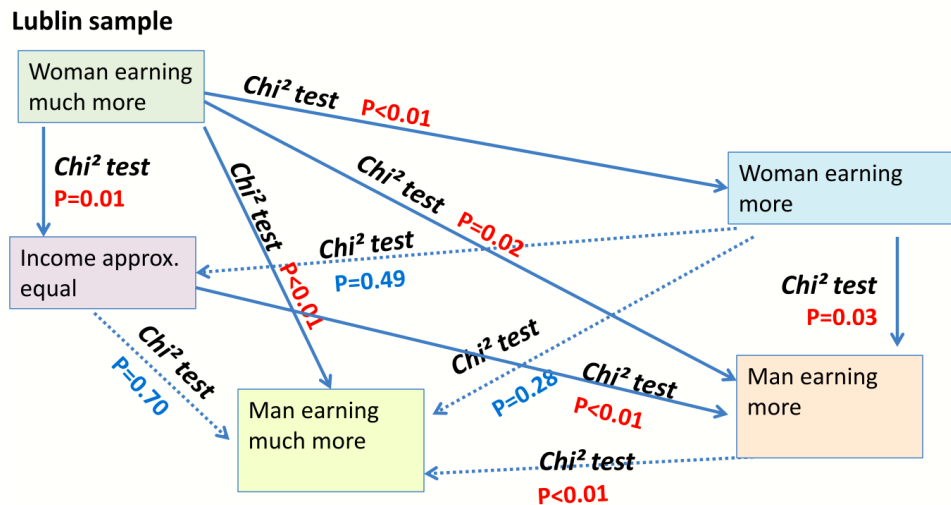


Diagram 11 Differences in the income patterns within the Lublin sample

Analysis of the percentage of occurrence in different income patterns in Lublin revealed several significant differences between the men with different incomes. There were significantly more men earning much more than women, men earning more than women, more couples with similar income, and more women earning more when compared with the group of women earning much more than the partners. Additionally, more men were earning more than couples where the partners had approximately equal income. The group of women earning more was significantly smaller than the group of men earning more than their partners.

Comparison of income levels of partners within the Warsaw sample

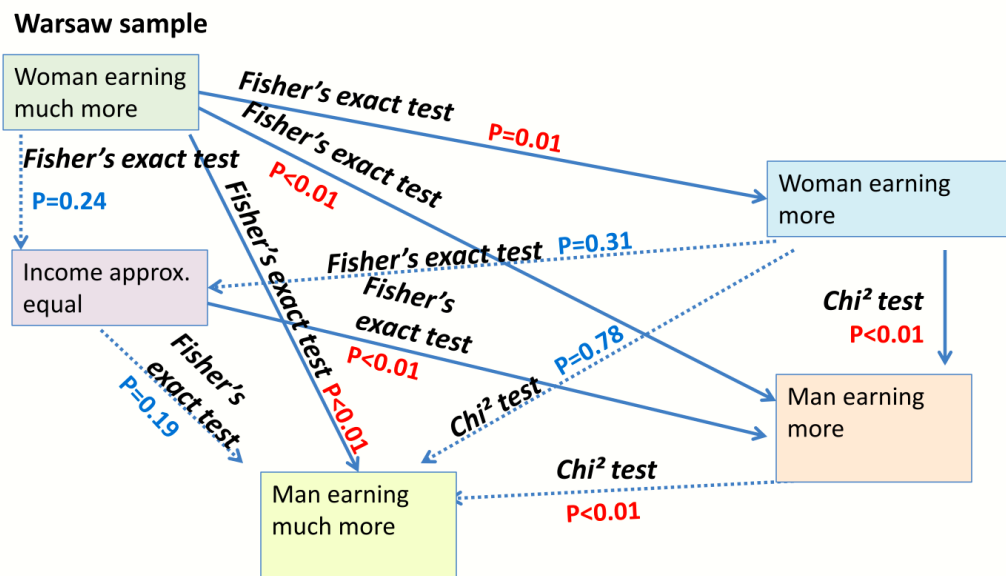


Diagram 12 Differences in the income patterns within the Warsaw sample

Similar patterns have been found in the Warsaw sample, except for no statistical difference found between the group of women earning more than the partners and couples with similar income.

The findings suggest that the large differences in income between the partners may be one of the key variables of underlying reasons for abuse.

6.3.4 Age structure

The age structure comparison is presented in Diagrams 13-18 and the tables 7 and 8 (also in Chapter 6, Appendix 1).

Table 7: Age of alleged perpetrators in the sampled populations

| Sample | Age of the alleged perpetrator (woman) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|--|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------------|------|
| | Up to 30 | | 31-35 | | 36-40 | | 41-45 | | 46-50 | | 51-60 | | 61 and more | |
| | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % |
| Lublin N=64 | 6 | 9.4 | 10 | 15.6 | 10 | 15.6 | 13 | 20.3 | 11 | 17.2 | 7 | 10.3 | 7 | 10.3 |
| Warsaw N=36 | 5 | 13.9 | 8 | 22.2 | 4 | 11.1 | 3 | 8.3 | 6 | 16.7 | 8 | 22.2 | 2 | 5.6 |

The occurrence in different age groups of alleged perpetrators and victims in both sampling places was compared. Following this, the differences in the occurrence of consecutive age groups of alleged victims and perpetrators within the Lublin and Warsaw samples were examined.

Comparison of age groups of alleged perpetrators between the Lublin and Warsaw samples

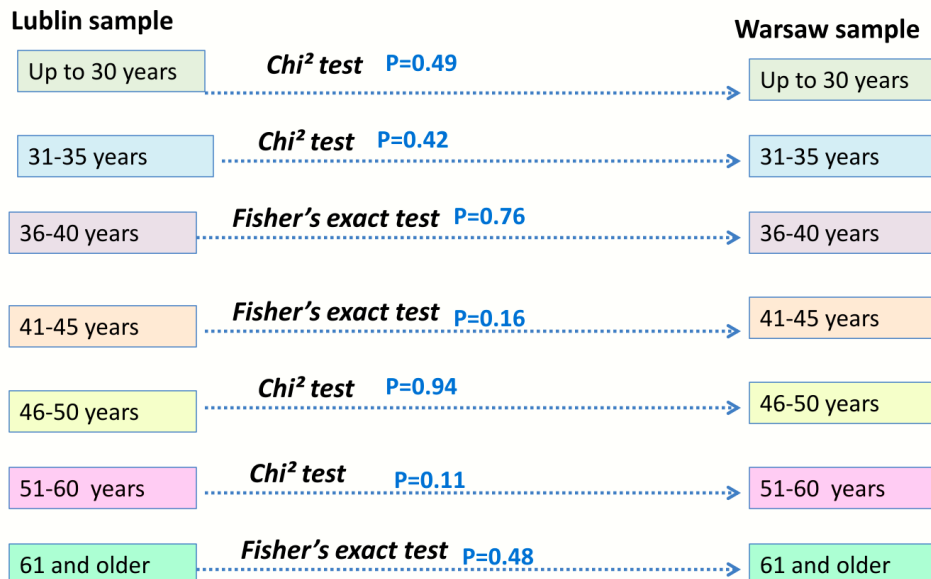


Diagram 13 Differences in the age structure of alleged perpetrators in Lublin and Warsaw samples

Table 8: Age of alleged victim in the sampled populations

| Sample | Age of an alleged victim (man) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|-----|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------------|------|
| | Up to 30 | | 31-35 | | 36-40 | | 41-45 | | 46-50 | | 51-60 | | 61 and more | |
| | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq. | % | Freq. | % | Freq | % |
| Lublin N=129 | 7 | 5.4 | 12 | 9.3 | 16 | 12.4 | 15 | 11.6 | 26 | 20.2 | 33 | 25.6 | 20 | 15.5 |
| Warsaw N=49 | 2 | 4.1 | 9 | 18.4 | 3 | 6.1 | 7 | 14.2 | 6 | 12.2 | 12 | 24.5 | 10 | 20.4 |

Comparison of age groups of alleged victims between the Lublin and Warsaw samples

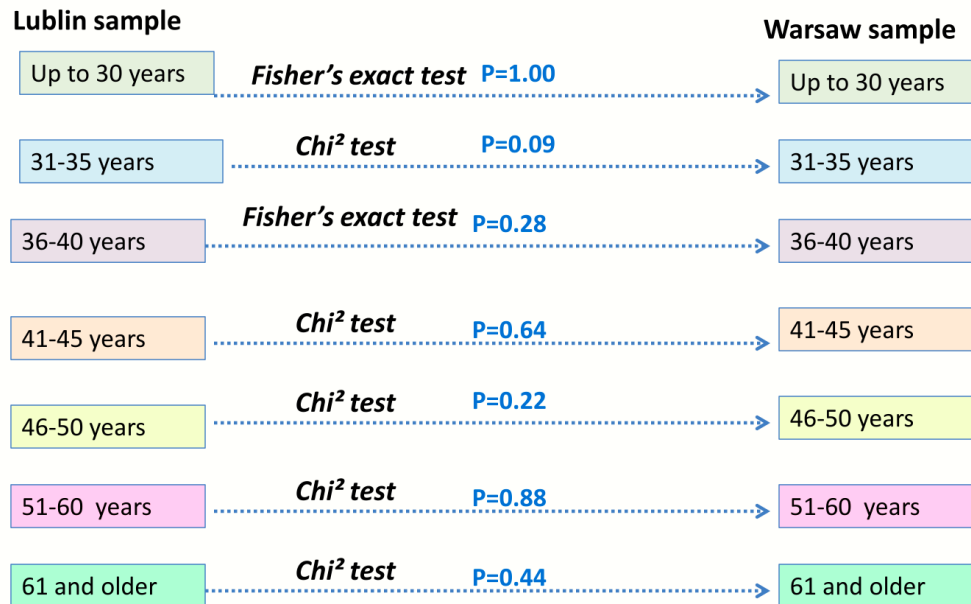


Diagram 14 Differences in the age structure of alleged victims in Lublin and Warsaw samples

Comparison of age groups of alleged perpetrators within the Lublin sample

Lublin sample

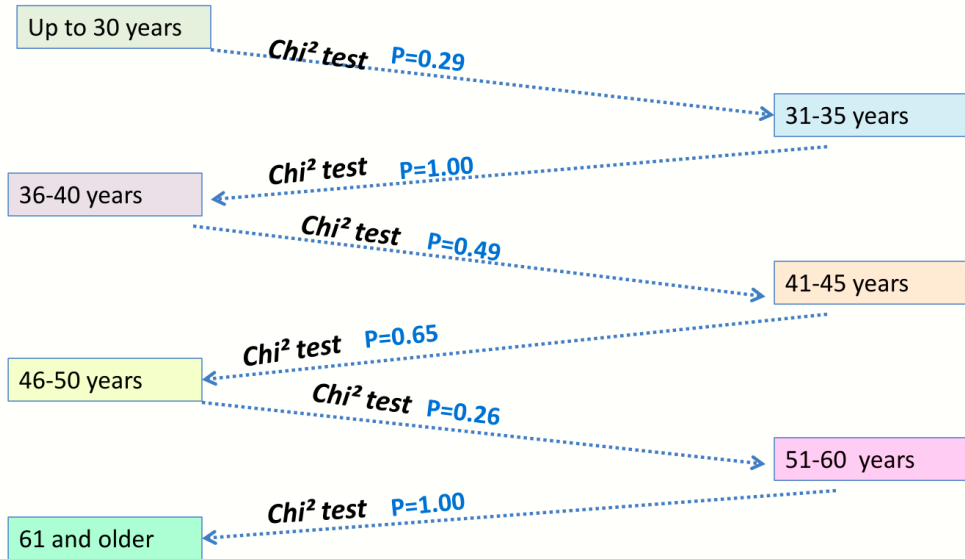


Diagram 15 Differences in the age structure of alleged perpetrators within Lublin sample

Comparison of age groups of alleged victims within the Lublin sample

Lublin sample

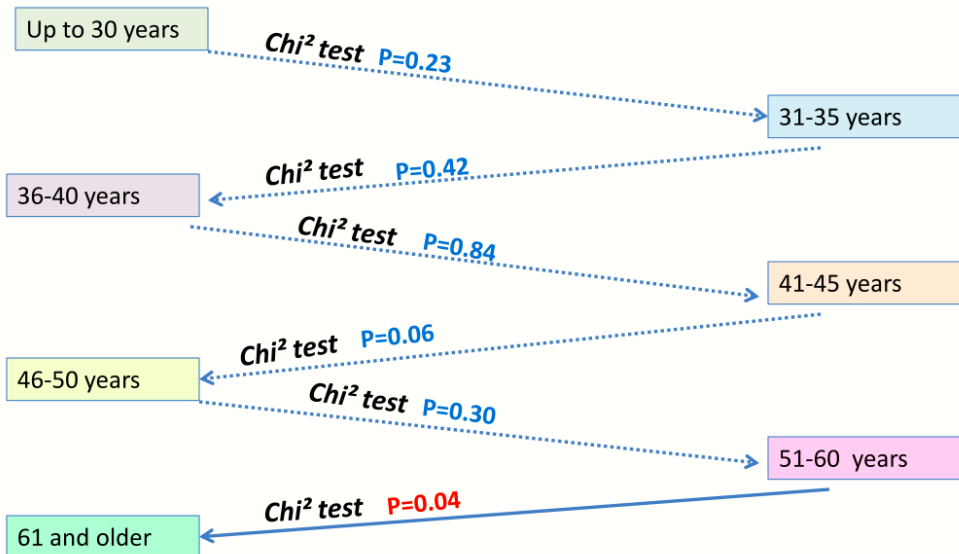


Diagram 16 Differences in the age structure of alleged victims within Lublin sample

Comparison of age groups of alleged perpetrators within the Warsaw sample

Warsaw sample

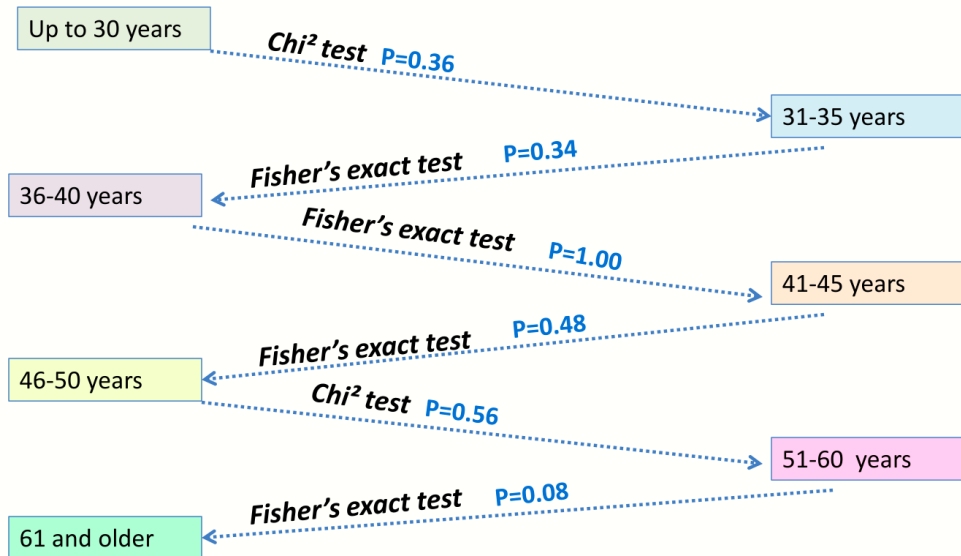


Diagram 17 Differences in the age structure of alleged perpetrators within Warsaw sample

Comparison of age groups of alleged victims within the Warsaw sample

Warsaw sample

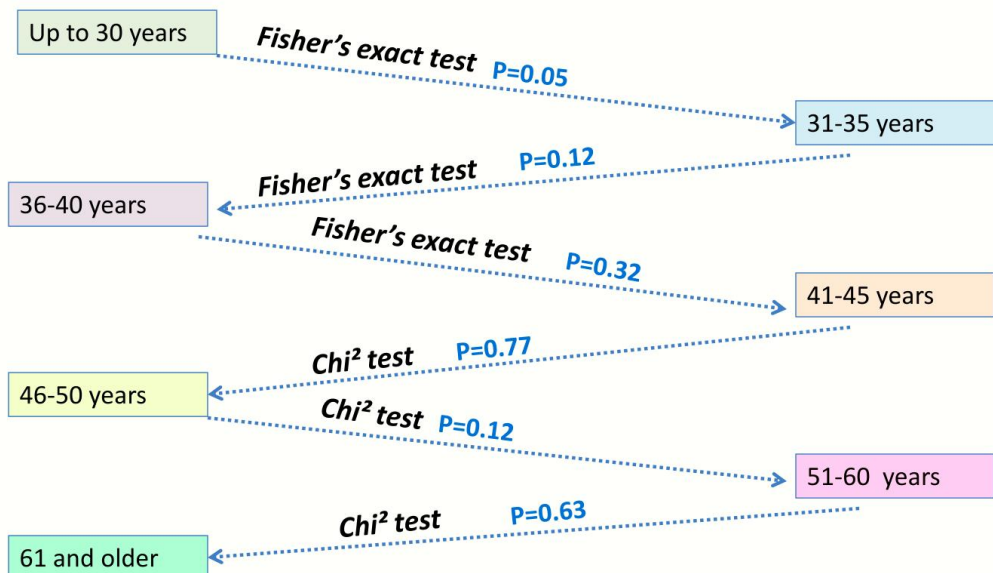


Diagram 18 Differences in the age structure of alleged victims within Warsaw sample

The age structure of the alleged perpetrators in Lublin and Warsaw was similar. So was the age structure of alleged victims. There were no significant differences between the consecutive age groups of women within the Lublin and Warsaw samples. The same was true for the age structure of men apart from the last two consecutive age groups, as there was a significantly higher percentage of men 51-60-year-old when compared with the group of men 61 years and older.

This would suggest that men of any age group may become victims of domestic abuse and women of any age group are equally likely to perpetrate it.

6.3.5 The age differences between the partners

The next variable considered was an age difference between the partners. The results are shown in Diagram 19 and Table 9 (see section 6.2.9 or Chapter 6, Appendix 1)

The categories of the age difference between the partners have been collapsed for χ^2 analysis to the following: a woman older, no age difference, and a man older. It has been done because of the small number of occurrence in the samples collected.

Comparison of age difference of alleged perpetrators in the Lublin and Warsaw samples

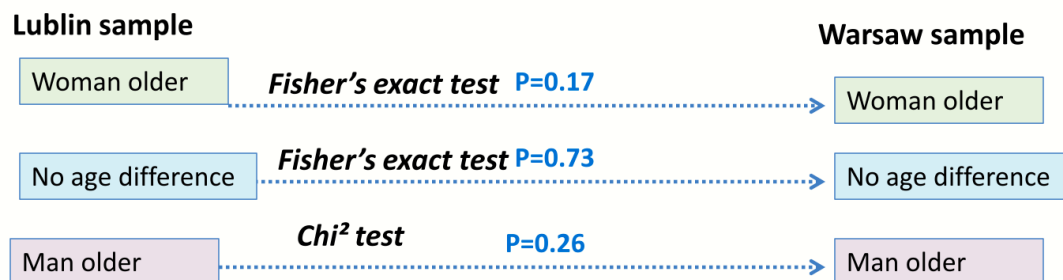


Diagram 19 Comparison of age differences in the Lublin and Warsaw samples

The comparison of age differences between partners in Lublin and Warsaw suggest a similar structure of age differences in both samples.

Comparison of age difference of alleged victims within the Lublin sample

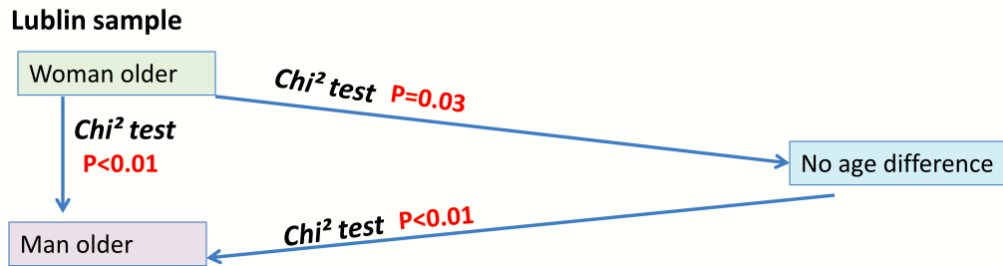


Diagram 20 Comparison of age differences within the Lublin sample

The comparison between the age groups within the samples, however, showed that in Lublin there were more couples with women older than couples with no age difference between partners; also, that there were more men older than women older than their partners. In a significantly higher percentage of couples, men were older when compared with couples with no age difference.

Comparison of age difference of alleged victims within the Warsaw sample

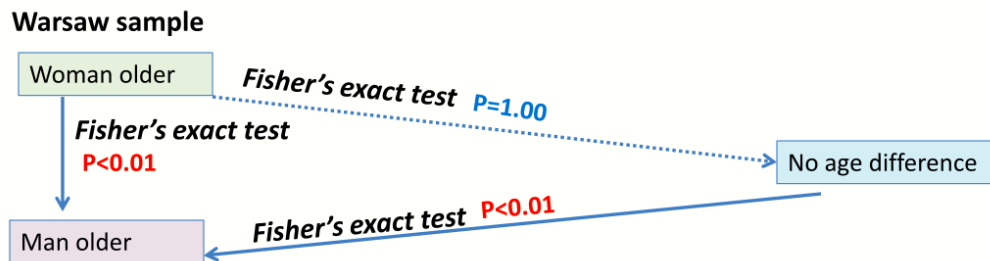


Diagram 21 Comparison of age differences within the Warsaw sample

Within the Warsaw sample, there was no significant difference between the occurrences of couples with the woman older than the partner when compared with the couples of no age difference between the partners. There were also more men older than the partners than women older than the partners and in a significantly higher percentage of couples men were older when compared with couples with no age difference.

The analysis of percentages of occurrence in different age groups and age differences between the partners, suggest that the latter may be one of the variables that increases the chance of victimisation of men by their current or former female partners.

6.3.6 The use of alcohol during the incidents of IPV/abuse

Abuse perpetration when either of the partners was under the influence of alcohol was recorded in the table 13 (Chapter 6, Appendix 1) and Diagrams 22-24.

Table 13: Acting under the influence of alcohol

| Acting under the influence during the acts of abuse | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------|-----------|------|------------------|-----------|-----|-----------|------|
| Sample | Woman | | | | sample | Man | | | |
| | Yes | | No | | | Yes | | No | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 134 | 21 | 15.7 | 113 | 84.3 | Lublin N= 133 | 10 | 7.5 | 124 | 92.5 |
| Warsaw N=50 | 13 | 26.0 | 37 | 74.0 | Warsaw N= 50 | 4 | 8.0 | 46 | 92.0 |

Comparison of occurrence of alleged perpetrators and victims acting under the influence in the Lublin and Warsaw samples

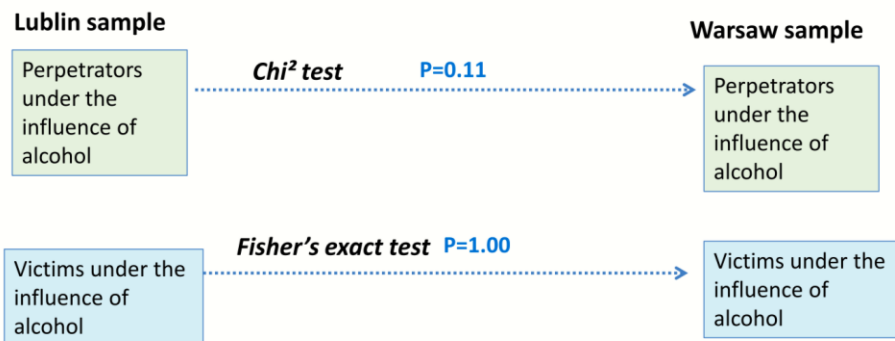


Diagram 22 Differences in the use of alcohol between the perpetrators in both samples and victims in both samples

Comparison of occurrence of alleged perpetrators and victims acting under the influence in the Lublin sample

Lublin sample

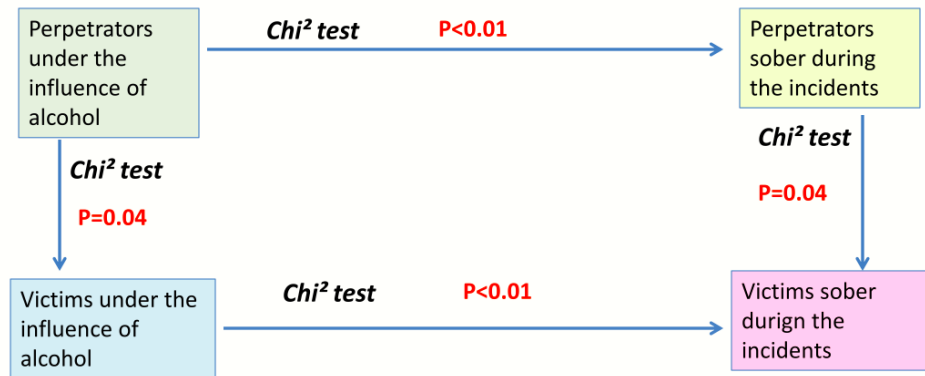


Diagram 23 Differences in the use of alcohol between the perpetrators and victims within the Lublin sample

Comparison of occurrence of alleged perpetrators and victims acting under the influence in the Warsaw sample

Warsaw sample

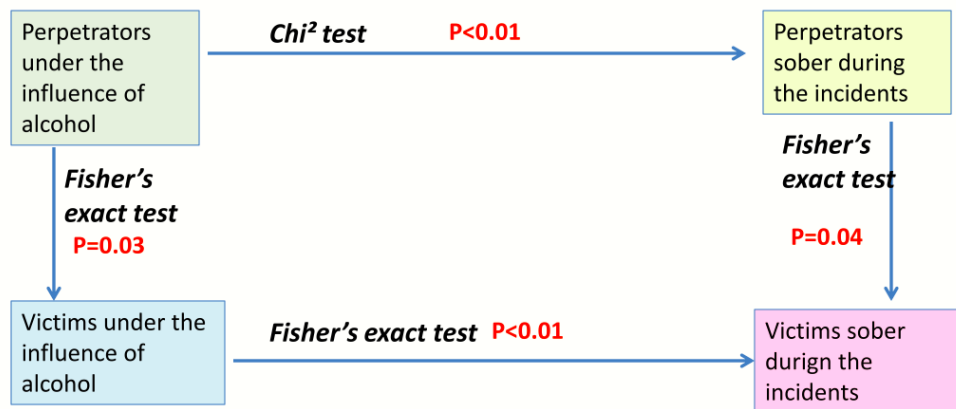


Diagram 24 Differences in the use of alcohol between the perpetrators and victims within the Warsaw sample

Surprisingly, there were no significant difference in the percentage of women abusing when under the influence of alcohol in both samples. Moreover, most women abused when sober. The same was true for most of the alleged victims, as most men were not under the influence of alcohol during the incidents.

The implications of these results and their comparison with the findings by other studies will be discussed in the Chapter 7.

6.3.7 Types of relationships

Types of relationships between the alleged perpetrator and victim were also examined, and results are presented in Diagrams 25-27 and Table 2 (Chapter 6, Appendix 1)

Table 2: Types of relationships

| | | | Lublin N=134 | Warsaw N= 50 |
|----------------------|----------------------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|
| Type of relationship | Married | Frequency | 56 | 16 |
| | | <i>Percent</i> | <i>41.8</i> | <i>32.0</i> |
| | Undergoing or planning a divorce | Frequency | 39 | 23 |
| | | <i>Percent</i> | <i>29.1</i> | <i>46.0</i> |
| | Divorced | Frequency | 29 | 4 |
| | | <i>Percent</i> | <i>21.6</i> | <i>8.0</i> |
| | Separated | Frequency | 6 | 1 |
| | | <i>Percent</i> | <i>4.5</i> | <i>2.0</i> |
| | Cohabiting | Frequency | 3 | 6 |
| | | <i>Percent</i> | <i>2.2</i> | <i>12.0</i> |
| | Formerly cohabitating | Frequency | 1 | 0 |
| | | <i>Percent</i> | <i>0.7</i> | <i>0.0</i> |

Comparison of relationships types in Lublin and Warsaw

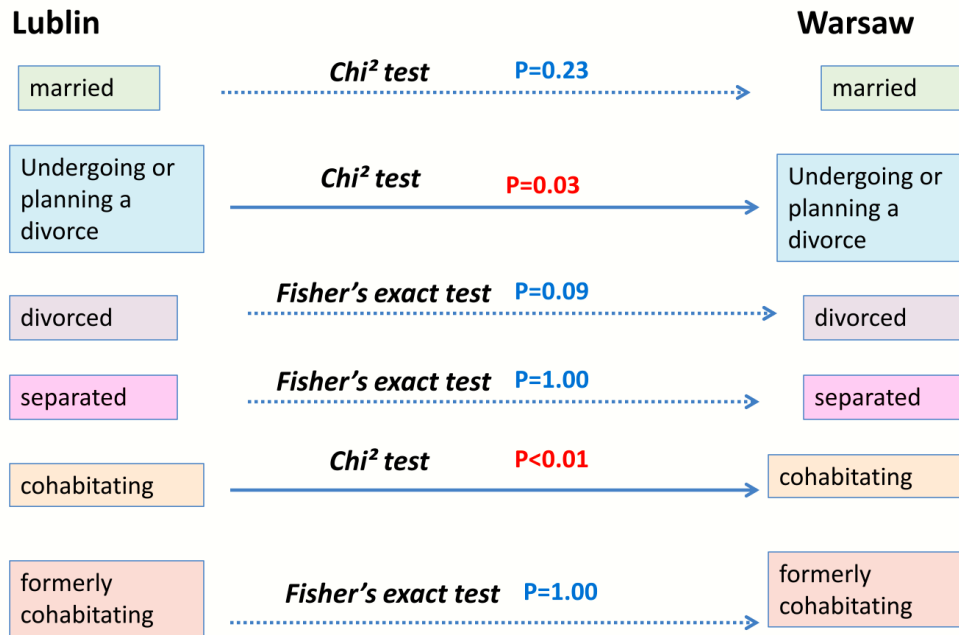


Diagram 25 Difference of relationship types occurrence between the Lublin and Warsaw samples

The comparison of relationship types between Lublin and Warsaw showed there were similar occurrences of married, divorced, separated and formerly cohabitating couples in both places. However, in Warsaw, the percentage of occurrence of couples cohabitating and undergoing or planning a divorce was higher than in Lublin.

Comparison of relationships types within the Lublin sample

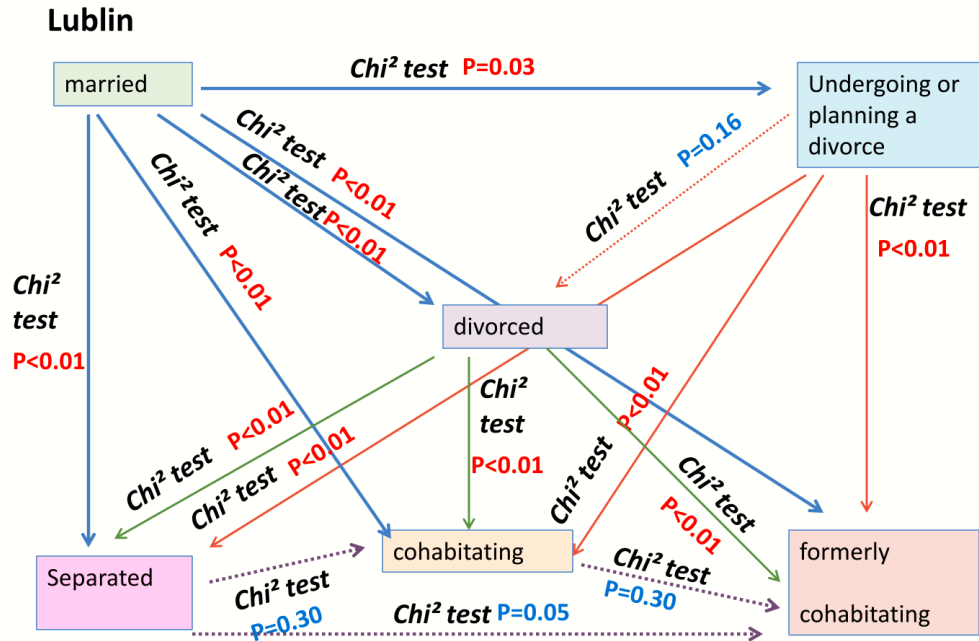


Diagram 26 Difference of relationship types occurrence within the Lublin sample

In Lublin, more couples were married than undergoing or planning a divorce. A far lower number of couples were divorced, separated, cohabitating and formerly cohabitating. The higher percentage of couples was undergoing or planning a divorce than cohabitating, separated or formerly cohabitating. More couples were also divorced than separated, cohabitating or formerly cohabitating.

Comparison of relationships types within the Warsaw sample

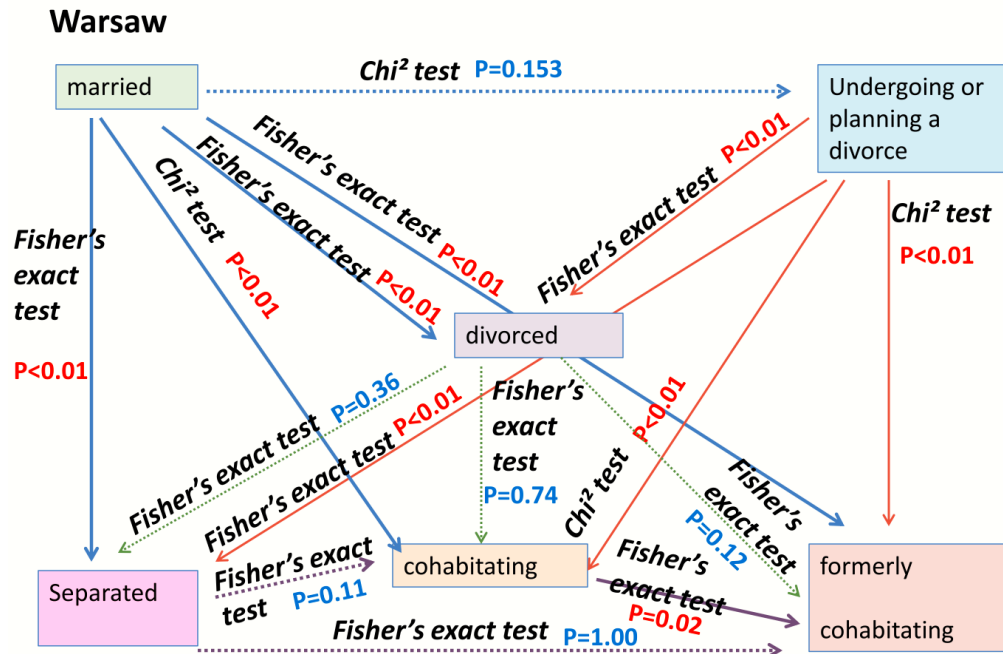


Diagram 27 Difference of relationship types occurrence within the Warsaw sample

In Warsaw, there were significantly more couples married than separated, cohabitating, divorced and formerly cohabitating. A higher number of couples were undergoing or planning a divorce than were separated, cohabitating, formerly cohabitating and divorced. Additionally, there were more cohabitating couples than formerly cohabitating.

The type of relationship seems to be one of the key risk factors for men experiencing abuse, however in the different way than found by the some of the previous published studies. This will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

6.3.8 Using accomplices

The use of accomplices by the alleged perpetrators in Lublin and Warsaw was compared. Results are shown in Diagram 28-29 and Table 3 (Chapter 6, Appendix 1)

Table 3: The use of accomplices

| Type of accomplice | Lublin sample N=106 (out of 134) 79.1% of the complete sample | | Warsaw sample N= 42 (out of 50) 84.0 % of the complete sample | |
|------------------------------------|--|---------|--|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| son(s)/step-sons | 13 | 12.3 | 2 | 4.8 |
| daughter(s) | 3 | 2.8 | 5 | 11.9 |
| children (unidentified) | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's father | 1 | 0.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's mother | 4 | 3.8 | 0 | 0.0 |
| both of woman's parents | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's brother | 1 | 0.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| unspecified woman's family members | 1 | 0.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's new partner | 1 | 0.9 | 1 | 2.4 |
| Lone perpetration | 78 | 73.6 | 34 | 80.9 |

Comparison of the incidents of using accomplices for abuse
perpetration between Lublin and Warsaw

Lublin

using
accomplices
during abuse
perpetration

*Chi² test***P=0.32****Warsaw**

using
accomplices
during abuse
perpetration

not using
accomplices

*Chi² test***P=0.32**

not using
accomplices

Diagram 28 Differences in using of accomplices in abuse perpetration in Lublin and Warsaw

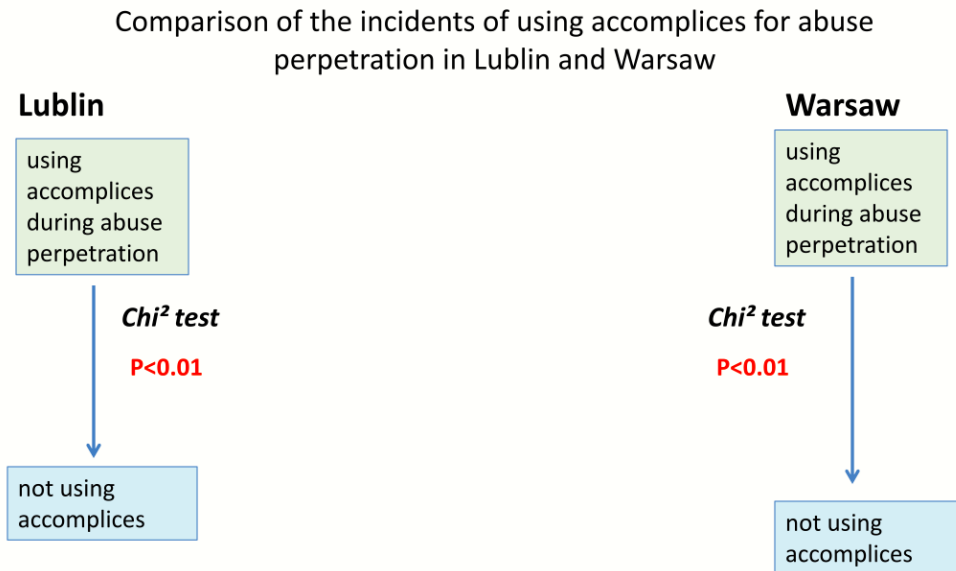


Diagram 29 Differences in using of accomplices and not using accomplices in abuse perpetration in Lublin and Warsaw samples

Due to the small numbers in some of the categories of the accomplices, they were collapsed for the purpose of further analysis.

There results show no difference of occurrence in the cases where accomplices were involved in conducting the violence/abuse in Warsaw and Lublin. In both samples, more perpetrators were abusing alone rather than abusing with accomplices.

Since one of the author's research interests was whether certain reasons for abuse perpetration were considered by the woman's friends and family "legitimate enough" to assure their involvement in the perpetration, this will be analysed further in the last part of the chapter (section 6.3.3)

6.3.9 General types of violence/abuse perpetration

The general types of abuse: physical, verbal/psychological and both (physical and verbal psychological) were compared between the samples and within each sample. The results of Chi² and Fisher's exact test are presented in the Diagram 30-31 and the Tables 15b and 16

Table 15b: General types of abuse in the sampled populations

| Type of abuse (basic division) | | | | Sample | Type of abuse (cumulative) | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|------|------------|------|---------------|----------------------------|------|------------|-----|------------|------|
| Verbal/psychologic al | | physical | | | verbal/psychologic al | | Physical | | Both | |
| Frequency | % | Frequenc y | % | | Frequency | % | Frequenc y | % | Frequenc y | % |
| 131 | 97.8 | 100 | 74.6 | Lublin N=134 | 32 | 23.9 | 3 | 2.2 | 99 | 73.9 |
| 49 | 98.0 | 41 | 82.0 | Warsa w N= 50 | 9 | 18.0 | 1 | 2.0 | 40 | 80.0 |

Comparison of general abuse type perpetration between Lublin and Warsaw

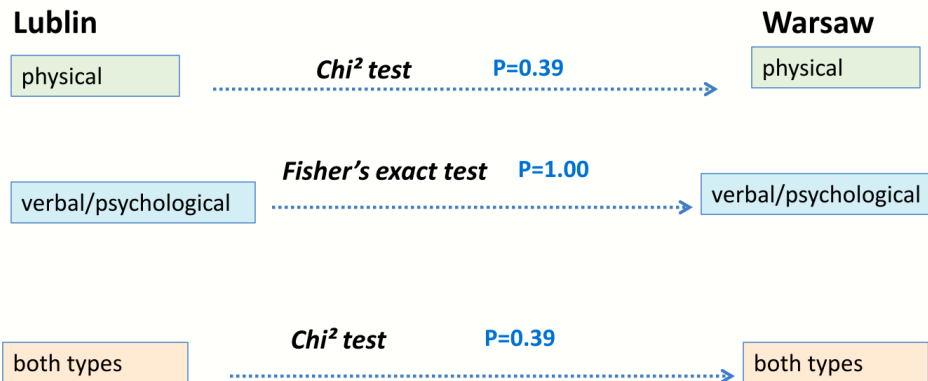


Diagram 30 Differences of occurrence of the general types of abuse perpetration in Lublin and Warsaw

The results of Chi test show that there are no differences in the percentage of different general forms of abuse in Lublin and Warsaw samples.

Comparison of general abuse type perpetration within Lublin and Warsaw samples

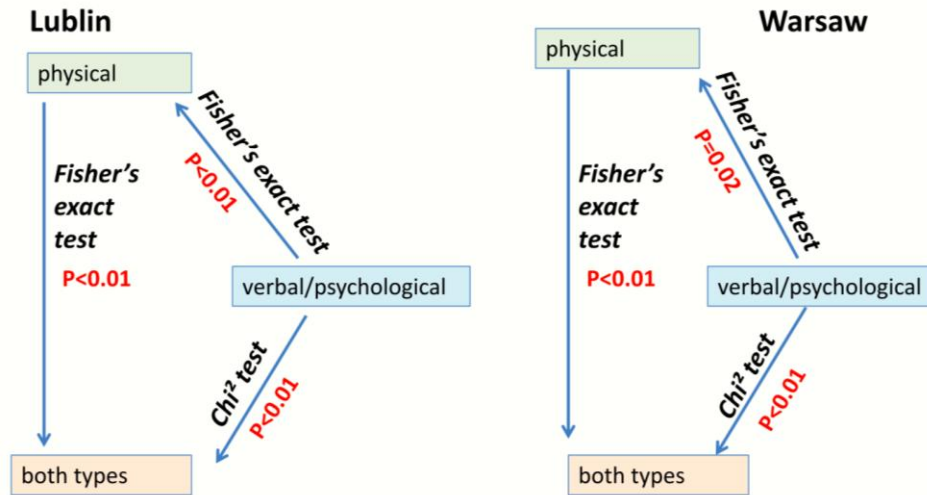


Diagram 31 Differences of occurrence of the general types of abuse perpetration within the Lublin and Warsaw samples

The comparison of general abuse types within the samples revealed the significant differences between all abuse types in both samples. There combination of combination of physical and psychological abuse was occurring most commonly. Verbal/psychological type of abuse and controlling behaviours were reported as second most common forms of abuse, while the physical abuse was least common.

The relationship between the types of abuse and coercive control/domestic violent crime will be discussed further in Chapter 7

6.3.10 Reasons for violence/abuse perpetration

The results of the analysis of differences between the reasons for violence/abuse perpetration, as reported in the proceedings, are presented in the Diagrams 32-34 and Table 17 (see section 6.2.17 of Chapter 6)

Comparison of reasons for abuse in Lublin and Warsaw

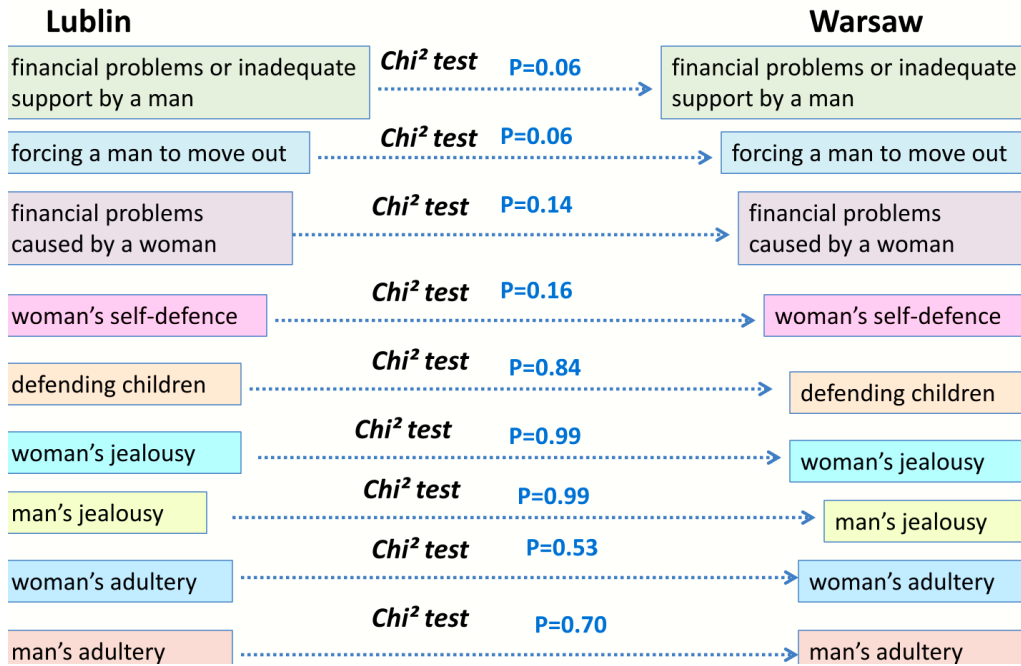


Diagram 32 Differences in reasons for abuse in Lublin and Warsaw

There were no significant differences in reporting specific reasons for violence/abuse in the Lublin and Warsaw samples.

Comparison of reasons for abuse within the Lublin sample

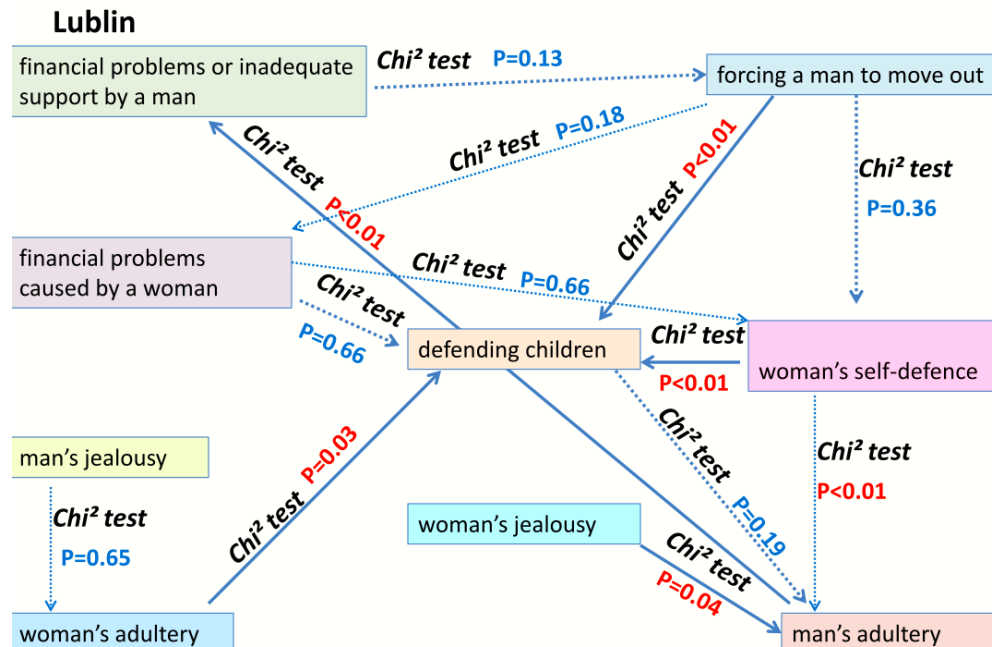


Diagram 33 Differences in reasons for abuse within the Lublin sample

In Lublin, there were statistically significant relationships between the following:

- Forcing a man to move out and defending children, meaning that significantly more often women reported abusing the partner to force him to move out than to defend children from him
- Woman's self-defence and defending children, with women significantly more often defended themselves rather than perpetrated the acts of violence to defend their children.
- Woman's adultery and defending children, with more women perpetrating the violent acts during the conflict over their adultery rather than defending children.
- Woman's jealousy and man's adultery, with women more often abusing because of their jealousy rather than man's adultery.

- Man's adultery and financial problems or inadequate support by a man, meaning that women abused because of men adultery less often than because of his lack of financial support.

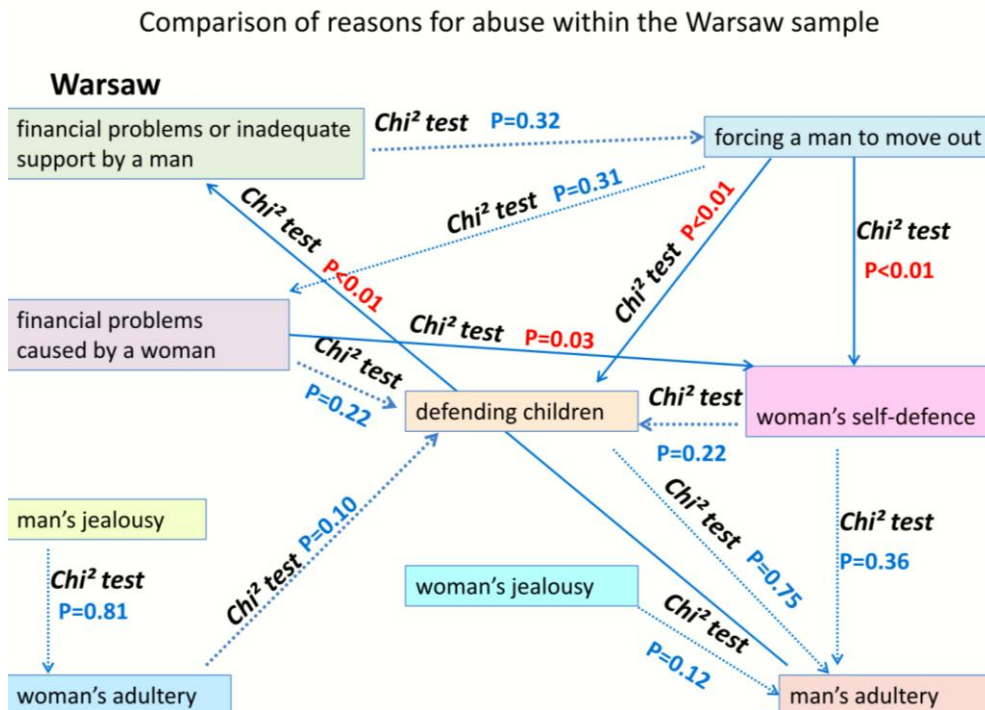


Diagram 34 Differences in reasons for abuse within the Warsaw sample

In Warsaw, there were statistically significant relationships between:

- Forcing a man to move out and defending children as well as woman's self-defence, with women abusing significantly less often because of the latter
- Financial problems caused by a woman and a woman's self-defence, with more women perpetrating the violence more often because of financial problems than self-defence
- Man's adultery and financial problems or inadequate support by a man, with fewer women abusing because of the adultery than the inadequate financial contribution of the partner or former partner.

There are no known data from the general population of Poland what could have been used to compare with these findings. Thus, there is a chance they might be specific to the cases brought to the attention of the Polish Judicial System.

The emerging themes seem to be some of the key variables that are the underlying cause or trigger for the female abuse perpetration. The further implications of and the comparison of results with the published studies will be addressed in Chapter 7.

6.3.2 Profiles of the parties' involved, couple dynamics, reasons for and abuse perpetration; legal proceedings

This section answers a second broad research question and characterises a typical case in each of the two sampling places.

The profiles with typical characteristics of an alleged perpetrator, her victim, their relationship in terms of couple dynamics, modes and reasons for abuse were constructed. The same was done for the typical Judicial System proceedings the case has been subjected to during the investigation.

Descriptive statistics were used for this purpose (Appendix 2, sections 21.1-21.2). During this process, information regarding several variables was tested for their mean, median and mode values. Testing for the skewness of the data distribution allowed choosing whether to use the mean, median or mode value as the best measure of central tendency (Laerd Statistics, 2017b), that was used to work out a "typical" values of variables examined (see Chapter 6, section 6.1.1.2).

The tables showing profiles are presented below (and in Appendix 3 of Chapter 6)

Table 21: The profile of an average alleged perpetrator

| 1.4.1 The average alleged perpetrator profile | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Age: | 45 | 42 |
| Education: | university degree/higher education | university degree/higher education |
| Acting under the influence of alcohol (other drugs not common): | No | No |
| Accomplices involved (lone-or-not): | No | No |
| Interviewed by the police: | Yes | Yes |
| Abuse towards children: | No | No |

A typical alleged female perpetrator of partner abuse was 45 years old in Lublin, and 42 years old in Warsaw, with a university degree and/or higher education. When allegedly abusing her husband or partner, she was not under the influence of alcohol and abused alone rather than with accomplices. She did not abuse the children; the couple was raising the children together and was interviewed by the police during the case investigation (Appendix 3, Table 21).

Table 22: The profile of an average alleged victim

| 1.4.2 The average alleged victim profile | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Age: | 48 | 47 |
| Education: | university degree/higher education | university degree/higher education |
| Acting under the influence of alcohol (other drugs not common): | No | No |
| Interviewed by the police: | Yes | Yes |
| Abuse towards children: | No | No |

A typical alleged victim of partner abuse was 48 years old in Lublin, and 47 years old in Warsaw, also with a university degree or higher education, not acting under the influence of alcohol during the

alleged incidents of abuse and did not abuse the couple's children. He also was interviewed by the police during the abuse investigation (Appendix 3, Table 22).

Table 23: The profile of an average couple dynamics

| 1.4.3 Couple dynamics profile | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Age difference between the partners: | 2 (man older) | 3 (man older) |
| Type of relationship | Marriage | Undergoing or planning a divorce |
| Length of relationship: | 19 years | 16 years |
| Income difference: | woman's income lower than her partner | woman's income lower than her partner |
| Subsequent abuse | Yes | Yes |
| Type of residence: | Living in the same property, a flat, not shared with man's or woman's family members | Living in the same property, a flat, not shared with man's or woman's family members |
| Number of children | 2 | 2 |
| Parentage of children | Children of the couple (not from the previous relationship) | Children of the couple (not from the previous relationship) |
| Sex of children: | Boy and girl | Boy and girl |
| Ages of children: | All up to 10 years of age | All up to 10 years of age |

With regards to the couple dynamics, the median age difference between the partners was a man being older than his partner: 2 years in Lublin and 3 in Warsaw. In Lublin, a typical relationship was a marriage, while in Warsaw the couple was planning for or undergoing a divorce. An average length of relationship was 19 years for Lublin and 16 years for Warsaw, and in both places the abuse incidents were subsequent. Typically, the couple still lived in the same property (a flat), not shared by any members of extended family; had two children, a boy and a girl, who were not older than 10 years of age (Appendix 3, Table 23).

In an average samples relationship, men were allegedly subjected to verbal/psychological as well as a physical type of abuse. The length of abuse was 1-3 years in Lublin, and 4-5 years in Warsaw. In Lublin, the highest percentage of women (34 per cent) was not reported to have used any physical violence. When physical violence/abuse was perpetrated, it was most likely minor physical violence (in 19 per cent of cases) and a combination of minor, moderate and severe physical violence (in over 16 per cent of cases). In Warsaw, the most prevalent type was a mixture of minor, moderate and severe violence (in 20 per cent of cases). This was closely followed by not using any physical violence (18 per cent) and using a combination of severe violence, and minor and severe violence types (both in 16 per cent of cases).

Table 25: The profile of abuse perpetration in an average relationship

| 1.4.5 Abuse perpetration profile | | |
|--|--|--|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Abuse type: | Verbal/psychological and physical | Verbal/psychological and physical |
| Length of time, the abuse takes place: | 1-3 years | 4-6 years |
| Physical: | No physical violence used by about (34%) of the women. When used, it is most likely to use minor physical violence (approx.19%) More than 16% of women used a mix of minor, moderate and severe violence. | Minor, moderate and severe physical violence prevalent (used by 20% of women). No physical violence used by 18% of women. Severe violence and minor and severe violence in combination was used by 16% of women. |
| Psychological: | Emotional abuse; intimidation; minimizing, denying, blaming; coercion and threats; manipulating the system prevalent | Emotional abuse; intimidation; minimizing, denying, blaming; using children, using gender privilege, coercion and threats and manipulating the system prevalent |
| Reasons for abuse: | In most cases more than one reason for abuse <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Over 43% of men were considered by their partners | In most cases more than one reason for abuse <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 58 per cent of cases men not contributing |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| | <p>not contributing enough financial support or mismanaging the budget,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • while 27% of women mismanaged the budget • Over 34% was forcing the man to move out • Suspected or proven female's infidelity (jealousy and adultery) occurred in 25 per cent of cases; • Suspected or actual infidelity of the male partner in 28 per cent of cases • Approximately 24% of women and 20% of men jealous; • Approx. 18% of women and 14% of men adulterous • Approx. 29% of women declaring self-defence and 9% defending children • 19% of women and 21% of men had alcohol problems • In approx. 74% of cases there were additional reasons for abuse declared | <p>enough financial support for the family needs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 38% of women mismanaged the budget • Over 48% was forcing the man to move out • Suspected or proven female's infidelity (jealousy and adultery) occurred in 25 per cent of cases • Suspected or actual infidelity of the male partner in 25 per cent of cases • Over 24% of women and over 20% of men jealous; • Approx. 22% of women and 12% of men adulterous • Approx. 50% of women declaring self-defence and 10% defending children • 30% of women and over 24% of men had alcohol problems • In 74% of cases, there were additional reasons for abuse declared |
|--|--|---|

With regards to psychological/verbal abuse, in the typical couple in Lublin, the man experienced a mixture of emotional abuse, intimidation, minimizing, denying and blaming, coercion and threats, and

manipulating the system. In Warsaw, the victim also experienced all of the above as well as using gender privilege⁷².

Looking at the reasons for abuse in Lublin and Warsaw, no single reason for abuse was prevalent and as such, typical. However, several reasons for abuse were reported often or very often. In cases from Lublin, female jealousy was reported in 19 per cent and male jealousy in 17 per cent of cases (in comparison with 18 per cent of jealous women and 14 per cent of jealous men in Warsaw).

Adultery, found or strongly suspected, was recorded in 12 per cent of women and 12 per cent of men in Lublin. In Warsaw, this was the case for 18 per cent of women and 8 per cent of men. In 24 per cent of Lublin cases, women declared self-defence and in 6 per cent self-defence and defending children. This was true for 40 per cent of and 10 per cent women in Warsaw respectively. In Lublin, over 28 per cent of women tried to force their partners to move out (48 per cent in Warsaw), and 28 per cent of them claimed that men were not contributing enough to the family budget and/or mismanaged it. At the same time, 17 per cent of women in Lublin was accused of mismanaging the family budgets themselves. Alcohol problems were another reason that was often reported. In Lublin, approximately 15 per cent of men and 17 per cent of women had alcohol problems, in comparison with 16 per cent of men and 22 per cent of women in Warsaw. In 74 per cent of cases in both sampled places, additional, and various, reason for abuse were declared (Appendix 3, Table 25).

⁷²: treating the partner as he was a servant, making all the critical decisions, defining the roles or duties in the relationship; using privilege or ability to discredit the partner, cut off access to the resources or use the system against the victim; knowing what "best" for the victim is (National Sexual Violence Resource Center, 2019).

Table 24: The profile of characteristics of legal proceedings

| 1.4.4 Legal proceedings profile | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Feature (modal/mode value) | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Length of proceedings: | 1-3 months | 1-3 months |
| Witnesses interviewed: | Yes | Yes |
| Number of witnesses (median): | 1 | 1 |
| Court-appointed specialists | No | No |
| PPC qualification: | § 207.1 | § 207.1 |
| Legal qualification changed: | No | No |
| Caution issued: | No | No |
| Charges for the alleged perpetrator: | No | No |
| Complaint withdrawn by the victim: | No | No |
| Final decision appealed | No | No |
| The Blue Card for a man or woman as a victim: | No | No |
| Case ending | Discontinued | Discontinued |
| Typology of relationship | Both partners violent | Both partners violent |

The analysis of profiles of legal proceedings, a “typical” case of alleged male abuse by his female current or former partner was subjected to, were also constructed. A typical length of proceedings was the same in Lublin and Warsaw: 1-3 months. In Lublin as well as in Warsaw, one witness was interviewed, and the classification of the prohibited act was family abuse (art. 207.1 of Polish Penal Code). Typically, the legal qualification of the prohibited act was not changed in the course of the investigation. No caution was issued, no charges pressed (meaning that the case was discontinued before being passed into the court), and the final decision has not been appealed by the alleged victim; who also did not choose to withdraw the complaint. Typically, there was no Blue Card

procedure/records for any of the partners as a suspected victim of partner abuse. However, throughout proceedings, it was established that in most cases, both partners were violent towards each other, which mean dual perpetration of violence/abuse (Appendix 3, Table 24).

6.3.3 Findings of the Chi-square test of independence and the follow-up multiple z-tests of two proportions for chosen assumed key variables

In this section, the results of statistical analysis that looked for the variables that would best explain the reasons for, occurrence and severity of physical and emotional abuse against men in long-term heterosexual relationships are presented. The detailed results are shown in the Tables 1-4 (also in the further sections of Chapter 6, Appendix 4.1).

Chi ² test of independence was used to test for a possible association between two multinomial variables. The variables chosen to test for independence/possible association were as follows:

1. The use of accomplices in abuse perpetration (a variable lone-or-not) was tested against the reasons for abuse: jealousy, adultery, self-defence and/or defending children, forcing a man to move out of the property, financial problems caused by the man, woman and/or both partners, alcohol problems caused by the man, woman and/or both partners. Reasons for abuse featured cumulative categories of abuse perpetration: not occurring, woman's perpetration, man's perpetration, perpetration by both partners. The choice of these variables was based on the assumption that men failing to fulfil certain societal expectations or breaking certain societal norms do not only decrease their attractiveness as long-term partners. The woman's family and friends could also regard them as provoking a justified response. Since the research shows (Figueredo *et al.*, 2001, also: Chapter 5, section 5.4.2), that the density of family members is a factor decreasing female victimization by the male partners, by the family members either deferring the partner's abuse or defending women from the abuse perpetrated by their male partners.

2. Types of physical abuse (segregated into no physical violence, minor physical violence⁷³, moderate physical violence⁷⁴, severe physical violence⁷⁵, and a mixture of minor, moderate and severe physical violence⁷⁶, the choice of which was based on the severity of possible damage to the victim; were tested for independence from the reasons for abuse, because this was one of the research interests of the author, wondering whether different reasons for abuse could trigger different types and severity of violence).

3. The number of children (featuring the categories: no children, one child, two children, three and more children) was tested against the reasons for abuse, as the results of the preliminary tests revealed significant differences between the number of children in the couples divorcing and where female-perpetrated abuse was reported. Since the percentage of occurrence for different reasons of violence revealed that the most commonly reported reasons were related to the financial issues and men failing to provide adequate support for their families, the author wanted to test whether more advanced statistical analysis would reveal the presence, and if so, and direction of the relationship between these.

4. The mode of abuse perpetration (lone-or-not) by the alleged female perpetrator was tested for the independence of types of physical abuse since the author was curious whether using the accomplices made the abuse more severe.

The tests for independence have been conducted for the samples from Lublin, followed by a sample from Warsaw. The joint sample from Lublin and Warsaw was analyzed afterwards. All the samples

⁷³, throwing objects, shaking, pushing, hitting with an open hand on the body and hitting with the open hand on the face

⁷⁴ Hitting with the fist on the body and head and kicking on the legs

⁷⁵ Kicking on the body, kicking on the face, choking, scalding, hitting with objects on the body, hitting with objects on the face/head, threats of using a knife or sharp/heavy object, using a knife or a sharp/heavy object or a gun

⁷⁶ More than one category aggregated together

fulfilled the requirements for χ^2 , apart from testing the mode of abuse perpetration versus forcing a man to move out. The latter was tested using Fisher's Exact Test (Laerd Statistics, 2016) because of the small sample size and contingency tables, including two groups cross-tabulated with another two groups of categorical variables.

In both: χ^2 and Fisher's Exact Test, the null hypothesis (H_0) states that there is no relationship between two samples tested, meaning there is no correlation between them. This is true in cases where the P-value (probability) is higher or equal to 0.05. In the instances where the probability is lower than this, H_0 is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis H_1 (stating that there is a correlation between two samples) was accepted. Detailed results are shown in the tables below.

| 1. Perpetration of abuse with accomplices or alone and reasons for abuse | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observations) | χ^2 results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
| Lone-or-not | Jealousy | Lublin | 124 | 2.185 | 0.535 | supports H_0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Jealousy | Warsaw | 49 | 1.082 | 0.781 | supports H_0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Jealousy | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 173 | 1.408 | 0.704 | supports H_0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Adultery | Lublin | 124 | 1.369 | 0.713 | supports H_0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Adultery | Warsaw | 49 | 1.068 | 0.785 | supports H_0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Adultery | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 173 | 2.418 | 0.490 | supports H_0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Self-defence and defending children | Lublin | 124 | 20.216 | <0.001 | rejects H_0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Self-defence and defending children | Warsaw | 49 | 7.824 | 0.020 | rejects H_0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Self-defence | Joint (Lublin | 173 | 27.051 | <0.001 | rejects H_0 about independence | There is a relationship |

| | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|--|------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| | and defending children | and Warsaw) | | | | | |
| Lone- or-not | Financial problems | Lublin | 124 | 8.782 | 0.032 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone- or-not | Financial problems | Warsaw | 49 | 14.839 | 0.002 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone- or-not | Financial problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 173 | 15.937 | 0.001 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Alcohol problems | Lublin | 126 | 4.261 | 0.235 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Alcohol problems | Warsaw | 48 | 7.067 | 0.070 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone- or-not | Alcohol problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 175 | 10.484 | 0.015 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| | | | | | | | |
| Fisher's Exact Test | | | | | | | |
| | | | | Exact Sig. (2- sided) | Exact Sig. (1- sided) | Verdict | Meaning |
| Lone-or-not | Forcing a man to move out | Lublin | 123 | 0.512 | 0.321 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Forcing a man to move out | Warsaw | 49 | 0.138 | 0.110 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Forcing a man to move out | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 172 | 0.253 | 0.139 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

| 2. Abuse type and reasons for abuse | | | | | | | |
|--|------------|---------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observat ions) | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
| Abuse type | Jealousy | Lublin | 119 | 10.684 | 0.566 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Jealousy | Warsaw | 46 | 7.830 | 0.551 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Jealousy | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 10.236 | 0.595 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Adultery | Lublin | 118 | 11.509 | 0.486 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse | Adultery | Warsaw | 46 | 7.858 | 0.548 | supports H0 about | There is no |

| type | | | | | | independence | relationship |
|------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----|--------|-------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Abuse type | Adultery | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 6.508 | 0.888 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Self-defence and defending children | Lublin | 119 | 16.909 | 0.153 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Self-defence and defending children | Warsaw | 46 | 0.915 | 0.989 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Self-defence and defending children | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 15.215 | 0.230 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Forcing a man to move out | Lublin | 119 | 3.808 | 0.433 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Forcing a man to move out | Warsaw | 46 | 0.124 | 0.989 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Forcing a man to move out | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 159 | 8.556 | 0.073 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Financial problems | Lublin | 119 | 10.790 | 0.547 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Financial problems | Warsaw | 46 | 13.944 | 0.124 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Financial problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 15.647 | 0.208 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Alcohol problems | Lublin | 121 | 12.490 | 0.407 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Alcohol problems | Warsaw | 46 | 8.264 | 0.508 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Alcohol problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 167 | 14.319 | 0.281 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

3. Number of children and reasons for abuse

| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observations) | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
|------------|------------|-------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Number of | Jealousy | Lublin | 119 | 4.110 | 0.904 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

| | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|----------------------------------|------------|---------------|--------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| children | | | | | | | |
| Number of children | Jealousy | Warsaw | 47 | 5.129 | 0.823 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Jealousy | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 3.029 | 0.963 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Adultery | Lublin | 119 | 11.537 | 0.241 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Adultery | Warsaw | 47 | 15.449 | 0.079 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Adultery | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 8.646 | 0.471 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Self-defence and defending children | Lublin | 119 | 19.242 | 0.023 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Number of children | Self-defence and defending children | Warsaw | 47 | 9.344 | 0.155 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Self-defence and defending children | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 18,425 | 0.031 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Number of children | Forcing a man to move out | Lublin | 118 | 0.575 | 0.902 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Forcing a man to move out | Warsaw | 47 | 2.236 | 0.525 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Forcing a man to move out | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 0.521 | 0.914 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Financial problems | Lublin | 119 | 21.453 | 0.011 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Number of children | Financial problems | Warsaw | 47 | 7.651 | 0.570 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Financial problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 19.643 | 0.020 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |

| | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------------------|---------------------------|-----|--------|-------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Number of children | Alcohol problems | Lublin | 121 | 6.477 | 0.691 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Alcohol problems | Warsaw | 47 | 15.239 | 0.085 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Alcohol problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 168 | 6.715 | 0.667 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

| 4. Perpetration of abuse with accomplices or alone and abuse types | | | | | | | |
|---|------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observations) | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
| Lone-or-not | Abuse type | Lublin | 129 | 4.572 | 0.334 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Abuse type | Warsaw | 47 | 6.208 | 0.102 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Abuse type | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 176 | 3.697 | 0.449 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

The majority of cases where Chi² test was applied showed that samples were independent; hence no correlation was found. The hypothesis about independence was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis stating the association between the variables accepted in the following tests:

- i) Mode of abuse perpetration and self-defence and defending children in the Lublin sample
- ii) Mode of abuse perpetration and self-defence and defending children in the Warsaw sample
- iii) Mode of abuse perpetration and self-defence and defending children in the joint Lublin and Warsaw sample
- iv) Mode of abuse perpetration and financial problems in the Lublin sample
- v) Mode of abuse perpetration and financial problems in the Warsaw sample
- vi) Mode of abuse perpetration and financial problems in the joint Lublin and Warsaw sample
- vii) Mode of abuse perpetration and alcohol problems in the joint Lublin and Warsaw sample
- viii) Number of children and self-defence and defending children in the Lublin sample

ix) Number of children and self-defence and defending children in the joint Lublin and Warsaw sample

x) Number of children and financial problems in the Lublin sample

xi) Number of children and financial problems in the joint Lublin and Warsaw sample

Since the Chi² test did not indicate the strength of relationship, importance or level of significance of the associations (Laerd Statistics, 2017), a Z-test of multiple proportions with Bonferroni adjustment was chosen to follow it up. It tested for independence between the subgroups within groups where the association was indicated (e.g. mode of perpetration versus self-defence, defending children, or both). As such, the Z-test pairwise comparisons of proportions provided more detailed information about the statistical significance of differences in the subgroups tested as it tested every possible combination of the proportions of three or more of these groups (Laerd Statistics, 2017). Bonferroni adjustment provided a correction that included multiple comparisons. In other words, the multiple Z-tests of two proportions provided information about which subgroups are statistically different within the sample where there was an association previously found by the Chi² test (Laerd Statistics, 2017). Detailed results are shown in Appendix 4, section B. The interpretation of results is presented in the section 6.5.3

All the associations at the significance level below 0.05 were found as follows:

- In the Lublin sample, the proportion of women who abused alone and declared doing it because of protection of their children (20 per cent), or because of self-defence and protecting children (37 per cent), was significantly lower than women abusing for other reasons (86 per cent).

The proportion of cases when women and who abused with the help of accomplices was significantly higher when they declared abusing for self-defence (80 per cent) and self-

defence and protection of children (62 per cent) than abusing for other reasons (14 per cent).

- In Warsaw, the proportion of women abusing alone, who declared doing so because of self-defence (90 per cent) was significantly higher than abusing for self-defence and defending children (40 per cent).

Additionally, the proportion of women abusing with the accomplices, and because of self-defence was significantly lower (10 per cent) than women abusing with the help of accomplices because of their partner's abuse or mistreatment of children (60 per cent).

- In the joint sample (combined cases from Lublin and Warsaw), for women abusing without the accomplices, a significantly lower proportion of them abused because of protecting children (20 per cent) and self-defence and protection of children combined (38 per cent), than women abusing for other reasons (86 per cent). Additionally, a significantly higher proportion of women declared perpetrating violence on their partners because of self-defence (81 per cent), than because of self-defence and protecting children (38 per cent) or just protecting children from the partner's violence/abuse (20 per cent).

When abusing with the accomplices, a significantly higher proportion of women declared protecting children (80 per cent), and self-defence combined with protecting children (61 per cent) than other reasons for abuse (14 per cent). Defending children and self-defence combined with defending children was also reported at a higher proportion than just self-defence (19 per cent).

- The Z-test, multiple pairwise comparison of proportions between perpetrating the abuse without the accomplices tested against the reasons of violence/abuse, revealed, that in

Warsaw, there is a significantly lower proportion of women abusing because of the financial problems caused by men (53 per cent), than when financial problems were caused by both partners (100 per cent). However, when abused with the help of accomplices, a significantly higher proportion of women abused because of the financial problems caused by men (47 per cent) than by both partners (0 per cent).

- In the joint sample, in situations when a woman abuses alone, there is a significantly lower proportion of women abusing because of financial problems caused by the man or his inadequate financial support (62 per cent) than abusing for other reasons (86 per cent). Additionally, a significantly higher proportion of women abused because of the financial problems caused by themselves (100 per cent) than financial problems caused by their male partners or their inadequate support.

When abusing with the accomplices, the proportion of cases, where the cause was reported to be financial problems or inadequate financial support by men (38 per cent) was significantly higher than abusing for the other reasons (14 per cent). Also, the proportion of women abusing because of the financial problems caused by themselves was significantly lower (0 per cent) than women abusing because of the financial problems caused by the man or his inadequate support.

- When looking at the abuse with the accomplices and alcohol problems, in the joint sample, and in the instances where woman abuses alone, there is a significantly lower proportion of abuse reported to occur because of the man's alcohol problems (64 per cent) than because of woman's alcohol problems (93 per cent).

When abusing with the help of accomplices, however, there is a higher proportion of women abusing because of man's alcohol problems (35 per cent) rather than woman's alcohol problems (6 per cent).

The analysis of proportions of occurrence between the number of children and reasons for abuse revealed the following:

- In the Lublin sample, women abused because of self-defence and defending children (50 per cent) at a significantly higher proportion than they do for other reasons (7 per cent), but only in the instances where they have three and more children.
- The same was true in the joint sample.
- In the combined cases from Lublin and Warsaw, women abuse proportionally more often when defending themselves (40 per cent), or protecting themselves and children (31 per cent) than for the other reasons (7 per cent) also only in the instances when they have three and more children.
- In Lublin, women abused significantly at a significantly higher proportion because of the financial problems caused by a male partner (or his lack of appropriate support) (21 per cent) rather than for other reasons (2 per cent) but only in couples with three and more children. The same was true in the cases where the financial problems were caused by both partners (26 per cent).
- In the joint sample, the proportion of women abusing because of financial problems caused by their male partner (17 per cent) and financial problems caused by themselves (24 per cent) was significantly higher than in cases where it occurred for other reasons (2 per cent), but only in the couples with three children. The same was found for the abuse because of financial problems caused by both partners (24 per cent).

To summarise, the Z-test of pairwise comparison of multiple proportions with Bonferroni adjustment allowed the identification of some of the key features that increased the chance of women's perpetration of partner abuse in the cases reported to the Judicial System in Poland, but only under certain conditions.

There was no relationship between the severity of physical abuse and reasons for abuse.

Abuse towards their partners, perpetrated by women alone happens for different reasons than when women abuse with accomplices. The results suggest, that where men were seen as displaying negative behaviour towards their partners or children the perpetrators may have been perceived as morally righteous and aiding the woman in oppression (such as in cases where they reported self-defence or defending themselves and children). Thus, enlisting the accomplices to abuse occurred more often than in other reasons.

Women tended to abuse alone where the reason for perpetrating the abuse by women might have been perceived as being triggered by her shortcomings (such as conflict over money mismanagement by the woman or her overusing the alcohol). They were less likely to do so because of self-defence and/or defending women tended to abuse alone, but only in couples with three or more children.

A large number of children seem to be crucial when women decide to abuse because of financial strain or alcohol problems.

Financial problems, caused by women, and by her current or former partner reporting the abuse, were the reasons reported significantly more often than other reason for abuse but only in the couples with three or more children.

A large number (three or more children) also increases the reports of self-defence and defending themselves and children rather than perpetrating violence towards one's partner by women.

The possible explanation of the results and themes emerging from the analysis will be addressed in Chapter 7.

6.5 Summary

Exploring the first broad research question on general characteristics of the sample provided a wealth of information about the prevalence of abuse towards male partners (or former partners) over seven years in Poland and the characteristics of relationships. The samples were also rich in the characteristics of the alleged perpetrator and victim the involved as well the legal proceedings applied to the case when the Judicial System processes it.

The abuse was reported by men of all ages and allegedly perpetrated by women of all ages.

In Poland, marriage, whether ongoing or at the stage of the official break-up was the most prominent types or relationship where the alleged abuse took place. In most cases, women, even when not sharing the accommodation with the victim, chose to abuse alone and abused subsequently. They were most often younger than their partners, also if there was a group of women older than their partners. Women generally earned less, even though there was a large group of women with higher income and a substantial group of women with approximately equal income than their partners. This seems to be consistent with the findings of GUS (Eurostat, 2018) regarding the Gender Pay Gap in 2018 in Poland, with women earning on average 7.7 per cent less per hour of work.

Surprisingly, a large number of alleged perpetrators and victims had higher education when compared with the structure of education in Poland (Instytut Badan Naukowych, 2011), and a larger than expected number of children (Statistical Office in Lublin, 2011; Statistical Office in Warsaw,

2011). Contrary to expectations, very few alleged perpetrators and victims abused when under the influence of alcohol and very few abused their children. The length of time the abuse took place varied, but in relatively few relationships, it lasted for over seven years.

Very rarely, physical abuse was unaccompanied by verbal/psychological abuse⁷⁷, or it was seldom reported. When it occurred, there was more than one kind of physical abuse reported, and the severity of abuse also varied. The same was true for verbal/psychological abuse: men rarely reported one type of it being used against them. In Warsaw, women tended to use more kind of verbal/psychological abuse, and a higher percentage of them used potentially most harming types of physical abuse.

When looking at the reasons for male partner abuse, there is usually a combination of several. Reasons that have to do with providing and/or managing the family economic resources are reported most commonly. This includes forcing the man to move out of the family's property. Since the families where abuse was reported most often by couples having children, economic factors should be explored further.

Female self-defence is reported rather often, but its prevalence needs to be compared with the rate of abuse/violence against women in the relationships in Poland.

Surprisingly, jealousy and adultery seem to be not very commonly reported, but this too needs a comparison with the rates of adultery in the general population to allow a valid conclusion. The same is true for defending children.

Legal proceedings are usually quickly discontinued. There were small numbers of witnesses (if any), court-appointed specialists were rarely assigned to the case. The Polish Penal Code has a specific qualification of partner abuse, where there needs to be a proven dependency (usually financial) of a

⁷⁷ Coercive control tactics

victim. Since in most of the cases, men earn more than their female partners, the cases of alleged abuse can be discontinued in the judicial system on this basis. Additionally, any claim of dual perpetration seems to make dismissing of the case more likely.

6.5.3 Research question 3: Variables explaining the mode of perpetration, severity of occurrence and reasons for abuse

To summarise, the results of Chi² and Z-test of two proportions with Bonferroni adjustment indicate that there may be several correlations worth further exploration, possibly using a larger (and as such more reliable) sample. The correlations indicated are as follows:

a. In the sample from Lublin, women who abused their male partners alone and as the means of protecting their children, and as self-defence and protection of children (combined), perpetrated IPV less often than they did for other reasons.

When acting with the help of accomplices, however, they abused as a means of self-defence and the combination of self-defence and protecting children more often than perpetrating the IPV to defend themselves or abusing for other reasons.

In Warsaw, in the cases where women abused alone, they were abusing as the means of self-defence or self-defence and defending children at a similar proportion than perpetrating IPV for other reasons. Still, they were abusing as self-defence and protecting children (combined) less often than abusing as just the means of self-defence.

When abusing with the help of accomplices, women did not abuse more often as the means of self-defence or self-defence and defending children. Still, there was a significantly higher proportion of women abusing as the means self-defence and protecting children than abusing as just self-defence.

In the sample combined, and when abusing with no accomplices, there was no difference in the proportion of women abusing as self-defence and abusing for other reasons. A significantly lower proportion of women, however, abused when defending children and when abused as self-defence and defending children together. The proportion of women abusing as the means of defending children was no different from the proportion of women defending children and acting in self-defence and defending children.

When abusing with accomplices, self-defence was not reported more often than other reasons for abuse. However, protecting children and acting in a combination of self-defence and protecting children was reported proportionally more often than abusing for different reasons, when compared with abusing as a means of self- defence.

b. In Lublin, in the cases where woman abused alone, the proportion of cases was similar to the one where women abused for other reasons: financial problems caused by themselves, financial problems caused by the man, and financial problems caused b both of them. There were no significant differences between the instances where different people in the relationship caused the issues.

The same was true in cases where women abused with the help of accomplices.

In Warsaw, in the cases where women abused alone, perpetrating IPV for financial reasons caused by the woman's budget mismanagement occurred at a similar rate to abusing for other reasons. The same was true for cases when financial problems were reported to be caused by both partners. Even though there was no difference in proportion between the cases where the woman abused for budget mismanagement or inadequate financial support by the man, it occurred less often than the cases where both partners caused the budget mismanagement.

In the cases where women abused with the help of accomplices, financial problems caused by women occurred in the same proportion as abusing for other reasons. The same was true when for financial issues caused by both partners and instances where the abuse happened because of the man causing financial problems or providing inadequate financial support. However, when comparing the proportions of financial problems caused by both and financial problems caused by the man, the latter occurs significantly more often than the former.

In the joint sample, in the instances where a woman abuses with no accomplices, there was no significant difference in proportion between abusing for other reasons and perpetrating IPV because of financial problems caused by the woman or financial problems caused by both partners. Abusing because of financial issues or inadequate financial support by the male partner occurred in a lower proportion of cases than abuse because of financial problems caused by the woman.

When perpetrating IPV with the help of accomplices, women abused significantly more often because of financial problems or inadequate support by their partners than when abusing for other reasons. In these cases, women also abused less often because of financial problems caused by themselves rather than when the cause was financial problems or inadequate financial support by male partners.

c. Results from the joint sample, where women were reported to abuse alone, indicated no significant differences between incidents. Where women were abusing because of alcohol problems they experienced, alcohol problems encountered by the male partner or alcohol problems of both partners and perpetrating IPV for other reasons. However, a significantly higher percentage of cases of women abusing because of their alcohol problem has been found when comparing these with the occurrence of cases where alcohol problems are experienced just by the male partners.

In instances where women abused with the help of accomplices, there were no statistical differences between abusing because of the woman's alcohol problems, man's alcohol problems, or alcohol problems of both partners and abusing for other reasons. However, in cases where the abuse was perpetrated because of the men's alcohol problems, it occurred more often than in instances where the women experienced problems with alcohol use.

d. In the Lublin sample, a comparison of the number of children versus woman's self-defence and protection of children shows, that it occurred significantly more often than abusing for other reasons but only in couples where there were three and more children. The same is true in the joint sample.

e. In Lublin, the abuse occurred significantly more often because of financial problems caused by the man or caused by both partners rather than because of other reasons, but only if there were three and more children. There were no significant differences between abusing because of female-caused financial problems and abusing for other than financial reasons. A similar pattern was seen in the joint samples.

The summary of findings, theorisation, conclusions and implications of the study, along with recommendations for the future research are presented in the next chapter.

7.5.3 Critical evaluation of strengths and weaknesses of the study

Strengths

One of the main strengths of this research was using mixed methodology that combined recording qualitative as well as quantitative data. This allowed more freedom in the exploration of the sample and identification of additional variables that supplemented the original pro forma and database and provided better understanding of characteristics of both samples. Conversion of qualitative to quantitative data allowed statistical analysis of the sample, checking the occurrence of measurable

characteristics and further analysis in search of possible associations between the variables at a high level of certainty ($p \leq 0.05$).

Using a non-random, non-probability and consecutive sample allowed including in the analysis all cases of female-perpetrated IPV reported in both places, which increased the size of samples and as such reliability of the findings.

Additional strength was a research design that used a purpose-made pro forma for data collection. This allowed recording information in the categories inspired by the research designs of other scientists, with tailoring the tools such as CTS or Power and Control Wheel to the specific circumstances of the type of information recorded in Polish Judicial System case files. The research design allowed the analysis and comparison of the findings with the other published studies.

Using judicial system files as data source allowed an access to a rich source of information that has already been collected, stored and recorded in a standardised way. This made the scope of research possible within the limited human, time and budget resources.

This research aids the understanding of complex relationships between the variables that might influence the female perpetration of IPV, allows the formation of new research questions to be tested in further studies in search for possible correlations.

Chapter 7: Summary of the Findings, Theorisation, Conclusions, Implications of the study and recommendations for the future

In this chapter, the findings of this research are summarised, compared with the findings of other studies and concluded. The implications of this study and recommendations for further research and practice are presented in the later section of the chapter.

Importance of the topic

The rationale for choosing this topic was the fact that the female perpetration in cases of domestic abuse is still under-researched when compared with female IPV victimisation. The author argues that addressing the female IPV victimisation and perpetration is the way forward to the understanding of the dynamics of abusive intimate relationships. It can also contribute to better counselling and treatment programs in the future.

This research is exploratory, and its goal was to answer three broad research questions:

1. What are the socioeconomic, sociodemographic and additional characteristics of the samples as recorded by the Polish Judicial System in cases of reported female-perpetrated and male-directed cases of the Intimate Partner Violence/abuse in Lublin and Warsaw, Poland?
2. What are the profiles of a “typical” alleged perpetrator, “typical” alleged victim of partner abuse, “typical” couple, where the abuse is reported to have taken place and “typical” response of the Judicial System in the cases from Lublin and Warsaw?
3. Which variables could best explain the mode of perpetration, reasons for, occurrence and severity of physical and emotional abuse against men in long-term heterosexual relationships?

These questions have been answered to the various degrees.

Research question 1 has been **answered fully**. An extensive database allowed the identification of a high number of variables. The analysis of the socioeconomic, sociodemographic and additional characteristics allowed a description of the samples, alleged perpetrators, victims, their relationships and the answer of Polish Judicial System to the cases of domestic abuse allegedly perpetrated by women. The number of cases varied considerably between the sites despite including all the cases found, and choosing areas of a similar number of inhabitants. Thus, results from Warsaw, with 50 cases, have lower validity than these from Lublin, with 134 cases. Additionally, the information recorded in case files in Lublin generally consisted of more information than case files from Warsaw; despite the expectation that the interviews will be completed to fulfil the same recommended standards as per the Code of Criminal Procedure (1997).

The wealth of information regarding the frequencies and percentage of occurrence, recorded and processed to address Research Questions 1, allowed further data analysis using the Chi² and Fisher's exact test. The tests made identification several statistically significant differences of occurrence in various characteristics within the samples from Lublin and Warsaw and between the two samples possible. Moreover, the differences in a number of children between the samples and the couples divorcing in the researched areas in 2010, and comparison of percentage occurrence in groups with different level of education between the alleged perpetrators, alleged victims and the general Polish population allowed conclusions about how representative is the sample to the general Polish population. The significance of this will be discussed in the latter part of the chapter.

Research question 2 has also been **answered in full**. The profiles of most commonly occurring measurable characteristics described the typical alleged perpetrator, alleged victim, typical relationship and relationship dynamics. Additionally, the characteristics of a typical case of abuse perpetration in Lublin and Warsaw, as well as characteristics of typical legal proceedings when

investigating the case towards male partners provided information about the most commonly occurring characteristics in the several aspects the researcher was interested in. The implication of which will be discussed further in the later section of this chapter.

Research question 3 has been **partially answered**. Three of the most promising characteristics, that were identified as the possible triggers or underlying causes for female use of violence towards their current or former partners were chosen, based findings of descriptive statistics analysis and prior Chi² (or Fisher's exact) test and the literature review. Several associations between perpetrating abuse with the accomplices or alone and different reasons for abuse were found. Some associations between the couples with three and more children, and some reasons for abuse, the significance of which will be discussed in the latter part of the chapter, were also identified. No associations were found, however, between the reasons and reasons for abuse and types for abuse and the use of accomplices (or abusing alone) and type of abuse.

The researcher suspects that there might be other key variables, which could be tested for the possible association with reasons for abuse and the modes of its perpetration, such as age difference between the partners, income disparities and education level. Another association worth testing would be the type of abuse and response of the judicial system. In the author's opinion, only the more extensive tests for the association could provide a full answer to the last research question.

7.2 Theorisation

7.2.1 Recognition, prevalence and attrition of cases in the Polish Judicial System

Recognition of male victimisation and the problem of coercive control

Male victimisation by domestic abuse is recognised in the general Polish population far more often than it is reported. Despite the growing number of cases of domestic violence/abuse reported to the

police 4239 to 10718 between 1999 and 2011, in comparison with the female victimisation growing from 55214 to 70730 for the same time (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019) the general population poll of 2010 found out that 32 per cent of respondents knew the families where domestic violence towards men takes place, while 63 per cent –where domestic violence against women takes place (OBOP, 2010, p.32-37). There was a difference in reporting the knowledge of victims by the population poll (OBOP, 2010, p.35) in different districts of the country. In Lublin district, the violence against men was reported in 38 per cent of the families (violence against women in 69 per cent families). In contrast, in mazowieckie (Warsaw) district, violence against men was reported to have occurred in 36 per cent of families (violence against women in 60 per cent of families). This is consistent with the larger size of the sample from Lublin; however, the magnitude of the difference suggests other factors influencing reporting of male victimisation by their current and former long-term female partners to the judicial system.

It also means there is a tremendous difference in the reporting of victimisation by domestic violence/abuse for women by even more so for men.

As police statistics from the Blue Card System (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019) show, female IPV perpetration has been reported to the judicial system approximately 6.5 times less often than the male IPV perpetration. However, the number of reported cases has been growing in recent years⁷⁸. It is still uncertain how many men recognise the abusive acts of their partners as the IPV and choose to report their victimisation. One of the plausible explanations of this situation may be the traditional assumptions around gender ideas in the relationships that persist in Poland. The societal changes that meant to lead to true gender equality started under the communism reign (e.g. Koscianska, 2018 p. 174-190) and continue in the new market-based economy and more neoliberal society

⁷⁸. Data from the police statistics based on the reporting to the Blue Card System in 2018. (Further details in Chapter 2, section 2.6.1)

(CBOS, 2013b, Titkow and Duch-Krzysztozek, 2009, Bystydzenski, 2005). According to these perceptions, men are perceived as (or expected to be) hegemonic, more aggressive, stronger than women physically and mentally. Because of their social role as breadwinners, they are seen as less likely to fall victims to the IPV than are women.

The results of population poll by OBOP (2010), suggest that even in the anonymous settings of population poll, it was usually more difficult to admit to the domestic violence victimisation for male respondents⁷⁹ They also found seeking help from the judicial system and other institutions designated for providing help and support for all the victims of domestic violence/abuse more difficult than women.

In Poland, there is a widespread belief that the Judicial System is more likely to protect female rather than male victims of the IPV because of the definition of domestic violence/abuse by the Polish Penal Code of 1997 and its implementation (OBOP, 2010). The Polish Penal code lacks the recognition of Stark's coercive control, treating it as an incident-specific crime. Definition of dependency is still unclear, primarily based on the experience of the prosecutors and judges and most often focuses on the physical side of domestic abuse (Wrona, 2016, p.12, 20, Sledziwski, 158-162). The PPC specification of abuse as an ongoing process and the problem of dependency of one partner on another focuses on the differences in physical strength and income. Consideration of the participation in decision making over how the family income is spent or which of the partners makes all important decisions in the relationship, often excluding the needs of another rarely. The vast majority of controlling behaviours doesn't seem to be recognised or treated as a part of the broader pattern.

⁷⁹. Differences between the percentage of respondents' awareness of the families experiencing domestic abuse and percentage of victimisation related reported by the victims and perpetrators combined concluded that between 6 per cent (for male victims) to 10 per cent (for female victims) higher for reporting the domestic violence in the families of others in Lublin and 2 per cent for female victims in Warsaw –with the percentage of male victims being accurate with the reports by the victims and perpetrators.

Additionally, in the cases of bi-directional violence, the Polish Penal Code doesn't recognise the primary perpetrator. Indeed, Polish criminal law excludes bi-directional violence as not fulfilling specification of domestic abuse on the assumption that if an alleged victim is also violent. Whether the violence has occurred in response to the aggression or controlling behaviours experienced from the partner, is to be determined by the court. The intimate partner abuse can occur only in the situations when the victim is helpless, unable to defend him or herself successfully, and the disproportion of power in the relationship is large and obvious. This leaves the victim in the situation where he or she is unable to leave the perpetrator because of overwhelming fear or financial dependence (Sledziewski, 2016, p.184). Moreover, the actions of a perpetrator need to be intentional (Sledziewski, 2016, p.145; Wrona, 2016 p.20, 77).

That may explain almost 100 per cent rate of attrition in the cases sampled in this study. These findings are also consistent with the study by Hester. She found that in the N-E England the cases of domestic violence are most likely to be discontinued in the course of police investigations if the IPV perpetration is seen as dual and/or it was difficult to establish a primary perpetrator (Hester, 2005). Unlike the findings by Hester, whose research concluded that the mutual perpetration was the second smallest group (approx. 18 per cent of cases), while the sole female perpetration was the smallest group (slightly over 8 per cent of cases) of cases reported to the police, the dual perpetration cases were the largest group of female-perpetrated cases reported Judicial System in Lublin and Warsaw.

The finding that alleged perpetrators were more likely to be interviewed in Lublin (in 34 per cent of cases) than in Warsaw (in 22 per cent of cases), and cases most likely to be discontinued (in 99 per cent, while in Warsaw in 94 per cent of cases), suggests, widespread reluctance in pursuing the cases of alleged male victimisation by the IPV. This might be due to the cultural expectations of men

displaying a hegemonic masculinity type (Perkowski, 2008) and the expectation of them being able to “handle” their women.

The per cent of attrition is also extremely high in comparison with the findings of Hester⁸⁰, where 26 per cent of incidents of the IPV reported to the police resulted in the arrests, 27 per cent of individuals arrested (7 per cent of the initially reported) were charged by the court, while 52 per cent of charged (14 per cent of arrested, 7 per cent of reported to the police) were convicted. Also, 13 per cent of convictions and 0.5 per cent of incidents were given custodial sentences (Hester, 2005).

The finding that in 31 per cent of Lublin and 22 per cent of Warsaw cases the alleged perpetrators and 41 and 30 per cent of cases the witnesses have not been even interviewed before the cases were discontinued is evidence of the procedural short-cuts; not recommended in the police procedures but possibly applied due to the number of ongoing investigations perceived as having a higher chance of prosecution. The fact that when the witnesses were interviewed, it was most commonly, one person may be interpreted in three different ways. Firstly, that there were very few bystanders of the IPV in the cases reported. Secondly, very few bystanders were prepared to testify and provide the evidence. Thirdly, the police and/or prosecution investigators were prepared to conclude the cases as soon as possible and have not chosen to call in the witnesses. When more than one type of witnesses was interviewed, they were most likely to represent more than one category (see Chapter 6, section 6.2.19). Very often (however, no further statistical analysis have been done to explore the phenomenon), the preferred type of witness was a community police officer or officers involved in the interventions in cases where any of the parties involved have called the police. The choice of police officers over the other possible witnesses might be another phenomenon worth further exploration (Hester, 2005).

⁸⁰ similar to other studies from different part of the UK

The conclusion that the cases of alleged female-perpetrated IPV are often seen as not appropriate for further investigation is also supported by the fact that only a very small percentage of cases if referred for the further investigation by the Criminal Courts. This is consistent with the findings of Hester for the UK criminal population (Hester, 2005). Additionally, many men were found to have asked the police to issue the wife an official or unofficial warning or (in 1/5th to 1/4th of cases) withdrawn the complaints. This may suggest that they either did not want to prosecute their current or former partners, were afraid of the stigma the victimisation by a female can cause if the family or community members would become aware of it (Hester, 2005; OBOP, 2010). Alternatively, they were persuaded by the police officers that their cases are too weak and investigations will be most likely discontinued, even if the cases are brought into the prosecution or Criminal Court (Hester, 2005).

When looking at the efficiency in providing help to the victims of domestic violence, only 13 per cent of men, interviewed in the general population poll by OBOP in 2010 (OBOP, 210) was of the opinion that the aid of police and other institutions provided in the cases of domestic violence is ineffective. This is contrary to the findings of this study, where 99 per cent of cases from Lublin and 94 per cent of cases from Warsaw experienced attrition in the judicial system. This suggests that almost none of the men perceiving themselves as victims of domestic abuse received helped they were looking for. In 23 per cent of cases in Lublin and 20 per cent cases in Warsaw the alleged victims withdraw the allegations, in some instances (13 per cent in Lublin and 6 per cent in Warsaw) asking the police to issue a verbal warning to the partner, which may mean that men didn't want to go continue with the proceedings. The reasons for this would make an interesting follow-up study.

Only a few cases, where men experienced severe physical violence and/or were subjected to conspiracy to murder, were seen as fulfilling the criteria of domestic abuse and brought before the court.

7.2.2 Themes emerging from the data analysis

The analysis of results revealed a few key themes emerging from the analysis of the cases of the alleged intimate partner abuse perpetrated by women towards their current and former long-term partners:

1. The issues related to the finance/economics of the couple
2. Women empowerment and its constituents
3. Alcohol problems and the use of alcohol during the incidents of abuse
4. Age and age differences between the partners
5. Self-defence, defending children and perpetration of abuse

They will be discussed in the sections below

7.2.2.1 The economic issues

Falconier (2010) identified the financial strain as one of the reasons for abuse in Argentinean couples that had undergone the therapy. The respondents of the representative general population poll in Poland in 2010, who admitted to victimisation by domestic violence/abuse judged their financial situation as bad (53 per cent of female victims and 25 per cent of male victims) rather than good (respectively 34 and 25 per cent) (OBOP, 2010). Therefore the finding that the most common reason for the violence is economic issues is not surprising. Splitting the economic issues into three distinctive categories: no or inadequate financial support by a man, financial problems caused by a woman, and forcing the man to move out of the family's property (with no significant difference in the percentage of occurrence between Lublin and Warsaw samples) allowed more inside view of the

problem. Finding that failure to fulfil the financial expectation by the male partner was the most commonly occurring reasons (found in the 43 per cent of cases in Lublin and 58 per cent of cases in Warsaw), followed by the attempt to force the man to move out (34 per cent and 48 per cent respectively), suggests more traditional view on the gender roles in the relationship. By large, men are responsible for providing financial support, despite the declared support for equal rights in the politics (97 per cent), family (96 per cent), and professional life (96 per cent) (CBOS, 2013b). However, financial problems caused by the female partner, the least commonly occurring financial reason for the abuse (in 27 and 38 per cent of cases), were reported only slightly less often than woman's self-defence (29 per cent in Lublin and 50 per cent in Warsaw), and more often than the alcohol problems, jealousy or adultery of either of the partners (Chapter 6, Table 17). This suggests they are widespread. Women are expected to fulfil their social role in managing the family budget successfully.

Relative income differences

Since the average gender pay gap in Poland in 2010, estimated at 5.4 per cent (European Commission, 2013), with women's average earnings lower than men's, the most prevalent income category in both samples of "man earning more than a woman" is consistent with what the prevalent income pattern. The finding of Chi² test that there are significantly more men earning more than their female partners in Warsaw (58 per cent) than in Lublin (37 per cent) also indicates better employment opportunities for men in the capital. In the 23 per cent of cases from Lublin and 16 per cent in Warsaw it was women who earned more than their partners; a substantial figure, even if not statistically significant.

Differences in income are one of the constituents of the power (and/or resource) imbalances between the intimate partners and are linked with the higher rates female partner of victimisation.

Physical aggression against women perpetrated by their partners was found to be lowest in the egalitarian couples and increase with the differences in power (e.g. Bell and Naugle, 2008). This would be consistent with the finding that the relatively similar income was found in only 18 per cent couples from Lublin and 7 per cent of couples from Warsaw. It also suggests that the power imbalances created by income differences might be one of the constituents of the family tension resulting in the male IPV victimisation.

The relatively high percentage of women earning more and/or much more than their partners and former partners suggests the possibility of some perpetrators having higher resource base and as such a formed dissimilarity between the power and resources; which puts a number of women in a superior position. A link between low male occupational status (in comparison with their female partners) and male IPV perpetration (e.g. Anderson, 1997; Melzer, 2002; Gelles, 1997; DeMaris et al., 2003; Atkinson et al., 2005), and the fact that in the highest percentage of the analysed cases the violence was bi-directional, make the results consistent with these previous research findings.

However, more statistically advanced analysis is needed to be made for any valid conclusions.

The issue of general **money matters**, listed by Dobash and Dobash (1984), was typically a reason of conflict in the relationships where women were victimised by their male partners -in typically 17 per cent of the cases from the agency sample and 10 per cent of cases drawn from the police records. In the Polish Judicial System samples of male-directed and female partner perpetrated violence, the money matters were a principal reason for conflict. General money matters were a reason for female-perpetrated IPV in 60 per cent of Lublin and 69 per cent of Warsaw cases – between approximately 4 to 7 times more often than in the American sample. This suggests that women's formal equality has an impact on men's traditional gender role as breadwinner, the changes in which may be partially responsible for men's victimisation in cases, where they fail to meet the societal expectations.

Specific to Polish reality, property prices and market, the issue of using violence to **force the man to move out** of the property occupied by the family was the second most-often occurring reason for the female use of violence –in 34 per cent of cases in Lublin and 48 per cent of cases in Warsaw. With the property ownership being a result of, very often, life savings and investment of the couple, the access to the property may be the first step to suing the partner in hope for the unequal division of assets in favour of the woman. This can be done after the court assessing which partner contributed more to the well-being of the family seen not only as earnings but also as housework, the upbringing of children and management of the family budget and savings (Sroga, 2018).

The likelihood of falling victim of intimate partner abuse, contrary to the likelihood of divorce seemed to rise with the number of children in the family. There was a significantly lower number of couples with no children and more couples having two and three and more children in the sampled Judicial System population than among the divorcing couples in the sampled districts (Statistical Office in Lublin 2011; Statistical Office in Warsaw 2011).

The finding that financial problems were reported at a significantly higher proportion than other reasons for abuse in the couples with a large number of children (three and more may suggest that the economic strain and failure of man to live up to the social and cultural expectations as a "breadwinner" is crucial. Its importance would be worth exploring in the future.

7.2.2.2 Women empowerment and their perpetration of domestic violence

Level of education and overrepresentation of certain groups

Results of this study are dissimilar to the results of population poll by OBOP (2010) with regards to the most commonly occurring education level of the female domestic violence perpetrators and male domestic violence victims. Most of the perpetrators found by the population poll had vocational

education level, followed by A-levels of technical equivalent. In contrast, most of the perpetrators from the Lublin and Warsaw samples had higher education (and over 50 per cent) followed by the groups of women with A-levels.

Hoating and Sugarman (1986) found a link between the lack of educational and/or occupational status and violence perpetration by male IPV perpetrators. The findings of this research suggest some differences between male and female perpetrators when looking at the education level. The fact that verbal/psychological violence and controlling behaviours were a prevalent type of abuse, identified in the vast majority of cases (98 per cent in Lublin and Warsaw), either on their own or accompanied by some form of physical violence (in 74 per cent of cases in Lublin and 80 per cent of cases in Warsaw), suggest that women abusing their partners were more likely to use the non-physical method of the IPV.

The most commonly occurring levels of education of male victims, as shown by the general population poll (OBOP, 2010), were A-levels or technical equivalent, while in the judicial systems samples was higher education. This makes the education structure of alleged male victims of IPV dissimilar to the victims of domestic violence in the general Polish population.

When compared with the general Polish population, more perpetrators in Lublin (55 per cent) and in Warsaw (44 per cent) than in the general non-violent population of Poland (Instytut Badan Naukowych, 2011)⁸¹ had higher education, and the difference was significantly different in Lublin (as measured by the Chi² test with $p < 0.01$). The lower percentage of women with A-levels or equivalent in Warsaw than in the general population ($p < 0.01$), with the overrepresentation of women with higher education (however without the significant differences between the samples, $p < 0.08$), suggests that the higher education status of the perpetrators makes them more likely to be reported

⁸¹ Compared with the structure of education in the samples of alleged perpetrators and victims from Lublin and Warsaw using Chi² test (or Fisher's exact test where appropriate)

to the authorities in Lublin and Warsaw. Surprisingly, the overrepresentation of women with the lowest level of education needs further explanation.

Women empowerment and the IPV perpetration

Women empowerment is measured using a number of constituents: their participation in the governing bodies, level of education, access to the highly paid jobs and high occupational status; finally, the power structure in their relationships expressed as participation in the decision making and control over their own reproductive choices and the family size (e.g. Akram, 2017; Habibov, 2017; Musonera and Heshamati, 2016).

The researched methods did not allow to measure a gender parity index with regards to women's involvement in decision making in the household just based on the type of data collected. However, the relative income difference has been estimated based on information from the police and persecution interviews, so was the level of education for a large number of women. The overrepresentation of women with higher education in comparison with the general population sample in Lublin and underrepresentation of women with lower than the tertiary level of education in Warsaw, with a significant group of women earning more than the partners are consistent with the theory that women empowerment is positively linked with the crime perpetration, including the IPV (Adler, 1975 and Yyh-Yaw and Gilles, 2004). This group of women, with higher education and occupational status and job security, benefitted greater from the formal equality guaranteed by Polish law than most women with lower educational attainment.

Differences in the sample size, the sample from Warsaw being a 1/3rd of the sample from Lublin when the sampled areas having a similar number of inhabitants, suggests underrepresentation of women in the area of the country with potentially higher women empowerment. It may suggest that a generally higher degree of women's empowerment is not positively correlated with the female IPV

perpetration. As such, it contradicts the findings of Archer et al. (2006), that the increase in women's empowerment is positively linked their perpetration of Intimate Partner Violence. An in-depth analysis of the sample structure, with the education, income and age differences between the partners taken into consideration, suggests that there are more empowered than disempowered women perpetrating the IPV, except for the women with the lowest level of education in Warsaw, who were overrepresented in the sample. This might suggest two distinctive groups of the perpetrators, driven to the perpetration of the intimate partner abuse by different triggers unless they perceive the use of violence by both groups of women as the way to embody the empowerment over their partners in the form of coercive control tactics.

The transition to a neoliberal economy and withdrawal of the protection offered to women by the communist care state (that used to provide the means for coping with the demands of professional work and child care) caused a decrease in one of the aspects of women empowerment expressed by their ability to manage their reproduction preferences and childcare with the paid employment (Grabowska, 2018, p.74-77, CBOS, 2013d).

The lowered stability of employment in contemporary Poland combined with the higher opportunities for women with either the profile of education valued by the current job market (allowing a professional career) or entrepreneurship (allowing running a successful business). The persisting unequal division of labour in the family (with women responsible for providing a lion share of the unpaid labour), made a higher number of children a significant factor decreasing empowerment of less successful women (Grabowska, 2018, p.74-77). The fear of inability to manage professional and private life has been reported to affect women's reproductive choices (CBOS, 2013d, CBOS, 2012b). It seems to be one of the key variables being an underlying cause or trigger for women's perpetration of the Intimate Partner Abuse. The Z-test of multiple proportions with Bonferroni adjustment found

that women with three or more children abused more often because of self-defence or protecting themselves and children, which would mean a reactive use of violence. They were also reported to abuse because of financial reasons, which may indicate the elevated level of financial strain (Balabukha et al., 2016) combined with lowered empowerment. In this situation, women's ability to leave the partner is decreased (as the number of women with a large number of children abusing their partners is significantly higher than the couples with the large number of children getting a divorce). The need to secure meeting the needs for safety and economic support of children may be one of the driving forces for the female use of the Intimate Partner Abuse.

7.2.2.3 Alcohol

Acting under the influence of alcohol

Perpetration of the Intimate Partner Abuse under the influence of alcohol was found to have an impact on the severity of the outcome (Hester et al., 2015). It also increased the chance of arrest during the incidents reported to the police for male and female perpetrators of the IPV, making three times more likely in case of the latter; and disproportionally more often than for the male perpetrator acting under the influence, at least in the N-E England (Hester, 2013).

Contrary to the findings of Hester (2013) whose analysis of police data in the N-E England found a large number of the male and female perpetrators abusing when under the influence of alcohol or drugs, the results of this study revealed a very small and significantly different percentage of the alleged perpetrators and victims were under the influence of alcohol during the violent events.

Lower prevalence of the perpetrators (and victims) acting under the influence of alcohol, the findings of this study are also dissimilar to the findings of Dobash et al. (2004) or Riggs and O'Leary (1989). They found a positive correlation between the alcohol use rates of the perpetration in the cases of the IPV against women. The comparison with research done in the similar cultural context of the

post-communist Ukraine (using the sample of young adults in higher education⁸²) and finding a relationship between alcohol use and emotional distress, financial strain and the women's IPV perpetration (O'Leary et al., 2008; Balabukha, et al., 2016), is also contradictory to the results of current research. However, the results may be influenced by choice of a sample as university students are likely to experience different strains to the couples with children.

The husband's drinking behaviour was reported as a reason for abuse in the research by Dobashes (1984), in 6 per cent of the agency and 5 per cent of the police samples. However, it was found to be an issue in 21 (in Lublin) and 24 per cent of cases (in Warsaw), suggesting that Polish couples find the drinking problem a substantial reason for marital conflict, resulting in the male partner perpetration, about five times as often as American couples. However, the more recent research would provide a comparison of higher reliability, as there has been a significant shift in the political-economic settings, and economic crash, that is likely to influence the occurrence of the alcohol-related issues. The research on men, who killed their intimate partners (Dobash et al., 2004) links the husband's alcohol or drug abuse with the increased risk of partner homicide. This doesn't seem to apply to the Polish criminal population of women reported for abusing their current or former intimate partners.

The **women's use of alcohol** was found to be a root of the female-perpetrated IPV in approximately 18 per cent of women arrested for the IPV in Rhode Island, US (Stuart et al., 2006). In Poland, woman's use of alcohol was reported to occur almost twice as often in Warsaw (30 per cent), and at an approximately similar rate (19 per cent) of the judicial system files of the women's IPV perpetration in Lublin. This may indicate the culturally or empowerment-driven differences, that would be worth exploring in the future.

⁸² University students from Kharkiv, Odessa and Cherkasy

The Z-test of multiple proportions revealed another interesting relationship between the alcohol-related issues and female perpetration of the IPA. Enlisting the accomplices for abuse perpetration or the choice of abusing alone seem to be related to which of the partners was reported to have problems with the excessive alcohol consumption. Women were found to abuse with the help of accomplices at significantly higher proportion when it was their partners had an alcohol problem; more than in cases when it was perpetrators who had an alcohol problem. This suggests greater acceptability of the female-perpetrated IPV in cases where men are seen as displaying morally wrong behaviours towards their families; to the point that the persons close to the perpetrator decide to “aid” her attempts to discipline her partner. It is also a sign of low trust in the institutions designated to help to address the problem of alcohol abuse, which is supported by the findings of the OBOP population poll of 2010. The population study was revealed that only 26 per cent of the victims of physical abuse, 23 per cent of the victims of psychological/verbal abuse, 20 per cent of victims of economic abuse, and 18 per cent of victims of sexual abuse seek help from the institutions and organisations dedicated to deal with it. The same is true for the perpetrators of domestic violence, only 8 per cent of who seek help when perpetrating the psychological abuse, 8 per cent when perpetrating economic abuse and 6 per cent when perpetrating physical abuse. However, a higher percentage of female perpetrators of psychological abuse admitting to seeking help (10 per cent, in comparison with 8 per cent in male perpetrators), none of the female perpetrations of economic abuse (17 per cent of male perpetrators), and 8 per cent of perpetrators of physical abuse (4 per cent of male perpetrators) tried to find help from the institutions designated to provide help (OBOP, 2010, p.150-155).

Another explanation can be that the families may resolve to deal with men-caused alcohol problems (and the possible financial strains it causes) in the private family settings to avoid the social stigma, as it was often the case under the communism (Grabowska, 2018; Klich-Kulczewska, 2015).

This study didn't analyse the social class (based on the income or level of education) the alleged perpetrators and/or victims to establish where the abuse was more prevalent, which is a recommendation for the future research projects.

7.2.2.4 Age and age differences between the partners

The age structure of male victims as well, and female perpetrators in both samples used in the study does not support the findings of Grandin and Lupri (2004). Their analysis of the male victimisation rates reported in the Statistics Canada Survey in 1999, concluded that younger men (25 to 34 years of age) are at four to five times risk of victimisation by the IPV, in comparison with the men of 45 years or older (Grandin and Lupri, 2004, p.4). Results of this study are also dissimilar to the findings of Dobash et al. (2004), who linked the increase of age in the female victims with the elevated risk of being killed by the intimate partner.

In this study, there was no significant difference of percentage of occurrence between the consecutive age groups of the alleged victims and perpetrators, which allows the conclusion that the male IPV victimisation does not significantly decrease with age of the victim. In this study, the violence was most commonly reported by men in their 50s and 40s, and 60s which makes the alleged victims older than the most commonly reported victims from the general population, where the largest group of male victims was in their 40s and 30s. The explanation of this phenomenon may be that these men decided to report victimisation after experiencing abuse for many years. This would be supported by the finding that the most commonly occurring categories for the length of abuse were 1-2 years (in 27 per cent of cases in Lublin and 21 per cent in Warsaw) and 3-4 years (in

21 per cent of cases in Lublin and 23 per cent in Warsaw), with the third most commonly occurring category being 5-6 years (in respectively 11 per cent of and 14 per cent of cases).

The alleged female perpetrators in this study were most commonly in their 30s and 50s and 40s, which makes them older than the perpetrators reported in the OBOP population poll, who were most often in their 30s and 40s⁸³. This would suggest differences in the length of abuse perpetration in the judicial system sample. Also, the presence of coercive control tactics, occurring in most of the cases suggest the ongoing pattern; the dynamics of which would require more in-depth and possibly face-to-face interviews with the perpetrators and victims to analyse them further.

The study by Dobash et al. (2004) concluded that the chance for a female victim of the IPV to be killed by the partner increases with the **age difference between the partners**.

The same mechanism seems to occur in the cases for the IPA against men, as the most common pattern of age difference in the couples this study was age disparity. The cases of men older than their partners occurred approximately 3.5 times more often than women being older than their partners. Partners of the same age contributed to less than 10 per cent of studied cases. When de-aggregating the age differences between the partners in the researched samples, the most commonly occurring were couples with men older than their partners for 1-2 (31 per cent of cases in Lublin and 19 per cent of cases in Warsaw) and 3-4 years (18 per cent and 31 per cent respectively). These couples were overrepresented when compared with the age differences of the newlyweds in the general Polish population in 2009, where the most common age difference was a man being older by year (in 14 per cent of cases), followed by both newlyweds being of the same age (in approximately 14 per cent of cases). The man is older by two years (in over 12 per cent of cases) (Szukalski, 2012, p.3), which suggests the age difference between the partners may be one of the

⁸³, which makes them more evenly spread in the criminal population.

constituents of differences in the power structure and consequence create the inequality between the man and woman, enabling men having more control over the family's resources, supporting the findings of Ackerson and Subramanian (2008), who found a link between the control of resources and perpetration of the IPV against women in India. How and to what degree the direction of inequality contributes to the female perpetration of IPA is recommended to be researched further.

7.2.2.5 Self-defence, defending children and perpetration of abuse

In the literature, **self-defence** is listed as a primary reason for female IPV perpetration in a number of studies, including the qualitative work by Hester (2012), examining police records in the N-E England, and Stuart et al. (2006) who analysed the responses of women arrested for the IPV and recruited in the batterer intervention programs by court referrals in Rhode Island. In the latter study, 39 per cent of perpetrators reported self-defence, in comparison with 29 per cent of the perpetrators in Lublin and 50 per cent in the Warsaw sample. This would suggest the differences in the abuse perpetration towards the women in two cities sampled in the current study. Another explanation would be different recognition of the IPV by male partners or differences in their empowerment, which could have affected their decision to report the use of force or controlling tactics against them. Alternatively, only the cases of the most extreme cases of abuse were reported to the Judicial System in Warsaw. The latter would be consistent with the findings of Stuart et al. (2006). They concluded that women are more likely to be arrested for the alleged partner abuse in the relationships they have been subjected to the severe IPV victimisation and decided to fight back. The degree to which this phenomenon applies to the IPA against heterosexual men in Polish settings needs further research.

Declaration of **defending children** from the partner's abuse, reported by the 9 per cent of respondents in Lublin and 10 per cent of respondents in Warsaw, was the least common reason for

the use of violence. The differences were statistically significant for the sample in Lublin ($p < 0.01$) but not in Warsaw ($p = 0.22$), possibly due to the differences in the sample size. This finding stands in contrast with the information from the published studies (e.g. Dobash and Dobash, 1992; Kellman and Mercy, 1992; Cascardi & Vivian, 1995; Barnett et al., 1997; George, 1994; Oglivie, 1996), most of which used the women from shelters or judicial system samples (e.g. Dobash and Dobash, 1992; Hamberger and Larsen, 2015; Bair-Meritt et al., 2010). Their results listed defending children as one of the common reasons for the female use of force towards their partners. This is yet another area that would benefit from further research to verify if the results are context-specific.

The results of multiple Z-test of pairwise comparison with Bonferroni adjustment allowed looking at the problem of self-defence and defending children from another perspective. Women who reported self-defence and/or self-defence and defending children abused with the accomplices significantly more often than when did so for other reasons. In the cases where they abused alone, they reported doing so because of protecting children or a combination of self-defence and protecting children less often than abusing for other reasons. This relationship was found out only in the cases where the couple had a large number of children (three and more) and occurred in all samples.

The only study by Figueredo et al. (2001) that linked the local kin density of women to their lower likelihood of IPV victimisation provides some evidence that a similar mechanism may be at work in Poland.

Some light on the matter is also shed by research on the recognition of IPV and willingness to help by the bystanders (e.g. Robertson and Murachver, 2009), which indicates that women are more likely to get help, if they are perceived as more vulnerable side of the conflict.

Additionally, a prevalent opinion of the low efficiency of the criminal justice system and other institutions in providing help to the female victims of the domestic abuse (OBOP, 2010) may be one of the reasons for the emergence of this phenomenon.

To investigate it further, an author strongly recommends repeating the research with a higher number of sampling places and possibly cross-cultural settings, including other post-communist countries.

7.2.2.6 Additional socioeconomic and other measurable characteristics and abuse risk factors

Jealousy and/or infidelity

Evolutionary psychology sees jealousy as an adaptive trait preventing or reducing partner's infidelity (Buss, 2013; Kaighobadi et al., 2009). Male jealousy and female infidelity were found to increasing the risk of femicide (Dobash et al., 2004); while possessiveness and jealousy have been confirmed to be the most common reason for the wife abuse among the women interviewed in the shelters (Dobash and Dobash, 1984). **Possessiveness and sexual jealousy** have been typically found in the 45 per cent of shelter and 12 per cent of police files in the American research by Dobash and Dobash (1984) conducted on the samples of battered women, as well as in 25 per cent of women referred for the batterer treatment in the Rhode Island (Stuart et al., 2006). In this study, female jealousy has been reported in 24 per cent of Lublin and Warsaw cases, which makes the rates similar to those in female-perpetrated American sample but lower than the general level of jealousy reported by the victimised women in the shelters. Male jealousy, as a reason for female use of violence, was reported at a slightly lower rate of 20 per cent in both samples in Poland, which makes its occurrence lower than expected. Reporting to the justice system cases where jealousy was the sole or one of the reasons for abuse might be affected by the fear of stigma and ridicule. The finding

that the general population poll (CBOS, 2011) reveals that extramarital affairs are seen by as much as 44 per cent of respondents as a sign that the partners are bored in the relationships or an indication of marital crisis (41 per cent of respondents), may suggest they are perceived as a reason less important than alcohol problems or economic abuse.

Dobash and Dobash (2004), in their analysis of causes for men murdering their intimate female partners (current or former), listed **infidelity** as one of the most important. Female infidelity, **actual or perceived** by their partners, was a cause of femicide in approximately 19 per cent of cases.

The results of this study recorded a lower rate of male victims' infidelity (which was confirmed in 14 per cent of Lublin and 12 per cent of Warsaw cases). However, after the cases of female's jealousy and male adultery were combined into one category, this was the reason for female-perpetrated IPV in approximately 25 per cent of cases in both Polish samples. This suggests a higher percentage of occurrence in cases of the female-perpetrated IPV. (In comparison, male jealousy and female adultery combined have been recorded in 28 per cent of cases in Lublin and approximately 25 per cent of cases in Warsaw- at approximately the same rate as for the female infidelity and male jealousy combined). This is still lower than the reporting the knowledge of acquaintances' flirtation (48 per cent) or cheating on the regular partner (38 per cent) that has been reported in the general Polish population in CBOS population poll in 2011. However, these findings, with the increase of the percentage of common-law marriages (Szukalski, 2014 p.64; Mynarska and Slowinska-Roslanowska, 2015, p. 126) and elevated divorce rate since the 1950s (Grabowska 2018, p. 79-80; GUS, 2018c; GUS, 2018d) suggest a shift in the contemporary marriage expectation and a rise of serial monogamy in the transitional Polish society.

Type of relationship

Since the highest percentages of IPV against the male partners occurred in marriages and marriages undergoing or planning for a divorce, the results of this study are dissimilar to the findings of others that living in the state-sanctioned relationships lowers the chance of the IPV victimisation (Dobash et al., 2004; Stets and Straus, 1989). If we tread the couples where the violence is reported as being in the process of (formal or informal) dissolution, this finding would then be consistent with the findings of Dobash et al. (2004) that an attempt of a partner to leave the relationship is one of the risk factors increasing the chance of victimisation. In the cases of the alleged female violence/abuse in Poland, about 1/3rd (30 per cent) of couples from Lublin and close to half (46 per cent) of those in Warsaw was in the process of breaking up. In contrast, close to 1/5th (22 per cent) of couples in Lublin and 1/12th (8 per cent) in Warsaw were divorced and 4 and 2 per cent separated. Thus, the nature of relationships in Lublin and Warsaw seems to be different, possibly driven by the rise of liberal values in the more cosmopolitan capital of the country quicker than in the more traditionally-living part of Poland.

The latter would be supported by the information on the cohabitations and former cohabitations. These contribute to the smallest percentage of results, 2 per cent in Lublin and 12 per cent in Warsaw. There is no reliable data that would allow a comparison with the general Polish population, and as such the author is unable to conclude if they are significantly different.

A high percentage of couples in which victimisation is reported by men who ended the relationships, suggests that in many cases, abuse does not stop when cohabitation stops. However, specifically to Poland, and perhaps other post-communist countries, in many cases the couple still lives in the same property after the separation, as they do not wish or cannot afford to move, which must have elevates the perpetration rates. The degree to which temporal separation of the former and soon-to-

be former partners decreases the rates of perpetration of the male-directed IPV would be an interesting phenomenon to explore in the future studies; possibly set in different cultural contexts.

Surprisingly, the findings from this study are consistent with those of other research on the victimisation of women who decided to leave a relationship (e.g. Dobash et al., 2004). Dobash and Dobash found that about 1/3rd of women murdered by their male current and/or former partners left the relationship. About 1/5th tried to leave, which can be explained by their patriarchal sense of the ownership and control over their women (e.g. Gilfus *et al.* 2010, Dobash and Dobash, 1979) and/or maintaining their superior position (Campbell *et al.*, 1992). In cases of the domestic abuse against male partners, some of who are in the process of leaving the relationship, other have left it, could be explained as women expressing a similar sort of entitlement towards their partners, using violence as a reaction to the men's sense of entitlement or using the violence as one of the coercive control tactics to exert power over one's partner (Walby and Towers, 2018). Since women were found to use coercive control tactics less often than men in general (Walby and Towers, 2018), one can argue that the judicial system sample may be skewed. It consists of a disproportionally large percentage of women using their power and manipulation not only to elicit resources needed for the upbringing of the couple's children but also to control the independent now lives of their partners. Since measuring coercive control is challenging, further research is recommended to address the phenomenon in a greater depth.

7.3 Types of violence/abuse

General abuse types and direction of violence

Physical violence against male partners has been found in a higher percentage of occurrence in the couples from Lublin and Warsaw than in the study of police statistics by Hester (2013) in N-E England. In Poland, respectively 75 and 80 per cent of men were victimised by it alone or in

combination with some form of control tactics. In contrast, the verbal abuse, with 83 per cent of male victims, was recorded as the most common reason the UK; with unidentified threats in 13 per cent of female abuse perpetration cases. Physical abuse was reported in 37 per cent of cases of female violence perpetration in England, making it the second most common type (Hester, 2013). The differences in the physical abuse perpetration in Lublin and Warsaw suggest differences in women empowerment. Since Warsaw, as a capital, has more opportunities for women to gain higher educational and professional status. As such more financial independence, one would expect a higher rate of empowered women. This would support Archer's positive link between the women empowerment and the rates of their IPV perpetration (Archer, 2006).

Verbal/psychological abuse, which could a form of a broader coercive controlling code of conduct, was experienced most often in the Polish sample of male IPV victims: 98 per cent of cases in both sampling places, in comparison with 83 per cent of verbal abuse and 11 per cent of harassment in the UK research by Hester (2013).

In the majority of cases in both sampling places (74 per cent in Lublin and 80 in Warsaw), the controlling behaviours were experienced jointly with physical abuse, which at a slightly lower rate than the found by Follingstad *et al.* (1990), who found it in 98 per cent of female victims of physical IPV in the agency sample.

Dual perpetration was found in the vast majority of cases (68 per cent in Lublin and 81 in Warsaw). This was contrary to the findings of Hester (2013). In the UK sample, Hester found dual perpetration in approximately 12 per cent of cases, which suggests that only certain types of cases make it to the judicial system in Poland. This is likely because of the lack of recognition by the victims or the stigma attached to male victimisation by their wives or ex-wives (OBOP, 2010).

With regards to the types of physical violence/abuse, the findings of this study were inconsistent with the results of Hester (2013). Her analysis of cases reported to the police in N-E England showed that men were likely to report abuse by their female partners in cases where the physical abuse was more severe. Data from Lublin do not support this finding at all, as the highest percentage of occurrence was in the several types of minor physical violence. Data from Warsaw is partially consistent with the results from the UK. Although the majority of violent acts reported can be classified as minor violence when aggregated, the threats of using a knife, sharp or heavy objects or a gun found in 34 per cent of cases from the Warsaw sample. This finding may show the differences in the social expectations of women in the two areas or be a sign of higher empowerment of women in Warsaw. Taking into consideration the difference in sample size, with Warsaw sample three times smaller than Lublin's, it may mean that only more extreme cases of abuse had been reported in Warsaw. A follow-up study on whether there are any differences in the way the judicial system addresses the incident reports in these two areas would be advisable.

There were no cases of sexual abuse reported to the Judicial System, which is consistent with extremely low rates of male victimisation admittance in the general population (OBOP, 2010), meaning that it may be still perceived as a stigma large enough to prevent its admittance because of fear of ridicule. Further study might allow putting this phenomenon in the Polish context.

A comparison between the types of physical violence experienced by women in the heterosexual relationships, who were seeking shelter and reporting to the police (Dobash, 1984) reveals that these who perpetrated the abuse against their partners in Poland used different forms of violence at a different rate. They were found to push and slap their partners more often (22 and 24 per cent for pushing in respectively Lublin and Warsaw, 30 and 28 per cent for slapping). Abusive men slapped and pushed their partners, or pulled them into non-injurious objects, in 15 per cent and in the police-

reported in 21 per cent of cases as reported by the American agency sample. However, after combining the category with pushing into injurious objects (in 4 and 16 per cent respectively) the percentages of occurrence in the Polish sample of violent women were similar. Punching on the face and body was the most commonly reported form of physical abuse towards women, occurred in the American sample in 45 of agency and 33 per cent of police records (Dobash and Dobash, 2004). In Poland, however women generally punched their partners on the body less often (in 20 and 28 per cent of cases) and even less often hit them with a fist on the face or ahead (13 and 18 per cent of cases). Kicking a female partner on the knee or butt was reported in 28 and 16 per cent of American cases (Dobash and Dobash, 2004) while kicking male partners on the body in 12 and 20 per cent while kicking male partner on the legs in 16 and 26 per cent in Poland, which indicates it might have been perpetrated at a similar rate in both populations.

Male perpetrators from the American sample (Dobash and Dobash, 2004) attempted to drown, smother or strangle their female partners (2 and 5 per cent of occurrence) at a similar rate to female perpetrators reported in Lublin (6 per cent) and higher than the rates of occurrence in Warsaw (where it was reported in 2 per cent of cases).

Hitting with weapons, reported at typically 5 per cent in the agency and 7 per cent rate in the police sample (Dobash and Dobash, 2004), occurred less often than when allegedly perpetrated by female partners in Poland (where it was found in 10 per cent of cases in Lublin and 16 per cent in Warsaw).

The differences between distinguishing of violence types in the American and Polish systems make the comparisons somewhat difficult. Since the American studies were published in 1984 and 2004, the social context most likely changed, affecting the accuracy of the comparison. Thus, a comparison with a more recent study and from another post-communist society would allow drawing more reliable conclusions.

Verbal/Psychological abuse and controlling behaviours

Verbal and/or psychological abuse and controlling behaviours had a higher prevalence than the physical abuse, or physical abuse and controlling behaviours combined. The least commonly occurring type of behaviour from the Power and Control Wheel, isolation (seen as deprivation of partner's autonomy, separating him from his friends and social support network to create the dependence on the abuser) occurred in 32 per cent in Lublin and 22 per cent in Warsaw. It was reported more often than the most of the prevalent forms of physical violence/abuse, except threats of using a knife, sharp/heavy objects or a gun (reported in 34 per cent in cases from Warsaw). Generally, various types of controlling behaviours, reported here as different forms of verbal/psychological abuse occurred more often than most types of physical abuse. Since the Gender Neutral Power and Control Wheel recorded several coercive control tactics used by the perpetrators, it provided a somehow contextualised view on the techniques used to exert control over the victims. Even though only the raw percentages of occurrence have been calculated, and the acts have not been scored for the frequency of occurrence, the results seem to be consistent with the findings of Antai (2011). His Nigerian study, consistent with the findings of Frye et al. (2006) on the American sample, found that the controlling behaviours of one partner act as precursors to the physical forms of abuse. The correlation, found in cases of the IPV against women, seems to apply to the cases of IPA against men in Poland. Additionally, the use of several coercive control tactics that tend to escalate over time may indicate a cycle of violence, in which the forms of control escalate over time (Walby and Towers, 2018). To investigate this further, the extension study would be recommended.

The Polish Penal code does not recognise Stark's model of coercive control. Though the coercive control tactics fulfil some of the descriptors of verbal/psychological abuse in the art.207.1 domestic

abuse, in cases where the incidents are not recognised as part of the pattern, they tend to be classified as threats, art.190 of PPC, bodily harm (art. 156) or severe bodily harm (art. 157 of PPC). Since the assumption is that an alleged perpetrator is innocent until proven guilty beyond a reasonable doubt, the credibility of the alleged victims can be treated with caution (Code of Criminal Procedure, 1997).

The Polish Judicial system seems to fail in recognition of the vast majority of controlling behaviours patterns. The dependency on one's partner, the ultimate proof of the control taking place, is most often seen as the lack of separate income, but not necessarily a disproportional control one partner has over the family budget. Another problem is the stereotypic perception of how a "real victim" of domestic violence/abuse "should" behave, especially during the criminal proceedings (Wrona, 2016, p.12, 20, Sledziwski, 2016, p. 158-162). One of the procedural issues that doesn't help in proving beyond a reasonable doubt the cycle of violence is taking place is that once the criminal case is concluded, a new incident of violence is likely to be treated as occurring for the first time and as such with no relation to the previous incidents. This is often the reason for changing legal classification of the reported domestic violence/abuse to the assault or threats (Wrona, 2016, Sledziwski, 2016). For example, this study found that in 4 per cent of Lublin and 16 per cent of Warsaw cases of the abuse, the PPC classification has been changed from the art.207 to bodily harm or threats, which are usually investigated as a private prosecution; especially if the physical damage doesn't result in the medical leave of longer than seven days. This often prevents the victims with low income from hiring an attorney and following-up the case, being one of the main points of attrition.

7.4 The theories best explaining the findings of this study

The results of this study seem to be best explained by the following theories about the roots of perpetration of intimate partner violence:

1. Family budget strains were reported as the most commonly occurring reason for violence/abuse and at a relatively high percentage. With the alcohol problems, of any of the partners, also a commonly reported reasons for the use of violence, they fulfil the descriptions of Level 2 (current life circumstances) of **the three-level model** listing the risk factors or causes of the IPV. Reading of the judicial systems case files provided the qualitative information on several precursors of aggression and acts seen as a provocation by the female partner (which has not been quantitatively recorded in this study) which fulfil the description of Level 3 (most immediate) reasons. Since the information about the personality traits, upbringing and childhood experience of very few perpetrators was accessible, there is an indication of some Level 1 risk factors; such as personality traits of the perpetrator, upbringing and childhood experience, alcohol use or mental problems.

2. Some of the findings support the **power and resource theories** because of the high occurrence of partners, with the income discrepancies rather than similar earnings prevalent in the couples. Also, a conflict regarding money matters was listed as a prevalent cause of violence that spilt to abuse. In the Polish society, with the traditional social roles and masculinity types, the focus on power and control over resources seem to be more prevalent than in the western countries. Men are traditionally seen as the resources providers, whose task is to meet the families' economic needs. Not fulfilling that social role may be one of the factors causing the strain within the relationships and in some cases triggering the abuse by female partners. Ethnological study by Ellis found a similar way of performing the male social role in the post-industrial and severely deprived urban areas,

which may mean this phenomenon is not confined to the typically Polish or post-communist settings (Ellis, 2016).

3. **The convergence theory** of women empowerment increasing the crime perpetration (Adler, 1975, Yih-Yaw and Gilles, 2004) is consistent with the results of this study. Which indicates that women with higher empowerment are overrepresented in the samples of IPV perpetrators in comparison with the general Polish population (Instytut Badan Naukowych, 2011), and use the potentially more harmful forms of abuse (such as attacking the partners with sharp or heavy objects). The finding that women with higher empowerment are overrepresented in both samples of alleged IPV perpetrators, and women from the Warsaw area (that offers more opportunities for higher women empowerment) are more likely to use the potentially most harmful forms of physical abuse also supports the cross-cultural findings of Archer (2006). However, there may be other cultural factors (e.g. cultural norms and expectations) that prevent reporting of the IPV perpetrated by women of lower empowerment that should be addressed in future research.

The abuse was reported at a higher rate by more educated men, many of whom earned more than their partners. This made them more privileged, which may suggest they had fewer reservations contacting the police; being perhaps less restrained by the norms of hegemonic masculinity.

5. **Evolutionary frameworks** seem to be the least useful in providing the explanation of the findings of this research. However, there is an indication they can be useful in addressing the problem from the blended evolutionary and social perspectives if the methodology of the study was more adjusted for it, and detailed information e.g. regarding the influence of local kin density on the aiding in female IPA perpetration recorded. Not enough data was collected in this study to make conclusions regarding the ultimate reasons for the female IPV perpetration. However, some findings indicate that the sexual jealousy and infidelity of either male or female partner should be investigated further, including the wider context. The problem of large number of children and possible use of abuse to elicit parental investment from the partner could benefit from more in-depth research.

Finally, the theory of intimacy with the target needs the additional information on the overall level of aggression in female perpetrators expressed in domestic and external settings, in order to make a valid comparison.

7.5 Methodological and theoretical limitations of this study

Mixed method approach, although having a number of advantages also incorporates some limitations.

It allowed the identification of several variables not originally taken into consideration. Assigning them with numerical values, turning qualitative data into quantitative allowed further statistical analysis in search for the significant differences and allows identifying the correlations. At the same time, this approach limited the information about context of the violent acts.

Enriching the data base by the additional variables, identified as recurring themes in the note taking section of the pro forma, provided some unexpected and valuable information about modes and some context of the abuse perpetration as well as the response of Polish Judicial System. However the resulting large number of variables forced the author to select only the most promising for further analysis, all to manage the growing scope of study. Although the decision was made after the careful consideration of the previous research in the subject, this may have resulted in missing some of the potentially important findings and associations.

Gender-neutral Power and Control Wheel as the means of recording the coercive control tactics, although proved to be a useful way to identify and record them, relied on the researcher's understanding of the behaviours reported. As such, only reported behaviours were identified and recorded for further analysis. Additionally, there is always a chance that despite the best efforts, some of the behaviours were classified erroneously.

Similar situation occurred with the classification of reasons for abuse; as it was based on the context of situations reported and described during the judicial systems interviews.

All reports of abuse were treated as truthful, which is the principle used by feminist researchers such as Marianne Hester (2013). Despite the literature identifying the false accusations to contribute to a small percentage of reports (Mazeh and Widrig, 2016), there is always a danger that including the potentially false reports skewed the results reported making them less valid.

Personal and sensitive nature of the studied topic meant that some information may not have been disclosed in the course of the judicial system interviews. The author realises that some victims might have felt ashamed or feared of being ridiculed. Other might have lacked recognition that the behaviours they were subjected to were constituents of abuse; which often happens in case of controlling behaviours or surpassing the memories of traumatic events. A good example is that sexual abuse has not been reported in any of the cases.

The research was based on the interviews conducted by the professionals working for the judicial system in Poland. Further interviews, conducted by the researcher herself may have allowed more in-depth investigation of the themes not explored by the police officers, prosecutors or judges. However, all interviews included in the analysis were sufficiently detailed to allow data analysis.

Despite using the consecutive sampling and non-probability method, which meant including all of the cases found, the sample size differs considerably between both sampling places. This lowered the reliability of Warsaw sample and likely affected the validity of conclusions made on its basis.

Not including the qualitative contextual information in data analysis might have caused the recognition of some cultural differences in the two parts of the country from where the samples were drawn.

Lack of previous, especially quantitative, research on the topic made the comparison of data and discussion of results heavily relying on the findings of the research on IPV/abuse of female victims. Since intimate partner abuse and controlling behaviours are gender specific, the accuracy of conclusions may be only verified by the further research on the topic; preferably done in a similar cultural context of a post-communist country.

Theoretical limitations

The explanation of the phenomenon researched in this study is limited by the theories used to do so. Although the theory of financial strain and three-level model seem to be the most comprehensive explanation, there are still areas of it the data from this study could not be explained by this model because of the sample type and specifications. For example, very few case files provided the information about family of origin of the alleged perpetrator or the history of her (or her partner's) mental problems. This made the application of three-level model only partially successful.

The other theories provided equally valid explanations, even if limited to only some aspects of the findings.

The application of theory of gender convergence to the perpetration of IPV by women, even if in most cases the violence was bi-directional, opens a whole new ground to exploration to what degree the female violence perpetration becomes similar to the male perpetration of the IPV against women. And what the degree of similarity depends upon. Because of the methodological limitations of this study's sample type, that aspect can be explored to only a limited degree, as the sample consisted

of only female perpetrators and there should be a sample of male, drawn from the same cultural settings to make a valid comparison.

The power and resource theory provides only a partial explanation of the results. Although some variables give a good indication of power imbalance in the aspects researched, the sample gives very little indication of the dominant type of masculinity, which can be related to the need for exerting power over one's partner. The sample also doesn't consist enough information to allow drawing valid conclusion on the local differences in gender roles between different parts of Poland.

Evolutionary frameworks seem to be the least helpful in providing the explanation of the underlying causes of the female-perpetrated and male-directed IPV in the analysis of these particular samples. A promising theory of intimacy with the target could not be tested as the case files very rarely include the information about the level of aggression or perpetration of aggressive behaviours of the alleged perpetrators outside their relationships.

Information provided by the sample type is insufficient to apply most of the evolutionary frameworks. However, some of the findings, such as the conditions under which women are more likely to enlist accomplices in the perpetration of IPA indicate the link with the findings of evolutionary psychologists, in this instance Figueredo's study (2001) linking the local kin density reducing a change of victimization of women by their partners suggests evolutionary factors. However, this kind of information would need to be included in the case files to be able to draw conclusions about the significance of kin density.

7.5. 1 Theoretical contributions

This study made several theoretical contributions to the general body of research.

Apart from adding to the underresearched topic of female perpetration of DV, it has also been one of the very first project investigating the phenomenon in the Polish context, and a study of this scope. It is also the first so comprehensive study of female IPA perpetration in a post-communist country. The results may be highly cultural specific, thus they can serve as a comparison for the future studies from the post-communist countries as most of the published studies were conducted in the western settings and may not be a valid comparison, done in a different the economic, political and cultural context.

It is also a first known study where the analysis of what kinds of triggers or underlying causes can justify the accomplices' aid in the female perpetration of the IPV by her kin and friends was conducted, not only the bystanders in the Polish settings.

7.6 Implications of the study and recommendation for further research

Implications

More studies need to be done in the topic of female Intimate Partner Abuse perpetration to further our understanding of the phenomenon. The context of behaviours, as much as its conduct needs to be understood to provide the sufficient counselling to the perpetrators as well as its victims. Studies in different cultural contexts would allow the conclusion whether the phenomenon is specific to the post-communist countries or universal, and if so – to what degree.

Further investigation of the response of Polish Judicial System in cases of the alleged male IPA victimisation would allow the intervention plan aiding to improve the response and make it more effective.

The knowledge of procedural shortcomings and further study of the points of attrition would allow identification of areas for improvement and training of the employees serving as the first point of contact for the victims as well as those conducting and concluding the investigations. An enhancement of the understanding the problem by employees of the Polish Judicial System, followed by the training provided to the police officers and prosecutors would prepare them better for dealing with the victims reporting abuse in more caring and professional manner.

The agency approach, including modification of the Code of Criminal Procedure may follow. Finally, further and more comprehensive research may allow the improvement of the recognition of abuse by the Polish Penal Code.

This and the further studies of the topic in may result in setting the treatment programs for the female perpetrators of the IPV as well as its male victims, which are currently unavailable in Poland.

Raising awareness of the general public as well as the professionals would benefit the general public perception of the female IPV perpetration and male victimisation, resulting in its wider recognition and fewer stigmas attached to it. This could lead to, a cultural shift towards recognition and wider acceptance of different, less hegemonic masculinity types.

Identifying the regional variances in the context of the abuse, and understanding of victimisation/perpetration of various forms of IPV, is a step towards better understanding of female use of coercive control.

Recommendations for the further research

This study helped to outline a number of areas for the further research.

Further studies on bi-directions abuse and identification of the primary perpetrator (or perpetrator and his or her victim) would be recommended to improve the efficiency of treatment as well as the judicial system efficiency in dealing with cases of not-so-typical cases of domestic violence/abuse.

This would enhance the level of trust Poles have in the effectiveness and fairness of their Justice System. It, in turn, could minimise the number of cases where frustrated victims (of whichever sex) or their kin decided to “take the matter into their own hands” to help resolving the conflict, which often seem to result in its escalation.

Since male victims of domestic abuse were identified to be a minority and a marginalised group falling into the justice system gap, further research on the course of criminal proceedings in the cases of alleged male victimisation by the IPV and points of attrition would aid closing the gap and provide the access to fair treatment by the police, prosecution and the courts.

Identifying the consequences of the IPV against men, perhaps in the form of a longitudinal study, could be used to compare its consequences with the physical and mental health consequences the IPV has for female victims.

Repetition of the study, using a larger sample or several samples, and looking at the features identified by this research as possible key variables would allow the validation of this study, providing verification whether the correlations found were causal or coincidental.

Follow-up research would also provide more information of the underlying causes of triggers for female-perpetrated Intimate Partner Abuse and male victimisation, at least in the context of the post-communist Polish society and during the rise of neoliberal capitalism.

Investigating these key features related to the perpetration of the female IPV in different cultural context would also help indentifying whether there is a link between the politics, economy, neoliberal capitalism and incidence, perpetration and motives of female-perpetrated IPV.

An investigation of reasons for men withdrawing complaints, and comparing them with the reasons women decided to withdraw complaints in the criminal investigation of the IPV; often asking the police to let partner off with a verbal warning, would help to understand the differences in perception of victimisation, or managing an abusive relationship between the sexes.

7.7 Conclusions

The analysis of data on cases of female Intimate Partner Abuse perpetration revealed several themes

1. Male victimisation by the IPV in the heterosexual relationships is lower than female victimisation by it. There is a higher recognition of occurrence of the female-perpetrated and male partner-directed IPA in the general population (OBOP, 2010) than is reported to the Polish Judicial System (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019). The real occurrence of this type of abuse is unknown and depends on a number of factors: men recognising themselves as victims of the IPV, and overcoming the fear of ridicule when reporting, as well as the lack of trust in the efficiency of resolution of this types of cases by the judicial system being among the possibly most common (OBOP, 2010). However, the number of cases reported to the police has been growing between the years 2006 and 2011 and is growing still (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019).

This could have been caused by the changes in perception and context of violence, as with a series of socio-economical changes, lowered job security and arising new challenges (Bystydzienski, 2005 p.241-242) but also new opportunities for women (Parysek, 2004), the traditional social role of a man

as a breadwinner is changing (Grabowska, 2018). The interviews also give some indication of the changes in most dominant masculinity types, and gender roles, which may be one of the causes of strain between the partners.

2. Some of the measurable characteristics and reasons for violence have been recognised as increasing the risk of abuse.

Most of them indicate the increased economic strains and power imbalance between the partners, which has been found the most prevalent cause of women's perpetration of domestic abuse.

These are as follows:

- a. Age and relative income differences between the partners, with men being older than women and earning more than them, indicate the lower women empowerment in the relationship
- b. Large number of children, which speaks of the elevated financial needs and lower likelihood of divorce, indicating that abuse might appear a somewhat reasonable tactic used to elicit man's financial investment to meet the family needs. Enlisting the accomplices to the abuse perpetration in the families with three and more children, in the cases when men were reported to fail to meet the family economic need, or showing aggression towards a woman and her children, seems to support this view.
- c. High empowerment of a perpetrator expressed as a high level of education. However, the results are unclear in Warsaw and suggest two groups of perpetrators, one with the low educational attainment, which would suggest other triggers or using abuse as the means to express empowerment.
- d. Alcohol problems of either of the partners (although no drug abuse has been recorded), with women's alcohol problems reported more often than men's in Warsaw, and at the similar rate in Lublin. The percentage of women's alcohol problem in Lublin being similar to the one reported in

Rhode Island, US in 2006 (Stuart, 2006). However, most incidents occur when both partners were sober.

e. Women feeling under attack from their partners and acting in self-defence, however this was reported in Lublin less often than in Warsaw (29 in comparison with 50 per cent of cases). The reason for differences needs to be explained further, although it is somewhat consistent with the findings of Ackerson and Subramanian (2008) linking the elevated risk of female IPV victimisation with the men seeing the rise of women's empowerment as their own loss of status. However, this cannot be confirmed without a further study.

f. Surprisingly sexual female jealousy and male adultery is reported at the lower-than-expected rate, while male jealousy and female adultery, reported at the lower rate than in the general Polish population (CBOS, 2011). It can, however be seen as one of the triggers for female-perpetrated abuse.

3. Polish Judicial System response proved to have lower effectiveness in investigating the cases of female-perpetrated IPA, because of the long time of the proceedings and approximately 100 per cent attrition rate. It responds mainly the extreme form of physical abuse and the recognition of the patterns and controlling behaviours seems to be poor. In many cases there was reluctance to interview the witnesses or even the alleged perpetrator; more so in Lublin (in 32 per cent of cases) than in Warsaw (in 22 per cent of cases). Similar reluctance was seen with interviewing the witnesses. Polish Judicial System seems to operate on the prevalent stereotypes of victimhood, and as such it very unlikely for the cases of female-perpetrated IPV towards their male partners to be concluded other than discontinued. The vast majority of the victims don't appeal the verdict.

4. The results indicate a number of differences between the samples from Lublin and Warsaw, possibly due to the cultural differences or different social context. Differences in women empowerment might, but do not have to, explain them. In Lublin, the recognition or reporting of the incidents is highest for the group of perpetrators with highest level of education, significantly higher than the levels in the general Polish population. This may mean the higher rates of perpetration, higher levels of recognition or reporting. In Warsaw, women with highest and lowest levels of education were reported most often (and at the same rate), which suggest the differences that would be worth addressing further.

5. The analysis of modes of abuse perpetration revealed that in most cases the coercive control tactics occurred with or without the presence of physical violence. This seems to support the findings by Walby and Towers (2018) that psychological or verbal abuse is a training ground from which it escalates to include the physical violence as well.

Since no sexual abuse has been reported, it was either non-existing or undisclosed.

In most cases, bi-directional abuse was reported. This suggests that it occurred in the couples that had a high level of violence, used as a conflict resolution tactic; or that some women used reactive violence to deter the abusive partner. The sample type makes impossible to distinguish between the types.

Abuse continued a relatively long or very long time before it was reported. The presence of physical violence, with or without the coercive control tactics occurring in 75 per cent of cases in Lublin and 82 per cent of cases in Warsaw, indicates a high reluctance of the victims to do so unless the situation becomes serious. This is true especially in Warsaw, where the threats of using a knife,

sharp or heavy object (possession of firearms being very rare) occurred in the 39 per cent of all cases.

Theoretical implications and recommendations

With more women being reported to use domestic violence/abuse in the general Polish population (OBOP, 2010) and in the Judicial System in the recent years (Statystyka Policyjna, 2019), there need arises to develop a trustworthy assessment of the scale of the problem as well as the way to identify when women use self-defence and where they embody the coercive control tactics.

This study, hopefully the first of many, identified the areas for the further research and assessment in hope that in time such a diagnostic tool could be developed.

The author firmly believes that merging the sociological and evolutionary frameworks to understand the persistence and reasons for female use of the Intimate Partner Abuse is the way forward, because of humans being a species shaped by the process of biological evolution as well forces acting on an individual in the society. Since the human behaviour is shaped by the number of forces (Daly and Wilson, 1993), in order to provide the most holistic explanation of it, including root causes as well as triggers of female-perpetrated IPA, one needs to look at different forces that may be responsible for driving it and draw upon different sciences to do so.

Bibliography

- Acharya, A.S. et al. (2013). Sampling: Why and how of it?, *Indian Journal of Medical Specialities*; 4(2); 330-333. DOI: [10.7713/ijms.2013.0032](https://doi.org/10.7713/ijms.2013.0032)
- Ackerson, L.K., Subramanian, S.V. (2008). State Gender Inequality, Socioeconomic Status and Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) in India: A Multilevel Analysis, *Australian Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 43, No.1 p. 81-102. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/10.1002/j.1839-4655.2008.tb00091.x>
- Adamska, L., Jarosz, B., Lisowska, E. (2009). Kobiety w spółkach rynku kapitałowego, Raport. [Women in the capital market companies]. Kongres Kobiet Polskich, Kobiety dla Polski, Polska dla Kobiet. 20 lat transformacji 1989-2009. Fundacja Feminoteka. Retrieved from: www.kongreskobiet.pl
- Adler, F. (1975). *Sisters in crime: The rise of the new female criminal*. New York, NY, US: McGraw-Hill.
- Akram, N. (2017). Women's Empowerment in Pakistan: Its Dimensions and Determinants, Springer Science + Business Media BV, part of Springer Nature 2017, <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11205-017-1793-z>
- Ali, P.A., Naylor, P.B. (2013). Intimate partner violence: A narrative review of the feminist, social and ecological explanations for its causation. *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 18, 611-619. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2013.07.009>
- Anderson, K. (1997). Gender, Status, and Domestic Violence: An Integration of Feminist and Family Violence Approaches. *Journal of Marriage and Family* Vol. 59, No. 3 (Aug., 1997), pp. 655-669. DOI: [10.2307/353952](https://doi.org/10.2307/353952)
- Antai, D. (2011). Controlling behavior, power relations within intimate relationships and intimate partner physical and sexual violence against women in Nigeria. *BMC Public Health* 11, 511. doi: [10.1186/1471-2458-11-511](https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-11-511). Retrieved from: <https://bmcpublihealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2458-11-511>
- Ambroziak, A. (2019). Demograficzna kłapa 500 plus. W 2018 urodziło się tylko 388 tys. Zmarło 414 tys., najwięcej od 1946 roku [Demographic failure of 500+ programme] Retrieved from: <https://oko.press/demograficzna-klapa-500-plus-w-2018-urodzilo-sie-tylko-388-tys-zmarlo-414-tys-najwiecej-od-1946-r/>
- Archer, J. (2000). Sex Differences in Aggression between Heterosexual Partners: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Psychological Bulletin* 126(5):651-80. DOI: [10.1037/0033-2909.126.5.651](https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.5.651)
- Archer, J. (2004). Sex Differences in Aggression in Real-World Settings: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Review of General Psychology* 8(4), 291-322. DOI: [10.1037/1089-2680.8.4.291](https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.8.4.291)
- Archer, J. (2006). Cross-Cultural Differences in Physical Aggression Between Partners: A Social-Role Analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*. doi:[10.1207/s15327957pspr1002](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1002)
- Atkinson, M. P. et al. (2005). For Women, Breadwinning Can Be Dangerous: Gendered Resource Theory and Wife Abuse. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, Volume 67, Issue 5, 1137-1148. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2005.00206.x>

- Austin, W.G. (2000) Assessing Credibility in Allegations of Marital Violence in the High-Conflict Child Custody Case. *Family and Conciliation Court Review*, Vol. 38 No.4, 462-477, Sage Publications.
- Bair-Merritt, M.H., et al, 2010, Why to women use Intimate Partner Violence? *A Systematic Review of Women's Motivations, Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, October 2010, Vol.11(4), 178-189
- Balabukha, I, et al, 2016, Intimate Partner Violence Perpetrated by Young Adult Women Against Men in Ukraine: Examining Individual, Familiar and Cultural Factors. *Aggressive Behavior*, Volume 42, 380-393
- Bandura, A. (1971). Social learning theory. New York: General Learning Press.
- Bandura, A. (1973). Aggression: A social learning analysis. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall .
- Barnett, O.W., et al. (1997). Gender differences in attributions of self-defense and control in interpartner aggression. *Violence Against Women*. 1997 Oct;3(5), 462-81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801297003005002>
- Baza statystyk Międzynarodowych. (2014). Data from The World Bank. Retrieved from: https://www.google.pl/publicdata/explore?ds=d5bncppjof8f9 &met_y=sp_dyn_tfrt_in&hl=pl&dl=pl&idim=countr y:POL:DEU:RUS
- Beck, C. J. A. et al. (2009). Validation of a Measure of Intimate Partner Abuse with Couples Participating in Divorce Mediation, *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage* 50(5), 295-308. DOI: 10.1080/10502550902766399
- Bell, K., Naugle, A. (2008). Intimate Partner Violence Theoretical considerations: Moving forward towards a contextual framework. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 28, 1096-1107
- Benson, M. et al. (2003). Neighborhood Disadvantage, Individual Economic Distress and Violence Against Women in Intimate Relationships. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, September 2003, Volume 19, Issue 3, pp 207–235. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1024930208331>
- Bhandari, A. et al. (2008). Experiences of abortion in Nepal and menstrual regulation in Bangladesh: A gender analysis. *Gender and Development* 16(2):257-272. DOI:10.1080/13552070802120434
- Bialy, W. (2004). Życie na kartki, Gazeta Wyborcza Lublin. Retrieved from: <http://lublin.wyborcza.pl/lublin/1,48724,1855098.html>
- Black, T. R. (2002). Understanding social science research. London, : SAGE Publications, Ltd doi:10.4135/9780857020208
- Błaszczuk, A. (2019). Zarządy firm. Kobiety chcą robić karierę, ale raczej bez wsparcia parytetów [Women want a career but without the gender quotas]. *Ścieżki Kariery, Rzeczpospolita*. Retrieved from: <https://www.rp.pl/Sciezki-kariery/307079945-Zarzady-firm-Kobiety-chca-robic-kariere-ale-raczej-bez-wsparcia-parytetow.html>
- Blicharz, J. (2014). Kilka uwag na temat ubóstwa kobiet w Polsce [A few remarks on the poverty of women in Poland], in: Ubóstwa w Polsce, p.39-46. *Prace Naukowe Wydziału Prawa, Administracji i Ekonomii Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego*, Biblioteka Cyfrowa Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego. Retrieved from: www.bibliotekacyfrowa.pl/Content/51728/03_Jolanta_Blicharz.pdf

Brebner, J. (2003). Gender and emotions. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34(3), 387-394.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(02\)00059-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00059-4)

Brzozowska, M. (2011). Czy w Polsce można przeprowadzić aborcję? – sprawa Alicji Tysiąc [Is abortion in Poland even possible? The case of Alicja Tysiac]. 18 lat polki.pl. Retrieved from:
<https://polki.pl/zdrowie/prawa-pacjenta,czy-w-polsce-mozna-przeprowadzic-aborcje-sprawa-alicji-tysiac,10359710,artykul.html>

Bunda, M. (2018). Gwałt na nas wszystkich [Rape on us all], *Polityka*, Retrieved from:
<https://www.polityka.pl/tygodnikpolityka/kraj/259000,1,gwalt-na-nas-wszystkich.read>

Buss, D.M. (2013). Sexual jealousy. *Psychological Topics* 22,2, 155-182

Buss, D.M. (2008). Evolutionary psychology : the new science of the mind, Upper Saddle River, N.J. : Pearson Education Ltd. 2008 3rd International ed.. ISBN : 9780205694396 (pbk.)

Buss, D.M. (1994). Evolution of Desire: Strategies of Human Mating. Basic Books

Bystydziński, J. (2005). Negotiating the New Market: Women, Families, Women's Organizations and the Economic Transition in Poland. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, Vol. 26 (2) p. 239-265. DOI:
[10.1007/s10834-005-3524-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10834-005-3524-x)

Campbell, A., Muncer, S., & Coyle, E. (1992). Social representation of aggression as an explanation of gender differences: A preliminary study. *Aggressive Behavior*, 18(2), 95-108. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337\(1992\)18:2<95::AID-AB2480180203>3.0.CO;2-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/1098-2337(1992)18:2<95::AID-AB2480180203>3.0.CO;2-5)

Campbell, A. (2006). Sex differences in direct aggression : what are the psychological mediators? *Aggression and violent behaviour*, 11 (3), 237-264. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2005.09.002>

Cascardi, M., Vivian, D. (1995). Context for specific episodes of marital violence: Gender and severity of violence differences. *Journal of Family Violence* 10(3),265-293. DOI: [10.1007/BF02110993](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02110993)

Carmo, R., Grams, A., & Magalhães, T. (2011). Men as victims of intimate partner violence. *Journal of forensic and legal medicine*, 18(8), 355-9. Elsevier Ltd. doi:10.1016/j.jflm.2011.07.006

Carney, M. et al. (2006). Women Who Perpetrate Intimate Partner Violence: A Review of the Literature With Recommendations for Treatment. *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 12(1):108-115.
 DOI:10.1016/j.avb.2006.05.002

Carroll, J.S. et al (2010). Relational Aggression in Marriage. *Aggressive Behavior*, Volume 36, 315-329.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20349>

Centrum Badań Opinii Społecznej CBOS (1994). Polacy o prawnym zakazie przerywania ciąży [Opinions on the abortion restrictions in Poland] Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badań Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2005). Nowe się cofa [The new is retreating], BS/044/05.
 Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2009a). Aspiracje i motywacje edukacyjne Polaków w latach 1993-2009 [Aspirations and motivations for education in the years 1993-2009 in Poland], BS70/2009. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2009b). Przemoc i konflikty w domu [Conflicts and abuse at home] BS/35/2009. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2011). Zdrady i romanse [Cheating and affairs] BS/90/2011. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2012a). Opinie o finansowaniu kościoła [Opinions on the financing of the Catholic Church] BS/63/2012. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2012b). Potrzeby prokreacyjne Polaków oraz preferowany i realizowany model rodziny [Reproduction preferences and the reality]. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2012c). Przemoc i konflikty w domu [Conflicts and abuse at home] BS/92/2012. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2012d). Opinie o prawie aborcyjnym [Opinions on the abortion law]. BS/160/2012. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS. (2013a). Czy warto było zmieniać ustroj? [Was it worth to change the political system?] BS/73/2013. Społeczna ocena przemian po 1989 roku. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2013b). Równouprawnienie płci? [Equal rights?] BS/31/2013. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2013c). Doświadczenia aborcyjne Polek. [Abortion experience of Polish women] BS/60/2013. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS (2013d). Postawy prokreacyjne kobiet. [Attitudes to reproduction among women]. BS/29/2013. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS. (2018). Religijność Polaków i ocena sytuacji Kościoła katolickiego [Religiousness and opinions about the situation of Catholic Church in Poland] Nr/148/2018. Społeczna ocena przemian po 1989 roku. Retrieved from: www.cbos.pl

Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej CBOS. (2020). Często zadawane pytania [Frequently asked questions]. Retrieved from: <https://www.cbos.pl/PL/faq/faq.php>

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2007). Kobiety w Polsce [Women in Poland]. Zakład Wydawnictw Statystycznych Warszawa. ISBN 978-83-7027-417-7

Centrum Informacji Kryzysowej w Lublinie (CiK). (2015). Jak pomagamy? [How do we help?]. Retrieved from: <http://www.cik.lublin.eu/>

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2018a). Births and Fertility Rate in 2017. Warszawa. Retrieved from: <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/ludnosc/ludnosc/urodzenia-i-dzietnosc,34,1.html>

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2018c). Concise Statistical Yearbook of Poland 2018. Warszawa. Retrieved from: www.stat.gov.pl

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2018c). Demographic Yearbook of Poland 2018. Warszawa. Retrieved from: <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/roczniki-statystyczne/roczniki-statystyczne/rocznik-demograficzny-2018,3,12.html>

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2002) Demographic Yearbook of Poland 2003. Zakład Wydawnictw Statystycznych Warszawa.

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2018d). Demographic situation in Poland up to 2017. Births and fertility. Retrieved from: <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/ludnosc/ludnosc/sytuacja-demograficzna-polski-do-2017-roku-urodzenia-i-dzietnosc,33,1.html>

Central Statistical Office (GUS). (2018e). Kobiety i mężczyźni na rynku pracy [Men and women on the job market]. Retrieved from: <https://stat.gov.pl/obszary-tematyczne/rynek-pracy/pracujacy-zatrudnieni-wynagrodzenia-koszty-pracy/roznice-w-wynagrodzeniach-kobiet-i-mezczyzn-w-polsce-w-2016-r,12,2.html>

Centrum Praw Kobiet. (2020). Mąż bije żonę. Polacy na to: milcz! A Kościół? Retrieved from: <https://cpk.org.pl/media/maz-bije-zone-polacy-na-to-milcz-a-kosciol/>

CIA. (2018) The World Factbook. Retrieved from: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/download/download-2018/index.html>, on 01.07.2019

Ciesla, J. (2009). Parytety w polityce, *Polityka*. Retrieved from: <https://www.polityka.pl/tygodnikpolityka/kraj/300027,1,parytety-w-polityce.read?page=64&moduleId=4677>

Charkiewicz, E. (2010). Kobiety i ubóstwo –widzialna reka neoliberalnego państwa. [Women and poverty; an unseen hand of neoliberal state]. *Biblioteka Online Think Thanku Feministycznego*, Retrieved from: www.ekologiasztuka.pl/pdf/f0102charkiewicz2010.pdf

Chelstowska, A. (2009). Udział kobiet w gremiach decyzyjnych. [Women's participation in decision making bodies]. In: Kongres Kobiet Polskich, Kobiety dla Polski, Polska dla Kobiet. 20 lat transformacji 1989-2009, 203-210. Fundacja Feminoteka,. Retrieved from: www.kongreskobiet.pl

Chester, D.S, DeWall, N. (2018). The roots of intimate partner violence. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 19: 55-59, Science Direct

Childbirth with Dignity Foundation. (2018). Nowy Standard Organizacyjny Opieki Okoloporodowej. [New standard of perinatal care] Retrieved from: <https://www.rodzicpoludzku.pl/Aktualnosci/Nowy-Standard-Organizacyjny-Opieki-Okoloporodowej.html>

Code of Criminal Procedure (Kodeks Postępowania Karnego). (1997). *Dziennik Ustaw* 1997 nr 89 poz. 555. Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU19970890555>

Coker, A. L, et al, 2002, Physical and mental health effects of intimate partner violence for men and women. *American Journal of Preventative Medicine*, Volume 23, Issue 4, 260-268, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-3797\(02\)00514-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-3797(02)00514-7); retrieved on 30/03/2019

- Coleman, D.H., Straus, M.A. (1986). Marital power, conflict and violence in a nationally representative sample of American Couples. *Violence and Victims* 1 (2), 141-157, DOI:10.1891/0886-6708.1.2.141
- Connell, R. W., Messerschmidt, J. W. (2005). Hegemonic Masculinity: *Rethinking the Concept*. *Gender & Society*, 19(6), 829–859. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243205278639>
- Connelly, L.M. (2013). Limitation Section, *Medsurg nursing*, Vol.22 (5), p.325-356, Jannetti Publications, Inc, Gale Academic OneFile. Accessed 6 Oct. 2020.
- Contraceptioninfo.eu. (2019). Contraception Atlas. 2019. European Parliamentary Forum for Sexual & Reproductive Rights (EPF) Retrieved from: <https://www.contraceptioninfo.eu/node/72>
- Cross, C. P., Campbell, A. (2011). Women's aggression. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 16(5), 390-398. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2011.02.012>
- Cross, C.P. (2011). Sex differences in direct aggression: The Role of Impulsivity, Target Sex and Intimacy with the Target. Doctoral Thesis, Durham University. Retrieved from: <http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/724/>
- Cross, C.P, Campbell, A. (2012). The effect of Intimacy and Target Sex on Direct Aggression: Further Evidence. *Aggressive Behavior*, Volume 38, 272-280
- Crown Prosecution Services. (2009). CPS Policy for Prosecuting Cases of Domestic Violence, 1-86. Retrieved from: <https://www.cps.gov.uk/publication/domestic-abuse>
- Crown Prosecution Service. (2013). Domestic Violence. Retrieved from: http://www.cps.gov.uk/publications/prosecution/domestic/domv_guidance.htm#a17
- Cuenca M, et al. (2018). Agreement on reporting acts of aggression in couples in a community sample. *Psicothema*, May 2018, Vol.30(2), 189-194
- Cyma-Konska, D. (2012). Interwencja policyjna wobec przemocy w rodzinie. Materiały Dydaktyczne 76, 1-44. Centrum Szkolenia Policji, Legionowo.
- Daly, M., Wilson, M. (1993). An Evolutionary Psychological Perspective on Male Sexual Proprietariness and Violence Against Wives, *Violence and Victims*, Vol. 8, No 3, p.271-294
- Dasgupta, S. D. (2002). A Framework for Understanding Women's Use of Nonlethal Violence in Intimate Heterosexual Relationships. *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 8, Issue 11, 1346-1389. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107780102237408>
- Dawson, C. (2002). Practical Research Methods. A user-friendly guide to mastering research. How to Books Ltd
- Dekeseredy, W. F. (2011). Feminist contributions to understanding woman abuse: Myths, controversies, and realities. *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 16(4):297-302. DOI: 10.1016/j.avb.2011.04.002
- DeHeart, E. (2017). Intimate Partner Violence Screening, Doctor of Nursing Practice (DNP) Projects. 92. Retrieved from:

https://scholarworks.umass.edu/nursing_dnp_capstone/92/?utm_source=scholarworks.umass.edu%2F nursing_dnp_capstone%2F92&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages

DeMarris, A., et al. (2003). Distal and Proximal Factors in Domestic Violence: A Test of an Integrated Model. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, Volume 65, Issue 3, pp. 652-667. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2003.00652.x>

Desperak, I., Rek-Wozniak, M. (2009). Feminizacja biedy w Polsce. [Feminisation of Poverty in Poland]. Raport. Kongres Kobiet Polskich, Kobiety dla Polski, Polska dla Kobiet. 20 lat transformacji 1989-2009, 63-72. Fundacja Feminoteka. Retrieved from: www.kongreskobiet.pl

Dobash, R.E, Dobash, R.P. (1979). Violence against wives : a case against the patriarchy. New York: Free Press

Dobash, R.E, Dobash, R.P. (1984). The Nature and Antecedents of Violent Events, *The British Journal of Criminology*, Vol.24 No 3, 269-288, Oxford University Press, Retrieved from: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23636824>,

Dobash, R. P., Dobash, R. E., Wilson, M., & Daly, M. (1992). The Myth of Sexual Symmetry in Marital Violence *. *The Journal Of The Bertrand Russell Archives*, 39(1), 71-91. Retrieved from <http://links.jstor.org/sici?sici=0037-7791%28199202%2939%3A1%3C71%3ATMOSSI%3E2.0.CO%3B2-W>

Dobash, R. E. et al. (2004). Not an Ordinary Killer; Just an Ordinary Guy: When Men Murder an Intimate Woman Partner. *Violence Against Women*, 10(6), 577–605. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801204265015>

Domestic abuse in England and Wales: year ending March 2018. (2018). Retrieved from: <https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/bulletins/domesticabuseinenglandandwales/yearendingmarch2018>

Domestic abuse: findings from the Crime Survey for England and Wales - Appendix tables. Retrieved from: <https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/datasets/domesticabusefindingsfromthecrimesurveyforenglandandwalesappendixtables>

Dutton, D.(1994). Patriarchy and Wife Assault: The Ecological Fallacy. *Violence and Victims*, Vol. 9, No. 2, 167-182. DOI:10.1891/0886-6708.9.2.167

Dutton, D. G. (1998). The abusive personality: Violence and control in intimate relationships. New York, NY, US: The Guilford Press.

Dutton, D. et al. (2005). Female Perpetrators of Intimate Abuse. in: Women Who Perpetrate Relationship Violence, 1-31. doi:10.1300/J076v41n04

Dutton, D., Corvo, K. (2006). Transforming a flawed policy: A call to revive psychology and science in domestic violence research and practice. *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 11, 457-483. Doi:10.1016/j.avb.2006.01.007

Dutton, D. G., Strachan, C. E. (1987). Motivational needs for power and spouse-specific assertiveness in assaultive and nonassaultive men. *Violence and Victims*, 2(3), 145-156.

Du Vall, M., Majorek, M. (2016). Taking gender seriously. Present trends and recommendation for scientific environment. *Statistical Profiles of Women's and Man's Status in the Economy*, (pp.47- 66), *Science and Society*, Jagiellonian University Press, Online ISBN: 9788323393986. Retrieved from: <https://www.cambridge-org.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/core/books/statistical-profiles-of-womens-and-mens-status-in-the-economy-science-and-society/880CA200208379F1C2C6AA8B8C13E4AF>

Dziennik Urzędowy Komendy Głównej Policji. (2012). WYTYCZNE NR 3 KOMENDANTA GŁÓWNEGO POLICJI z dnia 15 lutego 2012 r.w sprawie wykonywania czynności dochodzeniowo-śledczych przez policjantów [The Code of Practice for Investigating Cases by the Law Enforcement]. Retrieved from: <https://www.infor.pl/akt-prawny/U27.2012.003.0000007.wytyczne-nr-3-komendanta-glownego-policji-w-sprawie-wykonywania-czynnosci-dochodzeniowosledczych-przez-policjantow1.html>

Dziennik Ustaw Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. (2018) Standardy opieki okołoporodowej [Perinatal Care Standards] Poz. 1756. Retrieved from: <https://www.gov.pl/web/zdrowie/standardy-opieki-okoloporodowej>

Dziennik Ustaw Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. (1998). Konkordat między Stolicą Apostolską i Rzeczpospolitą Polską, podpisany w Warszawie dnia 28 lipca 1993 r [Concordate between The Republic of Poland and Vatican of 28 July 1993]. Dz.U. 1998 nr 51 poz. 318. Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU19980510318>

Elmquist, J., et al, 2014, Motivations for intimate partner violence in men and women arrested for domestic violence and court referred to batterer intervention programs. *Partner abuse* vol. 5,4, 359-374. doi:10.1891/1946-6560.5.4.359

Ellis, A. (2016). *Men, Masculinities and Violence*, Routledge, ISBN13: 978-1-138-81909-2 (hbk)

Esteves, J., Pastor, J. (2004). Using a Multimethod Approach to Research Enterprise Systems Implementations. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods* Volume 2 Issue 2, 65-108. Retrieved from: <http://www.ejbrm.com/volume2/issue2> ISSN 1477-7029

European Commission. (2013). Dzień Równości Wynagrodzeń: kobiety w Europie pracują 59 dni „za darmo”. [Day of equal pay: women in Europe work 59 days for free]. Press Release Database. Retrieved from: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-13-165_pl.htm

European Demographic Datasheet. (2020). Period Total Fertility Rates: Contrasting regional trends across Europe. Retrieved from: <http://www.populationeurope.org/en/#>

European Institute for Gender Equality. (2017). Gender Equality Index 2017: Poland. Retrieved from: <https://eige.europa.eu/publications/gender-equality-index-2017-poland>

Eurostat. (2018). Gender Pay Gap Statistics. Retrieved from: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Gender_pay_gap_statistics

Eurostat Statistics Explained. (2016). PKB na poziomie regionalnym. [Regional Gross Domestic Income]. Retrieved from: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/GDP_at_regional_level/pl

Explorable.com (2009). Non-Probability Sampling. Retrieved from: Explorable.com: <https://explorable.com/non-probability-sampling>

Falconier, M., 2010, Female Anxiety and Male Depression: Links Between Economic Strain and Psychological Aggression in Argentinean Couples. *Family Relations*, Vol. 59, No. 4, 424-438. *National Council of Public Relations*. Retrieved from: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/40864562>

Felson, R. B., Pare, P., 2007, Does Criminal Justice System Treat Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Offenders Leniently?, *Justice Quarterly*, Volume 24 Number 3, 435-459

Felson, R.B., Feld, S. L. (2009) When a man hits a woman: moral evaluations and reporting violence to the police, *Aggressive Behaviour*, Volume 35, Issue 6, 477-488. Retrieved from: <https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20323>

Felson, R.B, Pare, P. P. (2007) Does the Criminal Justice System Treat Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Offenders Leniently?, *Justice Quarterly*, 24:3, 435-459, DOI: 10.1080/07418820701485601

Ferfecki, W. (2019). Liczba zabiegów spadła po raz pierwszy od lat. Przypadek czy początek trendu? [The number of abortions dropped for the first time in three years. A trend or no trend?] *Rzeczpospolita*. Retrieved from: <https://www.rp.pl/Spoleczenstwo/301219915-Mniej-legalnych-aborcji-w-Polsce.html>

Fiebert, M. S., Gonzalez, D. M. (1997). College women who initiate assaults on their male partners and the reasons offered for such behavior. *Psychological Reports*, 80(2), 583-590. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1997.80.2.583>

Figueredo, A. J., et al. (2001). Blood, solidarity, status, and honor: The sexual balance of power and spousal abuse in Sonora, Mexico. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 22(5), 295-328. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1090-5138\(01\)00067-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1090-5138(01)00067-8)

Flynn, A. Graham, K. (2010). Why did it happen?" A review and conceptual framework for research on perpetrators' and victims' explanations for intimate partner violence, *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 15 (3), 239-251. DOI:10.1016/j.avb.2010.01.002

Follingstad, D. R., et al. (1990). The Role of Emotional Abuse in Physically Abusive Relationships, *Journal of Family Violence*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 107-120. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF00978514>

Follingstad, D. R. (2007). Rethinking current approaches to psychological abuse: Conceptual and methodological issues. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 12(4), 439-458. doi:10.1016/j.avb.2006.07.004

Frye, V. et al. (2006) The Distribution of and Factors Associated With Intimate Terrorism and Situational Couple Violence Among a Population-Based Sample of Urban Women in the United States. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, Vol.22 No.10, 1286-1313, Sage Publications, <https://doi-org.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/10.1177/0886260506291658>

Fundacja na Rzecz równości. (2013). Regulacje Prawne. [Legal Regulations]. Retrieved from: <http://fnrr.org/regulacje-prawne/>

Gangestad, S.W., Simpson, J.A. (2000). The Evolution of Human Mating: Trade-Offs and Strategic Pluralism. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 23(04):573 – 587. DOI: 10.1017/S0140525X0000337X. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/231178895_The_Evolution_of_Human_Mating_Trade-Offs_and_Strategic_Pluralism

- Gelles, J.R., Straus, M. A. (1979). Determinants of Violence in the Family: Towards a Theoretical Integration. *Contemporary Theories about the Family*, 549-581. New York: Free Press
- Gelles, J.R. (1980). Violence in the Family: A Review of Research in the Seventies. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, Vol. 42, No. 4, Decade Review (Nov., 1980), 873-885. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/351830>
- Gelles, R. J. (1997). *Intimate violence in families* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Gender Development for Cambodia (GADC). (2010). A Qualitative Exploration of Gender Norms, Masculinity and Domestic Violence, <http://www.partners4prevention.org/resource/deoum-troung-pram-hath-modern-cambodia-qualitative-exploration-gender-norms-masculinity-and>, retrieved on: 09.09.2014
- George, M. J. (1994). Riding the Donkey Backwards: Men as the Unacceptable Victims of Marital Violence. *Journal of Men Studies*, Vol. 3, No. 2, 137-159. <https://doi.org/10.1177/106082659400300203>
- Gilfus, M.E. et al. (2010). Gender and Intimate Partner Violence: Evaluating the Evidence, *Journal of Social Work Education*, Vol. 46, No. 2, 245-263. <https://doi.org/10.5175/JSWE.2010.200900019>
- Grandin, E., Lupri, E. (2004). Intimate partner abuse against men: overview paper, Government of Canada, Health Canada, 1-14, <http://publications.gc.ca/site/eng/9.689311/publication.html>
- Gray-Little et al. (1996). Marital Power, Marital Adjustment and Therapy Outcome. *Journal of Family Psychology*, Vol. 10, No 3, 292-303. DOI:10.1037/0893-3200.10.3.292
- Grabowska, M. (2018). *Zerwana genealogia. Działalność społeczna i polityczna kobiet po 1945 roku a współczesny polski ruch kobiecy* (Broken genealogy. Social and political activism of women since 1945 and the contemporary women movement in Poland), Wydawnictwo Naukowe SHOLAR, Warszawa 2018, IBSN 978-7383-931-1
- Greenfeld, L. A., Snell, T.A. (1999). Women Offenders. Bureau of Justice. Special Report, NCJ 175688. <http://www.bjs.gov/index.cfm?ty=pbdetail&iid=568>
- Gosc.PI. (2012). Kościół a antykoncepcja [Church and contraception]. Retrieved from: <https://www.gosc.pl/doc/1315954.Kosciol-a-antykoncepcja>
- Habibov, N., et al. (2017). Understanding women's empowerment and its determinants in post-communist countries: Results of Azerbaijan national Survey, *Women's Studies International Forum* 62, 125-135. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2017.05.002>
- Hall, R.J. (2015). Feminist Strategies to End Violence Against Women, in: *The Oxford Handbook for Transitions Feminist Movements, Political Science, International Relations, Comparative Politics*; 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199943494.013.005
- Hamberger, K.L., Larsen, S.E., 2015, Men's and Women's Experience of Intimate Partner Violence: A Review of Ten Years of Comparative Studies in Clinical Samples; Part I, *Journal of Family Violence* 30; <https://doi.org.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/10.1007/s10896-015-9732-8>

- Hamby, S., Sugarman, D. B., Boney-McCoy, S. (2006). Does questionnaire format impact reported partner violence rates?: An experimental study. *Violence and Victims*, 21(4), 507-518.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1891/vivi.21.4.507>
- Hamberger, L. K. et al. (1997). An Empirical Classification of Motivations for Domestic Violence. *Violence Against Women* 3(4):401-23. DOI: [10.1177/1077801297003004005](https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801297003004005)
- Hanasono, L., K. (2018). External validity, in: The SAGE Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods, p. 481-483, SAGE Publications, Inc, doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483381411>
- Harris, C.R. (2003). A Review of Sex Differences in Sexual Jealousy, Including Self-Report Data, Psychophysiological Responses, And Morbid Jealousy, *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, Vol. 7, No. 2, 102-128. DOI:[10.1207/S15327957PSPR0702_102-128](https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0702_102-128)
- Heise, L.L. (1998). Violence against women: an integrated, ecological framework. *Violence Against Women*, 4(3):262-90. DOI: [10.1177/1077801298004003002](https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801298004003002)
- Hester, M. (2005). Making it through the Criminal Justice System: Attrition and Domestic Violence, *Social Policy and Society*, 5, 79-90. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1474746405002769>
- Hester, M. (2012). Portrayal of Women as Intimate Partner Domestic Violence Perpetrators, *Violence Against Women* 18 (9), 1067-1082. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801212461428>
- Hester, M. (2013). Who does what and to whom? Gender and Domestic Violence Perpetrators, *European Journal of Criminology*, Vol.10(5), 623-637. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1477370813479078>
- Hester, M. et al. (2015). Occurrence and impact of negative behaviours, including domestic violence and abuse in men attending UK primary care health clinics: a cross-sectional survey. *BMJ Open*; Retrieved from: <https://bmjopen.bmj.com/content/5/5/e007141>
- Hines, D.A, Brown, J, Dunning, E. (2007). Characteristics of Callers to the Domestic Abuse Helpline for Men, *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 63-72. DOI [10.1007/s10896-006-9052-0](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-006-9052-0)
- Hines, D.A, Douglas M. (2009). Women's use of Intimate Partner Violence against Men: Prevalence, Implications, Consequences, *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment and Trauma*, 18:6, 572-586. Retrieved from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926770903103099>
- Hines, D.A, Douglas M, 2015, Health Problems of Partner Violence Victims. Comparing Help-Seeking Men to a Population-Based Sample, *American Journal of Preventative Medicine*, 48 (2), 136-144. doi: [10.1016/j.amepre.2014.08.022](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2014.08.022).
- Hirschel, D., Buzawa, E. (2002). Understanding the Context of Dual Arrest With Directions for Future Research, *Violence Against Women* 8(12),1449-1473, DOI: [10.1177/107780102237965](https://doi.org/10.1177/107780102237965)
- Hoff, B.H. (2002). Battered Men: Power and Control Wheel. Retrieved from: <http://dvservices.tripod.com/id41.html>
- Holyst, B. (1996). Kryminalistyka. Wyd. Prawnicze PWN

Index Mundi.(2015). Poland GDP - per capita (PPP). Retrieved from:
[https://www.indexmundi.com/poland/gdp_per_capita_\(ppp\).html](https://www.indexmundi.com/poland/gdp_per_capita_(ppp).html)

Hotaling, G. T., Sugarman, D.B. (1986). An Analysis of Risk Markers in Husband to Wife Violence: The Current State of Knowledge. *Violence and Victims* 1(2),101-24. DOI: 10.1891/0886-6708.1.2.101

HM Inspectorate of Probation, 2004, Reducing Domestic Violence An Effective Supervision Inspection Programme Thematic Report, Home Office, 2004. Retrieved from:
<https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/her-majestys-prison-and-probation-service>

Hrdy, S.H. (1981). *The Woman That Never Evolved*. Revised Edition 1999. Harvard University Press. ISBN 9780674955394

Infor.PL.PRAWO. (2019). Emerytura dla matki 4 dzieci nie jest emeryturą i nie jest dla wszystkich. [Retirement benefit for the mothers of 4 children is not a pension and will not be granted to all]. Retrieved from:
<https://www.infor.pl/prawo/emerytury/emerytury-2019/2807133,Emerytura-dla-matki-4-dzieci-nie-jest-emerytura-i-nie-jest-dla-wszystkich.html>

Infor.PL.PRAWO. (2019). Kiedy sąd orzeka eksmisję małżonka. [When the court sentences eviction of the spouse]. Retrieved from: <https://www.infor.pl/prawo/malzenstwo/prawa-i-obowiazki-malzonkow/250467,2,Kiedy-sad-orzeka-eksmisje-malzonka.html>

Institute for Digital Research and Education (UCLA). (2018). SPSS. Retrieved from: <https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/>

Instytut Badań Naukowych. (2011). Raport o Stanie Edukacji 2010. [Report on the State of Education 2010]. Retrieved from: <http://eduentuzjasci.pl/publikacje-ee-lista.html?start=155>

Janicki, M., Wladyka, W. (2009). Relacje państwo - Kościół w III RP. [Church-state relationships in Poland]. *Tygodnik Polityka*. Retrieved from: <https://www.polityka.pl/tygodnikpolityka/kraj/302599,1,relacje-panstwo---kosciol-w-iii-rp.read>

Johnson, M P. (1995). Patriarchal Terrorism and Common Couple Violence : Two Forms of Violence Against Women. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 57(2), 283-294. National Council on Family Relations

Johnson, M.P. (2006). Conflict and Control Gender Symmetry and Asymmetry in Domestic Violence, *Violence Against Women*, Vol.12, Number 11, 1003-18, Sage Publications

Johnson, M.P., Ferraro, KJ. (2000). Research on Domestic Violence in 1990s: Making Distinctions, *Journal of Violence and Family*, Vol. 62, 948-963; <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.00948.x>

Jupp, V. (2006) *The SAGE Dictionary of Social Research Methods*, p. 66-67, SAGE Publications. doi:
<https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9780857020116>

Kaighobadi, F., et al, 2008, Male mate retention mediates the relationship between female sexual infidelity and female-directed violence, *Personality and Individual Differences*, Volume 44, Issue 6, 1422-1431. Science Direct

Kampanie Społeczne.PL (2020). Bo zupa była za słona. [Cause the soup was too salty]. Retrieved from:
<https://kampaniespoleczne.pl/bo-zupa-byla-za-slona/>

Kancelaria Senatu, Biuro Analiz I Dokumentacji. (2009). Uregulowania prawne dotyczące przemocy w rodzinie na tle wybranych rozwiązań legislacyjnych. [Legal regulations regarding domestic violence]. Opracowania Tematyczne OT-570. Retrieved from: <https://www.senat.gov.pl/gfx/senat/pl/senatopracowania/68/plik/ot-570.pdf>

Karwowska, A. (2019). Polki z najgorszym dostępem do antykoncepcji w Europie. [Polish women have the worst access to birth control in Europe]. *Gazeta Wyborcza*. Retrieved from: <http://wyborcza.pl/TylkoZdrowie/7,137474,24449618,polki-z-najgorszym-dostepem-do-antykoncepcji-w-europie.html>

Kasian, M., & Painter, S. L. (1992). Frequency and Severity of Psychological Abuse in a Dating Population. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, Volume 7, Issue 3, 350–364. doi:10.1177/088626092007003005

Kelman, A.L, Mercy, J.A. (1992). Men, women, and murder: gender-specific differences in rates of fatal violence and victimization. *The Journal of Trauma*, 33(1):1-5. DOI:10.1097/00005373-199207000-00001

Kimberg, L. (2008). Addressing intimate partner violence with male patients: A review and introduction of pilot guidelines, *Journal of Internal Medicine*, 23 (12), 2071-2078

Kimmel, M. S. (2002). "Gender Symmetry" in Domestic Violence: A Substantive and Methodological Research Review. *Violence Against Women*, 8(11), 1332-1363. doi:10.1177/107780102237407

Kingsnorth, R. F., MacIntosh, R. C, 2007, Intimate Partner Violence: The Role of Suspect Gender in Prosecutorial Decision-Making, *Justice Quarterly*, Volume 24 Number 3, 460-491. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07418820701485395>

Klich-Kluczevska, B. (2014). "W tym domu panuje strach" Kultura przemocy i porządek płci w Polsce późnego komunizmu. [The home of fear. The culture of violence and gender order in the late-communism Poland] *Rocznik Antropologii Historii*, rok IV, nr 2 (7), p.165-179

Klich-Kluczevska, B. (2015). Rodzina, tabu i komunizm w Polsce 1956-1989 [Family, taboo and communism in Poland 1956-1989]. Wydawnictwo LIBRON, ISBN 978-83-65705-06-8

Klukowska, K. (2017). Skuteczna egzekucja alimentów. [Successful enforcement of child support]. *Gazeta Wyborcza*. Retrieved from: <http://wyborcza.pl/7,97654,22498369,skuteczna-egzekucja-alimentow-informator.html>

Kolodko, G.W. (1999). Incomes Policy, Equity Issues, and Poverty Reduction in Transitional Economies, *Finance & Development*, 36,3, p. 32-34 ProQuest LCC, International Monetary Fund

Kotowska, I. E. (2014). Niska dzietność w Polsce w percepcji Polaków. [Lowering birth-rate in Poland in the perception of citizens]. *Diagnoza Społeczna 2013, Raport Tematyczny*, Ministerstwo Pracy i Polityki Społecznej. Retrieved from: www.diagnoza.com/pliki/raporty.../Niska_dzietnosc_w_Polsce.pdf

Krajewski A. (2013). Dobrze bo z Polski, *Forbes*. Retrieved from: <http://www.forbes.pl/polskie-hity-eksportowe-dobre-bo-z-polski-historia-made-in-poland,artykuly,145435,1,1.html>

Krzykowski, K. (2019). Mała luka płacowa, ministerstwo się cieszy. Sprawdzamy, o ile mniej zarabiają kobiety. TVN 24 Biz. Retrieved from: <https://tvn24bis.pl/z-kraju,74/gender-pay-gap-w-polsce-fakty-i-mity-o-luce-placowej,904541.html>

Kurowska, A.(2011) Dynamika nierówności dochodowych w Polsce na tle innych krajow - najważniejsze wnioski z badań i statystyk. [Dynamics of gender wage gap in Poland; a comparison with other countries]. ANALIZY INSTYTUTU POLITYKI SPOŁECZNEJ UNIWERSYTETU WARSZAWSKIEGO 2/2011. Retrieved from: www.unpd.org.pl

Lavrakas, P.J. (2011). Internal Validity, in: Encyclopedia of Survey Research Methods, p. 346-351, Sage Publications, Inc, DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412963947>

Laerd Statistics (2017). Chi-square test of homogeneity (2 x C) using SPSS Statistics. Statistical tutorials and software guides. Retrieved from <https://statistics.laerd.com/>

Laerd Statistics .(2017b). Measures of Central Tendency, Statistical tutorials and software guides. Retrieved from: <https://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/measures-central-tendency-mean-mode-median.php>,

Laerd Statistics .(2016). Fisher's exact test using SPSS Statistics. Statistical tutorials and software guides. Retrieved from: <https://statistics.laerd.com/>

Laming, C., 2018, The affect sex and jealousy has on the manifestation of Intimate Partner violence attitudes and behaviours. Bachelor's Dissertation at Cardiff Metropolitan University. Retrieved from: <http://hdl.handle.net/10369/9966>

Krug, E. G. et al. (2002). Violence by intimate partners. World report on violence and health (PDF), p.87-121 Geneva, Switzerland. World Health Organization. [ISBN 9789240681804](https://doi.org/10.1891/0014-0139(2002)00001:1:1-0).

Laland, K. N. et al. (2011). Cause and Effect in Biology Revisited : Is Mayr's Proximate-Ultimate Dichotomy Still Useful? Science, 1512(334), 1512-1516. [doi:10.1126/science.1210879](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1210879)

Lavrakas, P.J. (2008). Encyclopedia of survey research methods. Sage Publications, Inc., Thousand Oaks.

Legislation.gov.uk. (1988). Criminal Justice Act 1988. Retrieved from: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1988/33/section/39>

Legislation.gov.uk. (2004). Domestic Violence, Crime and Victims Act, 2004. Retrieved from: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2004/28/contents>

Levinson, D. (1989). Family violence in cross-cultural perspective. Newbury Park: Sage 1989, ISBN : 0803930763

Leonard, K.E, et al. (2014). Dyadic patterns of intimate partner violence in early marriage, *Psychology of Violence*, Vol.4, Issue 2 (384-389), [DOI:10.1037/a0037483](https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037483)

Leven, B. (2008). Poland's transition and new opportunities for women, *Feminist Economics*, Vol.14, p. 123-136 <https://doi.org/10.1080/13545700701716631>

- Lewoc, M., 2011, Correction-education programs as a chance for the change of attitude in of domestic violence perpetrators, *Na wokandzie*, 10. Retrieved from: <http://nawokandzie.ms.gov.pl/numer-10/zapobieganie-przemocy-w-rodzinie-10/programy-korekcyjno-edukacyjne-czyli-szansa-na-zmiane-postaw-sprawcow.html>
- Lewis, S. F., & Fremouw, W. (2001). Dating violence: A critical review of the literature. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 21(1), 105-127. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-7358\(99\)00042-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-7358(99)00042-2)
- Lewoc, M. (2019). Mieszkanie komunalne – co trzeba o nim wiedzieć? [Social housing: what is there to know]. Morizon.pl. Retrieved from: <https://www.morizon.pl/blog/mieszkanie-komunalne-poradnik/>
- Liga Kobiet Polskich. (2020). Liga Kobiet Polskich ma 100 lat. Retrieved from: <http://ligakobietpolskich.pl/historia-lkp/>
- Lodygowska, K. (2018). Przepisy dotyczące aborcji w Polsce. [Abortion laws and regulations in Poland]. Retrieved from: <https://matkaprawnik.pl/przepisy-dotyczace-aborcji-w-polsce/>
- MacDonald, J. H. (2014). Handbook of Biological Statistics: Fisher's exact test. Retrieved from: <http://www.biostathandbook.com/fishers.html>
- Macmillan, R., & Gartner, R. (1999). When She Brings Home the Bacon: Labor-Force Participation and the Risk of Spousal Violence against Women. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 61, 947-958. <https://doi.org/10.2307/354015>
- Magdol, L. et al. (1997). Gender Differences in Partner Violence in a Birth Cohort of 21-Year-Olds: Bridging the Gap Between Clinical and Epidemiological Approaches. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 65(1):68-78. DOI: 10.1037/0022-006X.65.1.68
- ManKind Initiative (2012). Retrieved from: <https://www.mankind.org.uk/>
- Mason, A., & Blankenship, V. (1987). Power and affiliation motivation, stress, and abuse in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 203-210. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.1.203>
- Marek, A., 2012, Criminal Law (Prawo Karne), C.H. Beck, Warszawa
- Mayo Clinic. (2017) Domestic violence against men: Know the signs. Retrieved from: <https://www.mayoclinic.org/healthy-lifestyle/adult-health/in-depth/domestic-violence-against-men/art-20045149>
- Mathieson, K. (2014). Making Sense of Biostatistics, Types of nonprobability sampling; *Journal of Clinical Research Best Practices*, Vol.10, October 2014, Retrieved Feb 28, 2019 from <http://firstclinical.com/journal/contents.html?when=October+2014&layout=>
- Matczak, A., et al. (2011). Review of Domestic Violence Policies in England and Wales London: Kingston University and St George's, University of London. ISBN: 978-0-9558329-7-0.
- Mayr, E. (1961). Cause and Effect in Biology. *Science, New Series*, Vol.134(3489), 1501-1506. DOI:10.1126/science.134.3489.1501

- Maxwell, J. A & Mittapalli, K. (2010). Realism as a Stance for Mixed Methods Research, Sage Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Science, Sage Publications, Inc ; retrieved from: <http://methods.sagepub.com.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/Book/sage-handbook-of-mixed-methods-social-behavioral-research-2e/n11.xml>
- Mazeh, Y, Widrig, M. (2016). The Rate of False Allegations of Partner Violence, *Journal of Family Violence*, 31, 1035-1037. DOI:10.1007/s10896-016-9882-3
- McCarrick, J. et al. (2016). Men's Experience of the Criminal Justice System Following Female Perpetrated Intimate Partner Violence, *Journal of Family Violence*, 31:213. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10896-015-9749-z>
- McKim, C. (2017). The Value of Mixed Methods Research: A Mixed Methods Study, *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, Vol.1(2) 202-222, SAGE
- MedCalc.net (2019). Fisher's exact probability calculator. Retrieved from: <https://www.medcalc.net/statisticaltests/fisher.php>
- Melton, H.C, Belknap, J. (2003). He Hits, She Hits. Assessing Gender Differences and Similarities in Officially Reported Intimate Partner Violence, *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 30(3), 328–348. Sage Journals. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854803030003004>
- Melzer, S.A. (2002). Gender, Work, and Intimate Violence: Men's Occupational Violence Spillover and Compensatory Violence. *Journal of Marriage and Family*. Volume 64, Issue 4, 820-832. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2002.00820.x>
- Migliaccio, T. A. (2002). Abused Husbands. A narrative analysis, *Journal of Family Issues*, Vol. 23 No. 1, 26-52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X02023001002>
- Migliaccio, T. A, 2001, Marginalizing the Battered Male, *Journal of Male Studies*, Vol.9(2), 205-226, <https://doi.org/10.3149/jms.0902.205>
- Mihalic, S. W., Elliott, D. (1997). A social learning theory model of marital violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 12(1), 21-47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1021941816102>
- Mijatovic, D. (2019) The report after visit in Poland 11-15 of March 2019, CommGH(2019)17. Commissioner for Human Rights. Council of Europe. Retrieved from: <http://monitorkonstytucyjny.eu/archiwa/9612>
- Miller, S.L, Melloy, M. L. (2006). Women's Use of Force Voices of Women Arrested for Domestic Violence. *Violence Against Women* 12(1):89-115. DOI: 10.1177/1077801205277356
- MillwardBrown and Ministerstwo Rodziny, Pracy i Polityki Społecznej .(2011). Diagnoza dotycząca osób stosujących przemoc w rodzinie: przemoc w rodzinie z perspektywy dorosłej populacji Polski. [Diagnosis of persons perpetrating domestic violence from the perspective of adult population of Poland]. Retrieved from: https://archiwum.mpips.gov.pl/gfx/mpips/userfiles/public/1_NOWA%20STRONA/Przemoc%20w%20rodzinie/dane%20statystyczne/1%20RAPORT_POLACY_PRZEMOC_W_RODZINIE_FIN.pdf ; retrieved on 13/09/2012

Ministry of Justice (Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej) (2004a), Przechowywanie akt spraw sądowych oraz ich przekazywanie do archiwów państwowych lub do zniszczenia [Storage and destruction of court files of criminal and court administration cases], *Dziennik Ustaw*, 2014.991, Retrieved from: <https://www.prawo.pl/akty/dz-u-2014-991-t-j,17083269.html>

Ministerstwo Sprawiedliwości (Ministry of Justice) .(2004b). Courts in Poland. Retrieved from: <http://www.prawnik24.pl/Dokumenty/Broszury%20MS/przew01.pdf>;

Ministry of Health (Ministerstwo Zdrowia). (2017). Komunikat w sprawie powoływania się przez lekarzy na tzw. klauzulę sumienia. [Communiqué on conscience clause use by the GPs and other doctors]. Retrieved from: <https://www.gov.pl/web/zdrowie/komunikat-w-sprawie-powoływania-sie-przez-lekarzy-na-tzw.-klauzule-sumienia-oraz-tłumaczenia-wyroku-w-sprawie-r.r.-przeciwko-polsce-skarga-nr-17617/04->

Ministerstwo Rodziny, Pracy i Polityki Społecznej (Ministry of Family, Labour and Social Policy). (2020). Przeciwdziałanie przemocy w rodzinie. [Counteracting domestic violence] Retrieved from: <https://www.gov.pl/web/rodzina/przeciwdzialanie-przemocy-w-rodzinie>

Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights.(2000). Domestic Violence in Moldova. Retrieved from: <https://www.theadvocatesforhumanrights.org/> retrieved on 03.05.2019

Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights.(1996). Domestic Violence in Albania. Retrieved from: https://www.theadvocatesforhumanrights.org/uploads/albania_domestic_violence_1996.PDF, retrieved on 03.05.2019

Moffit, T. E., Caspi, A., 1999, Findings About Partner Violence From the Dunedin Multidisciplinary Health and Development Study, National Institute of Justice: Research in Brief: 2. Retrieved 2014-06-28. Retrieved from: <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/170018.pdf>

Moffit, T. E., et al. (2000). Partner abuse and general crime: How are they the same? How are they different? *Criminology* 38:199-232. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.2000.tb00888.x>

Morse, J. (2010) Procedures and Practice of Mixed Method Design: Maintaining Control, Rigor and Complexity; in: SAGE Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research, SAGE Publications Inc.. Retrieved from: <http://methods.sagepub.com.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/Book/sage-handbook-of-mixed-methods-social-behavioral-research-2e/n11.xml>

Murphy, C.M, Cascardi, M.,(1993). Psychological aggression and abuse in marriage. Family violence: Prevention and treatment, 86–112. Sage, Newbury Park, CA

Musonera, A., Heshamati, A. (2016). Measuring Women's Empowerment in Rwanda, Discussion Paper, No. 10131, Institute for the Study of Labour. Retrieved from: <ftp.iza.org/dp10131.pdf>

Mynarska, M., Słotwińska-Rosłanowska, E. (2015). Kohabitacja: Najważniejsze problemy prawne w ocenie Polaków i Polek. *Problemy Polityki Społecznej. Studia i Dyskusje*, 29(2), 125-140. Retrieved from: <http://www.problempolitykispolecznej.pl/Numer--2015,8745>

National Institute of Justice. (1999). Findings About Intimate Partner Violence from the Dunedin Multidisciplinary Health and Development Study. Retrieved from: <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/170018.pdf>

National Institute of Justice, (2007). Stalking. Retrieved from:
<https://www.nij.gov/topics/crime/stalking/pages/welcome.aspx>

National Sexual Violence Resource Center. (2019). Gender Neutral Power & Control Wheel, Retrieved from
<https://www.nsvrc.org/sites/default/files/2019-08/Gender%20Neutral%20Power%20Control%20Wheel.pdf>

Newsweek Poland. (2019). Anna Zalewska twierdzi, że edukacja seksualna w szkołach stoi na odpowiednim poziomie. [Anna Zalewska's claim of sex education course completion in school being up the standard]. Newsweek. Retrieved from: <https://www.newsweek.pl/polska/anna-zalewska-twierdzi-ze-edukacja-seksualna-w-szkolach-stoi-na-odpowiednim-poziomie/w9dq5d>

Ngo.pl. (2019). Spis organizacji. [List of Organisations]. Retrieved from: <https://spis.ngo.pl/>

Nowe Zycie Bez Przemocy. (2019). Eksmisja sprawcy przemocy domowej. [Eviction of domestic violence perpetrators]. Retrieved from: <http://www.nowezyciebezprzemocy.co.uk/eksmisja-sprawcy-przemocy-domowej-w-polsce.php>

Nowicka, W. (2014). Commitments made twenty years ago have not been achieved yet, <http://beijing20.unwomen.org/en/news-and-events/stories/2014/11/beijing-what-commitments-made-twenty-years-ago-have-not-been-achieved-yet>; accessed on 01.06.2020

Odgers, C.L. et al.(2008). Female and male antisocial trajectories: from childhood origins to adult outcomes. *Development and Psychopathology* 20(2):673-716. doi: 10.1017/S0954579408000333.

Osrodek Badania Opinii Publicznej tsn OBOP.(2010). Diagnoza Zjawiska Przemocy w Rodzinie a Polsce wobec Kobiet i wobec Mezczyzn. Czesc I-Raport z Badan Ogolnopolskich [Diagnosis of domestic violence against men and women in Poland Part 1], p. 8-26. Retrieved from:
<https://rownosc.info/bibliography/research/diagnoza-zjawiska-przemocy-w-rodzinie-w-polsce-wob>

Osrodek Badania Opinii Publicznej tsn OBOP.(2010). Diagnoza Zjawiska Przemocy w Rodzinie a Polsce wobec Kobiet i wobec Mezczyzn. Czesc II-Raport z Badan Ogolnopolskich [Diagnosis of domestic violence against men and women in Poland Part 2], p. 1-146. Retrieved from:
https://archiwum.mpips.gov.pl/gfx/mpips/userfiles/public/2-2010_%20Raport-profesjonalisci_K-M_01-03-11.pdf

Osthoff, S. (2002). But, Gertrude, I Beg to Differ, a Hit Is Not a Hit Is Not a Hit: When Battered Women Are Arrested for Assaulting Their Partners. *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 8, Issue 2, 1521-1544.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/107780102237968>

Office for National Statistics. (2018) Domestic abuse: findings from the Crime Survey for England and Wales: year ending March 2018. Retrieved from:
<https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/articles/domesticabusefindingsfromthecrimesurveyforenglandandwales/yearendingmarch2018>

Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures. (2011). Retrieved from: wolborz.ugm.pl

Oglivie, E. (1996). *Masculine Obsessions: An Examination of Criminology, Criminality and Gender*. The *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 29, 205-225 .

<https://doi.org/10.1177/000486589602900301>

O'Leary, D.K., et al, 2008, Descriptive epidemiology of intimate partner aggression in Ukraine, *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, Vol. 43 (8) 619-626. doi: 10.1007/s00127-008-0339-8.

O'Leary, K Daniel, & Williams, M. C. (2006). Agreement about acts of aggression in marriage. *Journal of Family Psychology: JFP Journal of the Division of Family Psychology of the American Psychological Association (Division 43)*, 20(4), 656-662. PMID 17176201. DOI: 10.1037/0893-3200.20.4.656

Onet.pl (2015). Final sprawy Alicji Tysiac. [The finale of Alicja Tysiac case]. Retrieved from: <https://wiadomosci.onet.pl/kraj/final-sprawy-alicji-tysiac/tygix>

PARPA (Panstwowa Agencja Rozwiazywania Problemow Alkoholowych). (2019). Izby wytrzeźwień. [Sobering-up chambers]. <http://www.parpa.pl/index.php/zagrozenia-zycia-publicznego/izby-wytrzezwien>

Pawlowski, A., Pospiech, J. (2013). Podstawy interwencji policyjnych ze szczegolnym uwzglednieniem zasad podejmowania czynnosci wobec osob z zaburzeniami psychicznymi oraz nosicieli wirusa HIV. *Materiały Dydaktyczne 97*. Centrum Szkolenia Policji. Legionowo 2013

Parysek, J.J. (2004). The socio-economic and spatial transformation of Polish cities after 1989. *Dela* (21) p. 109-119. Retrieved from: <https://revije.ff.uni-lj.si/Dela/article/download/dela.21.8.109-119/1233>

Perkowski, P (2008). Meskosc w PRL. Rekonesans [Masculinity in the Communist Poland, a reconnaissance], in *Meskosc w kulturze wspolczesnej*, p. 101-103. Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Marii Curie-Sklodowskiej Lublin. ISBN 978-83-227-2799-7

Peterson, C. Maier, S.F, Seligman, M.E.P. *Learnt helplessness: A theory for the age of personal control*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Policja Podlaska (2016). Prawa Ofiar. [Victim Rights] Retrieved from: http://www.podlaska.policja.gov.pl/programy/prawa_ofiar/doc/4.pdf

Polish Penal Code (Kodeks Karny Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej). (1997). *Dziennik Ustaw*, Internetowy System Aktow Prawnych. Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU20180001600>

Polish Penal Code (Kodeks Karny Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej). (1969). *Dziennik Ustaw*, 1969 nr13 poz.94. Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU19690130094>

Povey, D. et al. (2008). Homicides, Firearm Offences and Intimate Partner Violence 2006/07 (Supplementary Volume 2 to Crime in England and Wales 2006/07), Home Office Statistical Bulletin, National Statistics 02/09. Retrieved from: <https://data.gov.uk/dataset/6f334c5b-bf20-489d-915c-58a719b0ce8d/crime-in-england-and-wales-supplementary-volume-2>

Potocki, M. (2013). Kobiety mają w Polsce dobrze. To kraj instytucjonalnie sfeminizowany. [Good situation of women in Poland.The country is institutionally feminized] *Gazeta Prawna*. Retrieved from: <http://www.gazetaprawna.pl/artykuly/734195,sytuacja-kobiet-w-polsce-feminizacja-kraju.html>

- Ponton. Stowarzyszenie Edulacyjne. (2009). Jak naprawdę wygląda edukacja seksualna w Polsce? [What is the reality of delivering sex education in Poland?] Retrieved from: <http://ponton.org.pl/raporty/>
- Ponton. Stowarzyszenie Edulacyjne. (2014). Raport "Sprawdzian (z) WdZ", czyli jak wygląda edukacja seksualna w polskich szkołach. [Assessment of Preparation for Family Life course completion or how does the sexual education in Poland looks like] Retrieved from: <http://ponton.org.pl/raporty/>
- Ponton. Stowarzyszenie Edulacyjne. (2016) Relizacja zajęć WdZ. Perspektywa uczennic/uczniów i dyrektorów/dyrektorek szkół 2016. [Completion of Preparation to Family Life course in 2016 as reported by students and school principals] Retrieved from: <http://ponton.org.pl/raporty/>
- Psychology Illinois State Edu. .(2018). SPSS: Descriptive Statistics. Retrieved from: <https://psychology.illinoisstate.edu/jccutti/138web/spss/spss3.html>
- Puszkowaka, A. (2017). Przemoc to zło. Gosc.pl. retrieved from: <https://www.gosc.pl/doc/3826507.Przemoc-to-zlo>
- PwC. (2019). Women in Work Index. Retrieved from: <https://www.pwc.co.uk/services/economics-policy/insights/women-in-work-index.html>
- Rada Ministrów RP. (2011). Opening and Managing the Blue Card Procedures. [Rozporządzenie Rady Ministrów w sprawie "Niebieskiej Karty" oraz wzorców formularzy "Niebieska Karta"]. *Dziennik Ustaw RP* 2011 nr, 209, 12266-12288. Retrieved from: <prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/download.xsp/WDU20112091245/O/D20111245.pdf>
- Radowicki, S. (2017). Klauzula sumienia [Conscience clause], *Świat lekarza 3D*, Retrieved from: <http://swiatlekarza.pl/klauzula-sumienia/>
- Riggs, D. S., & O'Leary, K. D. (1989). A theoretical model of courtship aggression. In M. A. Pirog-Good & J. E. Stets (Eds.), *Violence in dating relationships: Emerging social issues* (pp. 53-71). New York, NY, England: Praeger Publishers.
- Riggs, D.S., et al. (2000). Risk for domestic violence: Factors associated with perpetration and victimization. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 56, Issue 10, 1289-1316. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-4679\(200010\)56:10<1289::AID-JCLP4>3.0.CO;2-Z](https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-4679(200010)56:10<1289::AID-JCLP4>3.0.CO;2-Z)
- Riggs, D. S., & O'Leary, K. D. (1996). Aggression Between Heterosexual Dating Partners: An Examination of a Causal Model of Courtship Aggression, *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, Vol. 11, Issue 4, 519-540. <https://doi.org/10.1177/088626096011004005>
- Robertson, K., Murachver, T., 2009, Attitudes and Attributions Associated With Female and Male Partner Violence, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 39(7):1481 – 1512. DOI: 10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00492.x
- Rogozinski, P. (2015). Sedzia, czyli arbiter [Judge or arbiter], *Na wokandzie* Nr 25. Retrieved from: <https://nawokandzie.ms.gov.pl/numer-25/wokanda-2-numer-25/sedzia-czyli-arbiter.html>
- Rouse, L. P. (1989). Reply to Hamberger and Arnold. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 4(4), 523-527. doi:10.1177/088626089004004011

Ross, P.T., Bibler Zaidi, N.K. (2019). Limited by our limitations, *Perspect Med Educ* 8 (4), 261-264. Eye-Opener. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40037-019-00530-x>

Rzecznik Praw Obywatelskich. (2019). Klauzula sumienia: wolność religijna a dyskryminacja. Sesja 14 III KPO [The conscience clause, religious freedom and discrimination]. Retrieved from: <https://www.rpo.gov.pl/pl/content/panel/sesja-14KPO-klauzula-sumienia>

Ministry of Internal Affairs (1979) ROZPORZĄDZENIE MINISTRA SPRAW WEWNĘTRZNYCH z dnia 10 marca 1979 r. Dziennik Ustaw 79.7.44. [Regulation of the Minister of Internal Affairs of 10 March 1979]. Retrieved from: <https://www.prawo.pl/akty/dz-u-1979-7-44,16790349.html>

Rzeczpospolita. (2013). O równym statusie płci [On the equal status of men and women]. Retrieved from: <http://www.kariera.pl/czytaj/25/o-rownym-statusie-plci-w-polsce/>

Saltzman, L.E et al. (1999). Intimate Partner Violence Surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements, Version 1.0. Atlanta (GA): National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; 1999, U.S. Department of Health & Human Services. Retrieved from: <https://www.cdc.gov/>

Sardenberg, C. (2011). What Makes Domestic Violence Legislation More Effective, Pathways of Women Empowerment, Pathways Policy Paper, Retrieved from: https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a08ac6ed915d3cfd00092e/Policy_Oct_11_Domestic_Violence.pdf

Sawicka, J. (2009). Sytuacja kobiet wiejskich na rynku pracy i w rolnictwie [Situation of women from the rural areas on the job market], Kongres Kobiet Polskich, Kobiety dla Polski, Polska dla Kobiet. 20 lat transformacji 1989-2009, Fundacja Feminoteka. Retrieved from: www.kongreskobiet.pl

Scholz, S. (2000). Moral implications of the battered woman syndrome. Retrieved from: <https://www.bu.edu/wcp/Papers/Soci/SociScho.htm>

Sear, R. et al. (2002). The effects of kin on child mortality in rural Gambia. *Demography*, Volume 39, Issue 1, 43–63. <https://doi.org/10.1353/dem.2002.0010>

Serran, G., Firestone, P. (2004). Intimate partner homicide: A review of the male proprietariness and the self-defense theories. *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 9(1):1-15. DOI: 10.1016/S1359-1789(02)00107-6

Siedlecka, E. (2011). Brak informacji o zdrowiu to tortura. *Gazeta Wyborcza*. Retrieved from: http://wyborcza.pl/1,76842,9675119,Brak_informacji_o_zdrowiu_plodu_to_tortura.html#TRrelSST

Simpson, L. E., Christensen, A. (2005). Spousal agreement regarding relationship aggression on the Conflict Tactics Scale-2. *Psychological Assessment* Vol. 17, Issue 4, 423-432. DOI:10.1037/1040-3590.17.4.423

Sin-Kwok Wong, R. (2002). Occupational attainment in Eastern Europe under socialism. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 1/2002, Vol.19, C, p.191-230. Retrieved from: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0276-5624\(02\)80042-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0276-5624(02)80042-7)

Sitarska, A. (2006). Przemoc w rodzinie a mediacja [Domestic violence and mediation]. *Prokuratura i Prawo* 1, 56-74. Retrieved from: <http://czytelniaonline.pl/magazine/16777524/2006/1/toc>

Sledziewski, A.D. (2016). Przestępstwo znecania się w kontekście przemocy w rodzinie. [The crime of domestic violence/abuse]. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Białystok, Poland. Retrieved from: <https://repozytorium.uwb.edu.pl/jspui/handle/11320/5874>

Smith, S.G. et al. (2018). The National Partner and Sexual Violence Survey: 2015 Data Brief –Updated Release. Retrieved from: <https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/datasources/nisvs/summaryreports.html>

Smuts, B. (1995). The evolutionary origins of patriarchy. *Human Nature*, 6(1), 1-32. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02734133>

Sroga, A. (2018). Równy podział majątku po rozwodzie? Niekoniecznie [Equitable division of assets after a divorce? Not necessarily], *Gazeta Prawna.PL*, Retrieved from: <https://prawo.gazetaprawna.pl/artykuly/1117271,rozwod-rowny-podzial-majatku-nie-zawsze-nastapi.html>

Stark, E. (2009). Rethinking coercive control, *Violence against women*, (15) 12, p. 1509-1525, DOI: [10.1177/1077801209347452](https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801209347452)

Steinmetz, S. K. (1977). The Use of Force For Resolving Family Conflict: The Training Ground for Abuse. *The Family Coordinator*, Vol. 26. No. 1, 19-26. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/581856> . Accessed: on 01.12.2011

Steinmetz, S. K. (1978). The Battered Husband Syndrome. *Victimology: An International Journal*, Volume 2 Numbers:3/4 , 499-509.

Stanczyk, J., et al. (2015). Malżeństwa i urodzenia w Polsce. [Marriages and births in Poland]. Eurostat Statistics Explained. Central Statistical Office (GUS). Retrieved from: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Marriages_and_births_in_Poland/pl&oldid=265876

Stark, E. (2009). Rethinking coercive control. *Violence against women*, 15(12), 1509–1525. DOI: [10.1177/1077801209347452](https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801209347452)

Statistical Office in Lublin.(2011). Statistical Yearbook Lubelskie Voivodship 2011. Retrieved from: <https://lublin.stat.gov.pl/publikacje-i-foldery/roczniki-statystyczne/rocznik-statystyczny-wojewodztwa-lubelskiego-2011,2,9.html>

Statistical Office in Warsaw.(2011). Statistical Yearbook Mazowieckie Voivodship 2011. Retrieved from: <https://warszawa.stat.gov.pl/publikacje-i-foldery/roczniki-statystyczne/rocznik-statystyczny-wojewodztwa-mazowieckiego-2011,4,3.html>

Statystyka Policyjna [Police statistics]. (2019). Przemoc w Rodzinie. [Domestic Violence]. Retrieved from: http://www.statystyka.policja.pl/porta1/st/944/50863/Przemoc_w_rodzinie.html

Straus, M.A. (1979).Measuring Intrafamily Conflict and Violence: The Conflict Tactics (CT) Scales, *Journal of Marriage and Family Violence*, Vol.41, No.1, 75-88. doi:10.2307/351733

Straus, M.A., Gelles, R.J. (1986). Societal Change and Change in Family Violence from 1975 to 1985 As Revealed by Two National Surveys, *Journal of Marriage and Family* 48, 465-479. [doi:10.2307/352033](https://doi.org/10.2307/352033)

Straus, M. A., & Gelles, R. J. (1990). Physical violence in American families: Risk factors and adaptations to violence in 8,145 families. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction

Straus, M.A. et al. (1996). The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2). Development and Preliminary Psychometric Data, *Journal of Family Issues*, Vol. 17 No 3, May 1996, 283-316, Sage Publications. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019251396017003001>

Straus, M., A, et al. (1997). Change in Cultural Norms Approving Marital Violence from 1968 to 1994, in: *Out of the Darkness: Contemporary Perspectives on Family Violence* (p.3-16). Sage Publications, Inc.

Straus, M. A., & Hamby, S. L. (1997). Measuring physical and psychological maltreatment of children with the Conflict Tactics Scales. In G. K. Kantor & J. L. Jasinski (Eds.), *Out of darkness: Contemporary perspectives on family violence* (pp. 119-135). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483328058.n10>

Strauss, M.A. et al. (2003). *The Conflict Tactics Scale Handbook*. Western Psychological Services

Straus, M.A. (2004) Prevalence of Violence Against Dating Partners by Male and Female University Students Worldwide, *Violence Against Women*, Vol. 10 No. 7, 790-811, DOI: 10.1177/10778012042565552, Sage Publications

Straus, M.A (2007). Conflict tactics scales. *Encyclopedia of Domestic Violence* (p.190-197). N.A. Jackson. New York: Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group

Straus, M.A. (2011). Gender symmetry and mutuality in perpetration of clinical-level partner violence: Empirical evidence and implications for prevention and treatment, *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 16. P. 279–288, DOI: 10.1016/j.avb.2011.04.010

Stuart, G. L., Moore, T. M., Hellmuth, J. C., Ramsey, S. E., & Kahler, C. W. (2006). Reasons for Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration Among Arrested Women. *Violence Against Women*, 12(7), 609–621. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801206290173>

Steinmetz, S.K. (1987). Family violence: Past, present, and future. In M. B. Sussman & S. K. Steinmetz (Eds), *Handbook of marriage & the family* (p. 725-265). Plenum Press, New York

Stets, J.E, Straus, M.A. (1989). The Marriage License as a Hitting License: A Comparison of Assaults in Dating, Cohabiting, and Married Couples, *Journal of Family Violence*, Vol. 4, No 2, 161-180. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01006627>

Sugarman, D. B., & Hotaling, G. T. (1997). Intimate violence and social desirability: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 12(2), 275-290. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/088626097012002008>

Supreme Audit Office (Najwyższa Izba Kontroli, NIK). (2014). Zapewnienie prawa do jednakowego wynagradzania kobiet i mężczyzn w sektorze publicznym. [Providing the right to equal pay for women and

men in the public sector] Nr ewid. 167/2013/P13151/LKR. Retrieved from:
<https://www.nik.gov.pl/plik/id,5806,vp,7510.pdf>

Stowarzyszenie Kongres Kobiet.(2013). Rozgrzejmy "suwak" w zamrażarce sejmowej. [Let's keep "the zipper" in the Parliament moving]. Retrieved from http://www.kongreskobiet.pl/pl-PL/news/show/rozgrzejmy_suwak_w_zamrazarce_sejmowej

Szelegieniec, P. (2018). Behind the „Black Protests”. Monthly Review An Independent Socialist Magazine. Retrieved from: <https://monthlyreview.org/2018/05/01/behind-the-black-protests/>

Szukalski, P. (2012). Różnica wieku między nowożeńcami we współczesnej Polsce, Demografia i Gerontologia Społeczna – Biuletyn Informacyjny 2012, Nr 1, p.1-5; Uniwersytet Łódzki, Retrieved from: dspace.uni.lodz.pl

Szukalski, P. (2014). Charakterystyka związków kohabitacyjnych we współczesnej Polsce. [Characteristics of common law marriages in Poland]. Wiadomości Statystyczne nr 8, 62-74, Repozytorium Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego. Retrieved from: <https://docplayer.pl/20347765-Charakterystyka-zwiazkow-kohabitacyjnych-we-wspolczesnej-polsce.html>

Szymanski, D. (2016). Podziemie aborcyjne w Polsce to dochodowy biznes. Może być wart nawet setki milionów złotych. [Abortion underground in Poland is a profitable business]. Business Insider Polska. Retrieved from: <https://businessinsider.com.pl/wiadomosci/ile-aborcji-dokonuje-sie-w-polsce-ile-kosztuje-aborcja/zsjj2h8>

Titkow, A., Duch-Krystoszek, D. (2009). Niejednoznaczny status pracy domowej kobiet, Raport. [Report on the inconclusive status of women's domestic work]. Kongres Kobiet Polskich, Kobiety dla Polski, Polska dla Kobiet. 20 lat transformacji 1989-2009, Fundacja Feminoteka. Retrieved from: www.kongreskobiet.pl

Thaler, K.M. (2017). Mixed Methods Research in the Study of Political and Social Violence and Conflict. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, Vol. 11(1), 59-76. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689815585196>

Theves, B., et al. (2018). One way or another: the opportunities and pitfalls of self-referral and consecutive sampling as recruitment strategies for psycho-oncology intervention trials, *Clinical Correspondence, Psycho-Oncology* 27 (8), 2056-2059, doi: 10.1002/pon.4780

The Act of 29 July 2005 on counteracting domestic violence. (2005). *Dziennik Ustaw* No. 180, item 1493. Retrieved from: <https://www.gov.pl/web/rodzina/akty-prawne-jezyk-angielskim-przemoc>

The Act of 28 July 2014 on the Minister of Justice notice on storage of Judicial System files, their archiving and destruction. (2014). *Dziennik Ustaw* No. 2014, item 991. Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/ByYear.xsp?type=WDU&year=2014>

The World Bank. (2018) International Comparison Program database, GDP per capita, PPP (current international \$). Retrieved from: <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.PP.CD>

The Constitution of The Republic of Poland. (1997). *Dziennik Ustaw* No. 78, item 483. Retrieved from: <http://www.sejm.gov.pl/prawo/konst/angielski/kon1.htm>

The ESHRE Capri Workshop Group. (2010). Europe the continent with the lowest fertility, *Human Reproduction Update*, Vol.16, No.6 p. 590-602

The Home Office.(2015). Controlling or coercive behaviour in an intimate or family relationship. Retrieved from: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/482528/Controlling_or_coercive_behaviour_-_statutory_guidance.pdf.

Tolmie, J.R. (2018). Coercive control: To criminalize or not to criminalize? *Criminology & Criminal Justice*, Vol 18(1), p.50-66. DOI: [org/10.1177/1748895817746712](https://doi.org/10.1177/1748895817746712)

Tomczak, D. (2016). Statistical Profiles of Women's and Man's Status in the Economy, 29-45, Science and Society, Jagiellonian University Press, Online ISBN: 9788323393986. Retrieved from: <https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.sussex.ac.uk/core/books/statistical-profiles-of-womens-and-mens-status-in-the-economy-science-and-society/880CA200208379F1C2C6AA8B8C13E4AF>

Topolewska, M. (2019). Fundusz Alimentacyjny bije niechlubny rekord. Tylko 241 tys. dzieci dostaje pomoc. [Alimenraty fund strikes the inglorious record. Only 241 thousand children receives financial aid]. *Gazeta Prawna*. Retrieved from: <https://prawo.gazetaprawna.pl/artykuly/1421349,fundusz-alimentacyjny-tylko-241-tys-dzieci-dostaje-pomoc-finansowa.html>

Tracy, N. (2012, July 27). Battered Men, Battered Husbands: It's No Joke!, *HealthyPlace*. Retrieved from: <https://www.healthypace.com/abuse/domestic-violence/battered-men-battered-husbands-its-no-joke>

Tumidalski, W. (2013). Sedzia statystyczny. [Statistical judge]. *Na Wokandzie*, Nr 18. Retrieved from: <http://nawokandzie.ms.gov.pl/numer-18/wokanda-18/sedzia-statystyczny.html>

TVP info. (2020) „Genderowy belkot”. Wiceminister sprawiedliwości: Wypowiemy konwencję stambulską. [Gender mumble. Vice minister of Justice Renounces the Istanbul convention]. Retrieved from: <https://www.tvp.info/48047409/genderowy-belkot-wiceminister-sprawiedliwosci-wypowiemy-konwencje-stambulska>

Unesco. (2019). Unesco eAtlas of Literacy. Retrieved from: <https://tellmaps.com/uis/literacy/#!/tellmap/-601865091>

United Nations Development Programme. (2013). Summary Human Development Report. Retrieved from: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/2013-report>

Ustawa z dnia 7 stycznia 1993 r. o planowaniu rodziny, ochronie płodu ludzkiego i warunkach dopuszczalności przerywania ciąży. [Familyl planning, foetus protection and the conditions of legal abortion] (1993). *Dziennik Ustaw* 1993 Nr 17 poz. 78; Internetowy System Aktów Prawnych (ISAP). Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU19930170078>

Ustawa z dnia 29 lipca 2005 r. o przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie. [Domestic Violence Act of 29 July 2005]. (2005). *Dziennik Ustaw* 2005 nr 180 poz. 1493; System Aktów Prawnych (ISAP). Retrieved from: <http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU20051801493>

- Ustawa z dnia 25 lutego 1964 r. Kodeks rodzinny i opiekuńczy [The Family and Guardianship Code]. (1964). Dziennik Ustaw 1964 nr 9 poz.59, Internetowy System Aktów Prawnych (ISAP). Retrieved from: <http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=wdu19640090059>
- Walby, S. et al. (2017). The concept and measurement of violence against men and women. Policy Press, ISBN 978-1-4473-3264-0
- Walby, S., Towers, J. (2018). Untangling the concept of coercive control: Theorizing domestic violent crime. *Criminology & Criminal Justice* 1–22, p. 1-22. Retrieved from: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1748895817743541>
- Walby, S., Allen, J. (2004) Domestic violence, sexual assault and stalking: Findings from the British Crime Survey. Home Office Research Study 276; Home Office Research, Development and Statistics Directorate. ISBN 1 84473 177.4
- Walker, L. E. (1977). Who Are the Battered Women? *Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies* Vol. 2, No. 1, 52–57. DOI: [10.2307/3346107](https://doi.org/10.2307/3346107)
- Walker, L. E. (1979). The Battered woman. New York: Harper 7 Row.
- Walker, L.E. (2006). Battered Woman Syndrome. Empirical Findings. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* Volume 1087, Issue 1. <https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1385.023>
- Wierchowski, P. (2016). „Czarny poniedziałek”: Skąd ta akcja i na czym polega? [“Black Monday”: What is the action all about?]. *Polityka*, Retrieved from: <https://www.polityka.pl/tygodnikpolityka/kraj/1677904,1,czarny-poniedzialek-skad-ta-akcja-i-na-czym-polega.read>
- Wittenberg, A. (2012). Aborcyjny kompromis zgnił. Dowodzi tego głosowanie ws. zaostrzenia ustawy antyaborcyjnej. [Abortion compromise has rotten]. *NaTemat*. Retrieved from: <https://natemat.pl/35101,aborcyjny-kompromis-zgnil-dowodzi-tego-glosowanie-ws-zaostrzenia-ustawy-antyaborcyjnej>
- Winstock, Z, Sowan-Barheer, W. (2015). Does psychological violence contribute to partner violence research? A historical, conceptual and critical review, *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 21 (2015) 5–16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2015.01.003>
- Women's Aid (2020). What is coercive control?, Retrieved from: <https://www.womensaid.org.uk/information-support/what-is-domestic-abuse/coercive-control/>
- Women's Aid. (2019). The Survivor's Handbook. Retrieved from: <https://www.womensaid.org.uk/the-survivors-handbook/>
- Worcester, N. (2002). Women's Use of Force. *Violence Against Women*, Vol.8 No.11, 1390-1415; DOI: [10.1177/107780102237409](https://doi.org/10.1177/107780102237409)
- World Health Organization. (2002). World report on violence and health: Chapter 3 child abuse and neglect by parents and other caregivers. Geneva, Switzerland. Retrieved from: https://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/world_report/en/full_en.pdf

World Economic Forum. (2019). The Global Gender Gap Report 2018. Insight Report. World Economic Forum. Retrieved from: <https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-global-gender-gap-report-2018>

World Happiness Report. (2019). WER 2019. Retrieved from: <https://worldhappiness.report/ed/2019/#read>

Wrona, G. (2016). Konflikt a przemoc. Zastosowanie art. 207 §1 KK w przeciwdziałaniu przemocy w rodzinie. [Conflict and Abuse. The use of art. 207 §1 of Polish Penal Code in the counteracting the family violence]. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Warsaw, Poland. Retrieved from: <https://depotuw.ceon.pl/handle/item/2167>

Yardley, E., et al. (2018). Footballer, rich man, celebrity, consumer: Media blindness and denial of domestic abuse in Stephanie Ward and Danny Simpson case. *Crime, Media, Culture*, 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741659018797987>

Yllo, K. (1984). The status of Women, Marital Equality, and Violence Against Wives. A contextual Analysis. *Journal of Family Issues*, Vol. 5 No. 3, 307-320. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019251384005003002>

Yyh-Yaw and Gilles (2004). Gender Convergence in crime: Evidence from Canadian adult offence charge data. *Journal of Criminal Justice* 32, 593-606. Elsevier Ltd. [Doi:10.106/j.cimjus.2004.08.005](https://doi.org/10.106/j.cimjus.2004.08.005)

Zakład Ubezpieczeń Społecznych (ZUS). (2019). Rodzicielskie świadczenie uzupełniające - MAMA 4+ [Additional parental benefit MOTHER 4+]. Retrieved from: <https://www.zus.pl/baza-wiedzy/biezace-wyjasnienia-komerek-merytorycznych/swiadczenia/-/publisher/details/1/rodzicielskie-swiaczenie-uzupelniajace-mama-4-/2200117>

Zawartka, M. (2017) Tactics and Methods for taking the evidence from the personal sources of evidence. Authorised and prohibited methods, *Zeszyty Naukowe Zbliżenia Cywilizacyjne XIII* (2)/201 p. 91-97. Retrieved from: <http://wyd.edu.pl/index.php/2-uncategorised/236-taktyka-i-metody-przeprowadzania-dowodow-z-osobowych-zrodel-dowodowych-metody-dozwolone-oraz-niedozwolone>.

Zawistowska, A. (2015). Rozbieżność struktury wykształcenia kobiet i mężczyzn w PRL. Pomiedzy polityka państwa a indywidualnymi wyborami edukacyjnymi. [The discrepancy between the structure of education of men and women in the Polish People's Republic. Between the government politics and individual choices]. *Roczniki Dziejów Społecznych i Gospodarczych*, Tom LXXV p. 166-190

Zoll, A. et al. (2011). Kodeks Karny [The Penal Code, vol. I, vol. II]. Wolters Kluwer

Zukowska, D. (2004). Przemoc kobiet wobec mężczyzn w stałych związkach partnerskich [Female-perpetrated and male-directed domestic violence in the long-term relationships]. (Unpublished master's thesis) University of Wrocław, Wrocław, Poland

Appendices

Chapter 3

Ch.3 Appendix 1: Information on the Blue Card Forms

Form A

To be filled in by a police officer social worker, probation officer or an employee of a non-governmental organisation designated to provide aid to the victims of domestic violence during an interview with aggrieved party or a witness who decided to report it. The form can be also filled in during or after police intervention.

The form is 7 pages long and consists of 21 sections.

Section 1: basic information about a person who may be victim of the domestic violence or abuse: name, permanent and current address, telephone number

Section 2: basic information regarding a person who makes a call (including his or her name, address and contact details, relationship with the suspected victim)

Section 3: basic information regarding a person who may be a perpetrator of domestic violence or abuse

Section 4: a table with types of physical, psychological, sexual or other abuse to tick by a person recording a report.

Section 5: to record since when the abuse takes place

Section 6: a table to record the behaviour of an alleged victim and of an alleged perpetrator.

Section 7: description of a crime scene including whether any person involved is acting under the influence of alcohol.

Section 8: names, addresses and contact details of the witnesses

Section 9: information whether an alleged perpetrator has been convicted of domestic abuse before (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 10: information whether an alleged perpetrator is currently being under the care of probation officer (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 11: information whether an alleged perpetrator has a problem with alcohol abuse (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 12: information whether an alleged perpetrator has a problem with substance abuse (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 13: information whether an alleged perpetrator has been under a care of a psychiatrist (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 14: information whether an alleged perpetrator owns offensive weapons (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 15: information whether in regards to the domestic violence or abuse the following actions have been taken (to tick the appropriate): Police notified, Prosecutor Services notified, arrest of an alleged perpetrator, police supervision, occupation order issued, non-molestation order issued, restraining order issued, provisional custody issued, initiation of criminal proceedings, divorce or other by the Criminal or Family Court, parental responsibility restrained and delivered under the supervision of court-appointed guardian, court ordered drug or alcohol rehabilitation (victim or perpetrator?), voluntary drug or alcohol rehabilitation (victim or perpetrator?), court-ordered or voluntary therapy to better behaviour (what kind), medical help provided, other

Section 16: Actions taken by Police towards the perpetrator, towards the victim (table with options to tick)

Section 17: information about the family, where the abuse is suspected to take place (table to fill in; information about the names, degree of kinship, age, occupation)

Section 18: information regarding the state of health of an alleged victim (mental state; communication; type of the physical damage; state of hygiene, other suspicions regarding the possible violence or neglect –choice of options); Are the injuries consistent with the information provided by an alleged victim/ parent or a carer for a child (yes/no); the necessity of medical examination (yes/no); type medical treatment provided (choice of options); information about the possibility of getting medical documentation about the injuries and medical leave (choice of options)

Section 19: types of actions taken during an intervention (choice of options for the following subsections: securing the victims safety; securing the safety of children in the household, passing the information to the authority responsible for the prosecution, other)

Section 20: conclusions

Section 21: additional information

Form B

To be collected by the aggrieved party.

The form is 4 pages long and consists of the information about what domestic abuse is, the actions that could be taken to stop it, the duties of Police and Prosecutor Services towards its victims, and legal information regarding the penal code descriptions. It consists of 2 additional sections:

Section 1: information about the course of an incident of violence (who the perpetrator is, when and where an incident took place; the witnesses and/or other persons involved; whether Police was informed or intervened; how often does abuse occur, when did it happen before; whether the violence is accompanied with the alcohol consumption or abuse; whether abuse is perpetrated by the same person each time; was the perpetrator sentenced for abuse before; has the perpetrator been under the care of court-appointed guardian/case worker

Section 2: information about the places where aid for the victims of domestic violence and abuse is provided and space for an information whether the victims has already contacted any of the institutions and organisations. The list of local institutions and organisations including the telephone numbers, addresses and e-mails.

Form C

To be filled by the interdisciplinary panel in order to analyse situation. Information is to be provided by an alleged victim during an interview before the panel.

The form is 4 pages long and consists of 10 sections.

Section 1: Information whether the alleged perpetrator and victim are the same persons as stated in the Form A

Section 2: New information about the alleged victim of domestic violence in regard to his or her name, address, contact number, if different than in Form A

Section 3: new information about the alleged perpetrator of domestic violence in regards to his or her name, address, contact number, if different than in Form A

Section 4: Information about the alleged victim of domestic violence in regard to his or her family situation, occupational situation, economic situation, housing situation, health situation, the situation of children

Section 5: Individually tailored plan of aid for the alleged victim (by the units of Communal or Municipal Welfare, Police, communal unit for solving the substance abuse problems, additional help for children of an abused person provided by the school, Family Court, health care; the members of interdisciplinary panel).

Section 6: Information about the commitments made by an alleged victim in regard to his or her situation

Section 7: Information about how often the situation of an alleged victim will be assessed (once a week/ once a month/ once every 3 months/ other -to specify)

Section 8: Verification of an individual plan of aid for an alleged victim of domestic violence or abuse

Section 9: Whether the information been passed onto Police or Prosecutor Service (yes/no)

Section 10: Whether new incidents occurred during the procedure implementation (yes/no; details)

Form D

To be filled by the interdisciplinary panel in order to review the situation. Information is to be provided by an alleged perpetrator during an interview before the panel.

The form is 4 pages long and consists of 15 sections.

Section 1: Information whether the alleged perpetrator and victim are the same persons as stated in the Form A; occupation and employment

Section 2: Information whether an alleged perpetrator shows the following behaviours (a table with types of physical, psychological, sexual or other abuse to tick by a person recording a review information)

Section 3: Information since when the behaviours recorded in the previous section take place

Section 4: Whether there are any witnesses of abuse (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 5: Has an alleged perpetrator ever been convicted for assault (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 6: Has an alleged perpetrator ever been put under the care of a court-appointed guardian (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish)

Section 7: Has an alleged perpetrator got a problem with the alcohol abuse (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish; details)

Section 8: Has an alleged perpetrator got a problem with the substance abuse (Yes/ no/ impossible to establish; details)

Section 9: Has an alleged perpetrator ever been undergoing drug rehabilitation (if yes –details)

Section 10: Have the situation of domestic violence by an alleged perpetrator ever been reported (Police/ Prosecutor Services/ been officially investigated/ the alleged perpetrator committed him or herself to the therapy/ aid form other institutions and organisation have been provided; details if applicable)

Section 11: Has an alleged perpetrator's problems with the substance abuse ever caused (breaking the law/ problems at work place/ traffic offences prosecution/ detention at the sober-up station)

Section 12: How does an alleged perpetrator judge his or her situation? Does he or she recognises anything worrying?

Section 13: Possible actions to provide an individual plan of aid for an alleged perpetrator of domestic violence or abuse

Section 14: Information about the commitments made by an alleged perpetrator in regard to his or her situation

Section 15: Verification of an individual plan of aid for an alleged perpetrator of domestic violence or abuse (to be performed: once a week/ once a month/ once every 3 months/ other –details).

Ch.3 Appendix 2: Instructions for the aggrieved party's principal rights and duties

1.Principal rights of the aggrieved party.

- The aggrieved party in the preparatory proceedings is the party entitled to act on his own behalf and in accordance with his/her own business (art 299 § 1 of c.p.c)
- In case the aggrieved party is a minor or totally or partly incapacitated person, his/her rights are executed by a statutory representative or a person under whose constant care he/she remains (art 51 § 2 of c.p.c.)
 - In case the aggrieved party is handicapped due to old age or poor health, his/her rights may be executed by a person under whose care he/she remains (art 51 § 3 of c.p.c.)
 - In case of the aggrieved party's death the rights that he/she would be entitled to may be executed by next of kin and in their absence or lack of disclosure – a court appointed prosecutor (art. 52 of c.p.c.)
 - If the aggrieved party is not a natural person the legal proceedings are performed by an organ entitled to act on his/her behalf (art. 51 § 1 of c.p.c.) The aggrieved party may, in the course of penal proceedings appoint his/her plenipotentiary (art 87 § 1 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party may apply for exclusion of the judge, prosecutor, other persons conducting preparatory proceedings and other public prosecutors if there is a justified doubt about impartiality in a given case art 42 § 1 of c.p.c., art. 47 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party may apply to the prosecutor (in preparatory proceedings) or the court (in court proceedings) for appointment of a court appointed plenipotentiary if he/she appropriately proves his/her inability to bear the cost associated with power of attorney without harm to indispensable maintenance of his/her family (art. 87 § 1 and 88 § 1 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party or the state, self-government or social institution which reported a crime is entitled to lodge a complaint for not launching the inquiry or investigation and the parties for decision of discontinuance. Those entitled to lodging a complaint have the right to browse the acts (art. 306 § 1, 325a of c.p.c)

- The person or institution which reported a crime is entitled to submitting a complaint to superior prosecutor or the one supervising the organ which received the report if it is not notified within 6 weeks about the start or refusal to start the inquiry or investigation (art. 306 § 3, 325a of c.p.c.)
- If the aggrieved party applies for pursuit of some perpetrators the duty to prosecute involves also other persons whose unlawful acts remain in close association with the deed of a person indicated in the application. This rule does not concern close relatives of the person submitting the application (art. 12 § 2 of c.p.c.) The application may be withdrawn during preparatory proceedings with the prosecutor's consent and in court proceeding with the court's permission – until the beginning of court proceedings on the first main trial. This does not apply to crimes defined in art. 197 of penal code (art. 12 § 3 of c.p.c.)
- If the aggrieved party is below 15 years of age, the proceeding with his/her participation should be, as far as it is possible, performed in the presence of a statutory representative or actual guardian, unless it is against the interest of the proceeding (art. 171 § 3 of c.p.c.)
- In cases concerning crimes specified in chapter XXV of the Penal Code (against sexual freedom and decency) the aggrieved party who at the time of crime is under 15 years of age should be interrogated as a witness only once, unless essential circumstances emerge which call for renewed interrogation, or the interrogation is requested by the suspect who did not have his defense lawyer during the first hearing (art. 185A § 1 of c.p.c.).
- If there is a justified fear of using force or unlawful threat against the aggrieved party he/she may reveal the data concerning his/her place of residence for the sole information of the court or the prosecutor. In a case like this the correspondence is delivered to the institution where the aggrieved party is employed or to another indicated address (art. 191 § 3 of c.p.c.)
- In case a presentation of the suspected person takes place, the aggrieved party may require that this presentation be carried out in a way excluding the possibility of revealing the identity of the aggrieved party (art. 173 § 2 of c.p.c.)
- Interrogation of the aggrieved party as a witness may be accomplished by means of technical devices that make this possible from a distance (art. 177 § 1a of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party who is not able to turn up due to illness, physical disability, or other insurmountable obstacles may be interrogated at his place of residence (art. 177 § 2 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party may apply for conducting acts of inquiry or investigation (art. 315 § 1, 325a of c.p.c.)
- If inquiry or investigation cannot be repeated during the trial, the aggrieved party and his/her statutory representative may be admitted to this activity unless the delay results in loss or distortion of evidence. The organ conducting the preparatory proceedings may also let the aggrieved party participate in other acts of inquiry and investigation. (art. 316 § 1, 317, 352a of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party, in the course of inquiry or investigation may approach the court with a demand that a witness be interrogated, if there is a danger the witness could not be interrogated during the trial (art. 316 § 3 of c.p.c.)
- The organ conducting preparatory proceedings is obliged to deliver a copy of decision accepting evidence from legal experts, scientific or specialist institutions and give permission to participate in the interrogation of the expert, and to get acquainted with the opinion, if it was submitted in the written form (art. 318 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party who participates in the proceedings, may while signing the record,

raise objections to its content (art. 150 § 2 of c.p.c.).

- The aggrieved party has the right to prepare a copy of the record of proceedings in which he/she participated or was entitled to participate, as well as the documents coming from him/her or prepared with his participation (art 157 § 3 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party has the right to obtain at his/her own expense one copy of audio or video recording of legal proceedings (art. 147 § 4 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party with the consent of the person conducting the proceedings, may during the preparatory proceedings look through the records and make copies, and also he/she may submit a complaint if the records of the proceedings are made unavailable (art. 156 § 1, 159 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party may apply, at his/her own expense, for photocopies of the records and with the consent of the person conducting the preparatory proceedings he/she may obtain certified copies or photocopies (art. 156 § 2 and 5 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party may complain about acts other than decisions and regulations violating his rights (art. 302 § 2 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party may apply for, or express agreement to the accused person's application for directing the case to a trustworthy institution or person to conduct mediation (art. 23A § 1 of c.p.c.)
- The aggrieved party may press charges of offence prosecuted by the public prosecutor in case of repeated refusal to commence or discontinuation of legal proceedings. The deadline for pressing charges is one month from the date of notifying the aggrieved party about the decision. The indictment should be prepared and signed by a lawyer (art. 55 § 1 and 2 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party after the charges have been pressed by the public prosecutor may until the trial begins submit a statement that he/she wishes to act as an auxiliary prosecutor (art. 53 and 544 of c.p.c) or civil plaintiff (art. 62 of c.p.c.) If he/she comes with civil action during the preparatory proceeding he/she may require a warranty (art. 69 § 2 and 3 of c.p.c.)
- In case of discontinuance or suspension of preparatory proceedings in which civil action was announced, the aggrieved party within 30 days after the decision was delivered may demand the case be transferred to the court proper for examining civil cases (art. 69 § 4 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party as an auxiliary prosecutor has the right to submit motions as to evidence, be present during the entire trial, direct questions to persons under interrogation, and launch an appeal. If the sentence was pronounced by the district court – the appeal must be prepared and signed by a lawyer (art. 446 of c.p.c.).
- If the civil action was not brought forward, the aggrieved party may, until the end of his/her first interrogation at the main hearing, apply for pronouncing the obligation to repair the inflicted damages completely or partially. The aggrieved party (or another authorized person) has the right to come with the same motion to court in case the perpetrator was sentenced for the act defined in art 46 § 1 of Penal Code. (art 49a of c.p.c.)

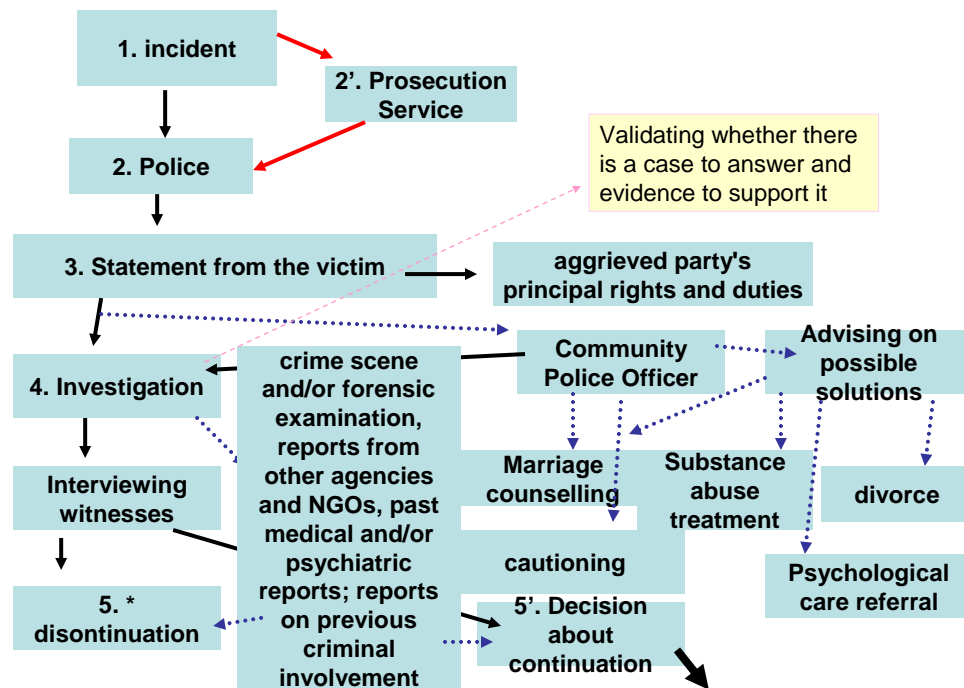
2. Basic duties of the aggrieved party:

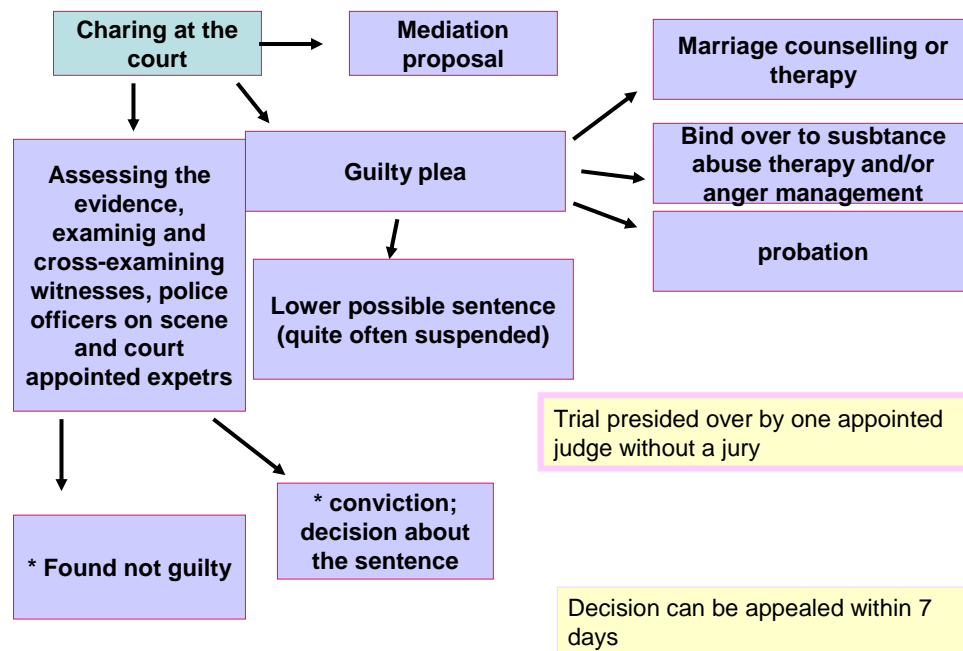
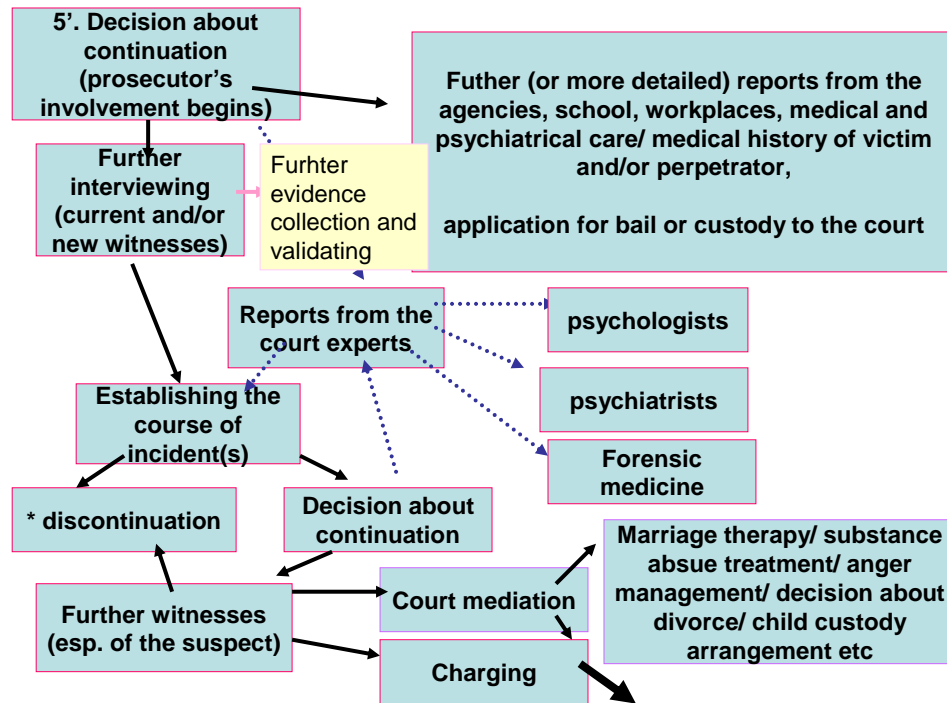
- The aggrieved party is obliged to turn up at each summons of the organ conducting the proceedings (art. 177 § 1 of c.p.c). The aggrieved party who without justification failed to turn up in response to the summons issued by the organ conducting the proceedings or without the permission of the aforementioned organ left the place before termination of the proceedings may be subject to a fine of 3000 PLN. Furthermore he/she may be detained and brought along by force (art. 285 § 1 and 2 of c.p.c.)

- If penalty depends upon the aggrieved party's health he/she has no right to object to medical examinations and tests not connected with surgery, or observations in a medical center (art. 192 § 1 and 3 of c.p.c.) In case of doubts as to the psychic state of the aggrieved party, his/her mental development, power of observation or ability to reconstruct events, the court or the prosecutor may order his/her interrogation with the presence of a physician or psychologist (art. 192 § 2 of c.p.c.).
 - In order to reduce the number of suspected people or to determine the evidence value of revealed traces, it is possible to take from the aggrieved party: fingerprints, mouth smears, samples of hair, saliva, writing, and scent. It is also legal to take a photograph and record voice samples (art. 192A § 1 of c.p.c.).
- The aggrieved party living abroad is obliged to indicate an address in Poland so that correspondence may be delivered. If the aggrieved party fails to do so, the last letter sent to the last known address, or if the address does not exist the letter attached to the records is considered to be delivered (art. 138 of c.p.c.).
- If the aggrieved party fails to provide a new address, changes the place of residence or sojourn under the indicated address, the letter is considered to have been delivered (art. 139 § 1 of c.p.c.).
- I hereby declare that I have acquainted myself with the above rights and duties and acknowledge receipt of the copy.

Day Month Year Signature

Ch.3 Appendix 3: A model of the Criminal Proceedings in Poland





Chapter 5

Ch.5 Appendix 1: Variables recorded in the database and used in the data analysis

- Place from where the sample was taken; identified as Lublin or Warsaw (each prosecutor's office or court was given its own numerical value)
- Information whether the woman abused alone or with the help of accomplices. If so, the groups of accomplices were identified. Accomplices were assigned into five categories with different numerical values.
- Type of relationship; identified as: marriage, cohabitation, undergoing or planning a divorce or separation, separated, divorced
- Information whether the alleged perpetrator and victim occupied the same property during the course of abuse.
- Information whether the victim shared accommodation with other family members
- Man's and woman's age in years
- Age difference between the partners in years
- Man's and woman's education level assigned to one of the five groups: elementary, vocational training completed, technical school graduated, equivalent to A-levels completed, college or university graduated
- Relative difference in income between the woman and her partner assigned into one of five categories: much lower/lower, approximately equal, higher/much higher
- Information whether man or woman acted under the influence of alcohol
- Whether the abuse occurred once or was subsequent

- The length of time the alleged abuse takes place (in years and months and divided into seven categories⁸⁴)
- Time taken for the completion of the legal proceedings (in years and months and divided into eight categories⁸⁵)
- Polish Penal Code qualification of the case reported, as the violence/abuse could fall under one or more of three paragraphs: article 207 (abuse), article 157 (bodily harm) and article 156 (grave bodily harm)
- Number of legal proceedings during processing of the case
- Information whether the alleged victim was interviewed by the police
- Information whether the alleged perpetrator was interviewed by the police
- Information whether the witnesses were interviewed by the police
- Number of witnesses reported for the case
- Categories of witnesses, falling into one of seventeen categories⁸⁶, some of which include the types of expert witnesses (Judicial System appointed specialists)
- Information whether the key witnesses (court-appointed specialists) were consulted during the judicial proceedings
- Information whether the alleged perpetrator was cautioned by the police
- Information whether the complaint/ reported case was withdrawn by the victim
- Information on the outcome of the case
- Information whether the legal qualification of the case was changed during the course of proceedings
- Information whether the final decision was appealed

⁸⁴ Less than a year; 1-3 years; 4-6 years; 7-10 years; 11-15 years; 16-20 years; more than 20 years

⁸⁵ up to 1 month; 1-3 months; 4-6 months; 7-12 months; 13-24 months; between 25 months and 3 years; between 37 months and 4 years; more than 4 years

⁸⁶ Police officers, forensic medicine doctor (dealing with the injuries assessment), psychologist/psychiatrist, man's family members, woman's family members, children of the couple, her children, his children, neighbour/neighbours, his new partner, her new partner, his co-workers, her co-workers, friends of the family, his friends, her friends, more than 1 type of witnesses

- The number of time the decision was appealed
- Basic division into the types of abuse; with the categories: physical, psychological/verbal or both kinds of abuse
- Types of physical abuse with the numbers assigned to the categories (Appendix 1)
- Other types of abuse not listed in the modified Conflict Tactics Scale used; whether they are present or not
- Other types of abuse split into categories⁸⁷
- Whether or not the verbal/emotional abuse takes place
- Types of verbal/psychological abuse in categories (Appendix 2)
- Information whether the reasons for abuse were reported
- For each reasons for abuse the occurrence and perpetration was reported (not occurring; perpetrated by woman; perpetrated by man' perpetrated by both parties involved)
- Additional reasons for abuse, whether they are present or absent
- Number of children
- Sex of children; with numerical values assigned to the categories: a boy; a girl; a boy and a girl; boys; girls
- Ages of children divided into categories based on age⁸⁸
- Information on the presence of children from the previous relationships with the categories: not present; man's; woman's; man's and woman's from the previous relationships; woman's from the previous relationships and woman's and man's together
- Information whether woman's abuse of children was reported
- Information whether man's abuse of children was reported

⁸⁷ twisting hands/fingers, scratching, biting, pinching, pulling hair, spitting on a man, grabbing and restraining or hitting the grabbed body part onto something hard, destroying his/ their property, threatening/attempting to kill herself, having someone else to beat/hit the man, various additional categories, other/not mentioned on the list

⁸⁸ all up to 10 years, all up to 15 years; all up to 16-20 years; all up to 25 and more and studying/dependent; adult, not dependent/ living with parents; adult; living separately; children of different age groups

- Information about the existence of the Blue Card procedure; the program used to tackle and aid the victims of domestic violence in Poland; with the categories: absent; started on man's behalf as alleged victim; started on behalf of the alleged perpetrator; started on the behalf of both parties

Ch.5 Appendix 2: Access Letters

1a. Letter of data access request to the Lublin District of Public Prosecution Office



Durham
University

School of Applied Social Sciences

Shaped by the past, creating the future

09/05/2012

Lublin District Director of Public Prosecutions Office

Dear Sir,

I would like to ask your permission for granting the access to marital violence data from legal and criminal proceedings files (articles 156, 157, 207 as well as 197 § 1 and § 4 of the Polish Penal Code) in the Świdnik District Prosecutions Office, Lublin District Prosecutions Office, Lublin –North Prosecutions Office and Lublin –South

Access to the criminal proceedings files is essential to completing my PhD in Evolutionary Anthropology / Applied Social Sciences at the University of Durham as in my research I am going to analyse the reasons for marital violence perpetrated by women in Poland. The research is to be performed and data collected in accordance with Durham University's Ethical Protocol and the British Sociological Association Code of Ethical Practice.

The Ethical Clearance for this research has already been granted by Durham University.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Yours,

Dorota Zukowska

Dorota Zukowska

I would like to support the request of my student

E. C. Seal

Dr Elisabeth Seal (PhD supervisor)

Robert Barton

Professor Robert Barton (PhD supervisor)

1b. Letter of the data access request to the Lublin District Court Judge



Shaped by the past, creating the future

09/05/2012

Lublin District Court Judge

Dear Sir,

I would like to ask you for granting the access to marital violence data from the criminal proceedings files (articles 156, 157, 207 as well as 197 § 1 and § 4 of the Polish Penal Code) in the Lublin- East District Court in Świdnik, the Lublin- West District Court in Lublin.

Access to the criminal proceedings files is essential to completing my PhD in Evolutionary Anthropology / Social Applied Sciences at the University of Durham as in my research I am going to analyse the reasons for martial violence perpetrated by women in Poland. The research is to be performed and data collected in accordance with Durham University's Ethical Protocol and the British Sociological Association's Code of Ethical Practice.

The Ethical Clearance for this research has already been granted by Durham University.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Yours,

Dorota Zukowska

Dorota Zukowska

I would like to support the request of my student

E. C. Seal

Dr Elisabeth Seal (PhD supervisor)

Robert Barton

Professor Robert Barton (PhD supervisor)

**1d. Letter granting the access to data at the Regional Prosecutor's Office
(in Polish)**



PROKURATURA REJONOWA
W LUBLINIE

ul. Chmielna 10, 20-938 Lublin

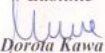
tel. (081) 536-23-06, fax (081) 536-23-00

Lublin, dnia 12 czerwca 2012r.

RA 073/7/12
Dot. I A 070/62/12

Pani
Dorota Żukowska
doktorantka Uniwersytetu Durham
32 Old Elvet, Durham, DH1 3HN

Odpowiadając na Pani pismo z dnia 8 czerwca 2012r. adresowane do Prokuratora Okręgowego w Lublinie, które przekazano do Prokuratury Rejonowej w Lublinie informuję, iż nie ma przeszkód aby przeprowadzała Pani analizę akt tutejszej jednostki o ile odszuka Pani interesujące je postępowania i samodzielnie wyszuka żądane dane.

Prokurator Rejonowy
w Lublinie

(Dorota Kawa)

1e. Letter granting the access to data at the Lublin-North Prosecutor's Office (in Polish)



PROKURATURA REJONOWA
LUBLIN – PÓŁNOC
W LUBLINIE

20 - 950 Lublin • ul. Okopowa 2a
tel 0815288251 • fax 0815349704

13

Lublin, dnia lipca 2012 r.

RA 072/86/12

Pani
Dr Elisabeth Seal
(dla Pani Doroty Żukowskiej)
Durham University
32 Old Elvet, Durham, DH1 3HN

W nawiązaniu do prośby Pani Doroty Żukowskiej o udostępnienie danych znajdujących się w aktach postępowań przygotowawczych dot. przemocy kobiet wobec partnerów w długotrwałych związkach heteroseksualnych informuję, że w tut. jednostce od 2006 roku zarejestrowano 111 spraw w tym zakresie.

W związku z powyższym wyrażam zgodę na udostępnienie Pani akt spraw zakończonych postanowieniem o odmowie wszczęcia postępowania (55 spraw), postanowieniem o umorzeniu postępowania (39 spraw), natomiast sprawy zakończone skierowaniem do sądu aktu oskarżenia (17 spraw) mogą zostać Pani udostępnione jedynie przez sąd.

Jednocześnie nadmieniam, iż z w/w aktami spraw może się Pani zapoznać w siedzibie tut. prokuratury, po uprzednim uzgodnieniu terminu.

Prokurator Rejonowy
Lublin-Północ w Lublinie
Jadwiga Nowak

1f. Letter granting the access to data at the Lublin-East Court (in Polish)



PREZES
SĄDU REJONOWEGO
LUBLIN-WSCHÓD
W LUBLINIE
Z SIEDZIBĄ W ŚWIDNIKU

21-040 Świdnik, ul. K. Wyszyńskiego 18 - tel. 81 46 48 712, 46 48 713, 46 48 714 – fax. 81 46 48 833, e-mail: sek@lublin-wschod.sr.gov.pl

Świdnik, dnia 23 maja 2012 r.
LW. Adm. 0122-136/12-Og. K

~~Państwo~~
~~Przewodniczący~~
~~II i III Wydziału Karnego~~
~~w/m~~

W załączeniu przekazuję kserokopię wniosku p. Doroty Żukowskiej z dnia 9 maja 2012 r. w przedmiocie udostępnienia danych dotyczących spraw o czyny z art. 156 kk, 157 kk, 207 kk, 197 § 1 i § 4 kk i jednocześnie uprzejmie informuję, iż zgodnie z art. 158 § 1 kpk wyrażam zgodę na udostępnienie akt o jakich mowa we wniosku do wglądu.

Załącznik: 1

Do wiadomości:
p. Dorota Żukowska
Durham University
32 Old Elvet, Durham, DH1 3HN
Wielka Brytania

AŻ/ds.

Prezes Sądu Rejonowego
Lublin-Wschód w Lublinie
z siedzibą w Świdniku

Artur Żuk

1g. Letter granting the access to data at the Lublin-West Court (in Polish)



**PREZES
SĄDU REJONOWEGO
LUBLIN – ZACHÓD
w LUBLINIE**

20-950 Lublin, ul. Krakowskie Przedmieście 76 • tel: 0814647400 • fax: 0814647401 • sek@lublin-zachod.ar.gov.pl
• www.lublin-zachod.sr.gov.pl

Adm. 0471- 9/12

Lublin, dnia 11 czerwca 2012 r.

Pani Dorota Żukowska
Durham University
32 Old Elvet, Durham, DH1 3HN
Wielka Brytania

W odpowiedzi na Pani prośbę o udostępnienie danych uprzejmie informuję, że wyrażam zgodę na udostępnienie akt spraw sądowych zgodnie z wnioskiem tj. akta spraw o czyny z art. 156, art. 157, art. 207, art. 197 § 1 i § 4 kk.

W archiwum sądu oraz w sekretariatach wydziałów karnych zostaną udostępnione repertoria, z których będzie Pani mogła wybrać przydatne do analizy akta spraw. Na podstawie przygotowanej przez Panią listy spraw pracownicy archiwum odszukają wskazane akta w zasobie archiwalnym i udostępnią.

Proszę o wcześniejsze poinformowanie, w jakim okresie będzie Pani korzystać z przedmiotowych akt, z uwagi na konieczność wystawienia dla Pani upoważnienia do przetwarzania danych osobowych.

MPS/ww

**PREZES SĄDU REJONOWEGO
LUBLIN-ZACHÓD W LUBLINIE**

w/z 
**MARTA POSTULSKA-SIWEK
WICEPREZES**

Do wiadomości:

- Wydziały Karne – III, IV, IX,
- Archiwum;

2a. Access request letter to the Public Prosecution office in Warsaw

Durham, 02/07/2012

Warsaw District Director of Public Prosecutions Office

Dear Sir,

I would like to ask you for granting the access to marital violence data from legal and criminal proceedings files (articles 156, 157, 207 as well as 197 § 1 and § 4 of the Polish Penal Code) in the Warsaw District Prosecutions Offices.

Access to the criminal proceedings files mentioned above is essential to completing my PhD in Evolutionary Anthropology / Applied Social Sciences at the University of Durham as in my research I am going to analyse the reasons for martial violence perpetrated by women in Poland.

My research, which is based on the pilot study from of court and prosecutor office data from Wroclaw, is the very first analysis of marital abuse of men based on the cases reported to the justice system and analysis of the severity and rationales behind female-perpetrated abuse in the last 15 years.

Using data from the samples from prosecutor offices and courts in Lublin (access granted) and Warsaw I will analyse and attempt to make conclusions regarding the influence of socio-economical changes, age, education, income differences between the partners and number of children on the occurrence and severity of the phenomenon. I am also planning to verify the applicability of judicial system sample to the general Polish population.

The goal of my research is raising awareness of the occurrence and severity of male directed and female-perpetrated marital abuse in Poland, which would hopefully be the base for the general population studies as well as aid and counselling programmes for male victims of marital violence. In order to perform the analysis, I would not need the personal information except the place of residence (town, village or city), age, education and the income differences of partners. I would also like to have an access to the interviews of alleged perpetrators, victims and witnesses.

The research is to be performed and data collected in accordance with Durham University's Ethical Protocol and the British Sociological Association Code of Ethical Practice. The Ethical Clearance for this research has already been considered and granted.

I include the *pro forma* I am planning to use for data collection.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Yours,

Dorota Zukowska

I would like to support the request of my student

Dr Elisabeth Seal (PhD supervisor)

Professor Robert Barton (PhD supervisor)

2b. Access request letter to the Warsaw District Court in Warsaw



Durham
University

School of Applied Social Sciences

Shaped by the past, creating the future

Durham, 02/07/2012

Małgorzata Kluziak
Warsaw District Court Judge

Dear Ms Kluziak,

I would like to ask you for granting the access to marital violence data from the criminal proceedings files (articles 156, 157, 207 as well as 197 § 1 and § 4 of the Polish Penal Code) from the District Courts in Warsaw.

Access to the criminal proceedings files mentioned above is essential to completing my PhD in Evolutionary Anthropology / Applied Social Sciences at the University of Durham as in my research I am going to analyse the reasons for marital violence perpetrated by women in Poland.

My research, which is based on the pilot study from of court and prosecutor office data from Wrocław, is the very first analysis of marital abuse of men based on the cases reported to the justice system and analysis of the severity and rationales behind female-perpetrated abuse in the last 15 years.

Using data from the samples from prosecutor offices and courts in Lublin (access granted) and Warsaw I will analyse and attempt to make conclusions regarding the influence of socio-economical changes, age, education, income differences between the partners and number of children on the occurrence and severity of the phenomenon. I am also planning to verify the applicability of judicial system sample to the general Polish population.

The goal of my research is raising awareness of the occurrence and severity of male directed and female-perpetrated marital abuse in Poland, which would hopefully be the base for the general population studies as well as aid and counselling programmes for male victims of marital violence.

In order to perform the analysis, I would not need the personal information except the place of residence (town, village or city), age, education and the income differences of partners. I would also like to have an access to the interviews of alleged perpetrators, victims and witnesses.

The research is to be performed and data collected in accordance with Durham University's Ethical Protocol and the British Sociological Association Code of Ethical Practice. The Ethical Clearance for this research has already been considered and granted.

I include the proforma I am planning to use for data collection.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Yours,

Dorota Zukowska

Dorota Zukowska

I would like to support the request of my student

Dr Elisabeth Seal (PhD supervisor)

E. C. Seal

Professor Robert Barton (PhD supervisor)

Robert Barton

32 Old Elvet, Durham, DH1 3HN

Telephone +44 (0)191 334 6838

www.durham.ac.uk/sass

2c. Letter granting the access to data from the District Prosecutor's Office (in Polish)

PROKURATURA OKRĘGOWA
w Warszawie
WYDZIAŁ I ORGANIZACYJNY
ul. Chałubińskiego 28
00-791 WARSZAWA

I A 06/121/12

Warszawa 13 lipca 2012r.

Pani
Dorota Żukowska
ul. Górnicza 3/24
21-010 Łęczna

W odpowiedzi na pismo z dnia 2 lipca 2012r informuję, że wyrażam zgodę na udostępnienie Pani akt spraw dotyczących postępowań przygotowawczych w sprawach o czyny z art.156, 157, 207 i 197§1 i 4kk pozostających w dyspozycji prokuratur rejonowych okręgu warszawskiego i wykorzystanie danych zebranych według załączonego planu klucza w przygotowywanej pracy doktorskiej w dziedzinie Antropologii Ewolucyjnej i Socjologii.

Jednocześnie informuję Panią o obowiązku zachowania wymogów dotyczących tajemnicy służbowej oraz przetwarzania danych osobowych zgodnie z ustawą z dnia 29 sierpnia 1997r o ochronie danych osobowych (Dz. U.2002r nr.101 poz. 926 t.j.).

Prokurator Okręgowy
w Warszawie

Ryszard Rogatko

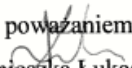
Do wiadomości:
Prokuratorzy Rejonowi
wszyscy

2d. Letter granting the access to data from the District Court Judge (in Polish)

**WICEPREZES
SĄDU REJONOWEGO
dla Warszawy-Śródmieścia
w Warszawie
ul. Marszałkowska 82
00-517 WARSZAWA**
Dnia 12 lipca 2012 roku
Adm 4005-1156/12

Pani Dorota Żukowska

W odpowiedzi na Pani podanie z dnia 2 lipca 2012 roku o udostępnienie akt postępowań przygotowawczych w sprawach o czyny z artykułów 156, 157, 207 oraz 197 § 1 i § 4 kk uprzejmie informuje, iż wyrażam zgodę na powyższe pod warunkiem okazania oryginału dokumentu (zaświadczenia) z uczelni potwierdzającego fakt przygotowywania pracy naukowej.

Z poważaniem

Agnieszka Łukaszuk

Ch.5 Appendix 3: Declaration of confidentiality (in Polish)

Oświadczenie o poufności / Deklaracja poufności**

IMIĘ I NAZWISKO

.....

STATUS*

.....

oświadczam, że:

- zobowiązuje się do zachowania w tajemnicy wszystkich informacji i dokumentów ujawnionych mi lub wytworzonych przeze mnie lub przygotowanych przeze mnie w trakcie lub jako rezultat oceny i zgadzam się, że informacje te powinny być użyte tylko dla celów niniejszej oceny i nie mogą zostać ujawnione stronom trzecim,
- nie będę zatrzymywać kopii jakichkolwiek pisemnych lub elektronicznych informacji związanych z ocenianymi projektami.

Powyższe zobowiązanie ma charakter bezterminowy i w szczególności dotyczy informacji i dokumentów, które stanowią tajemnice wynikające z przepisów prawa powszechnie obowiązującego.

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Imię i nazwisko | |
| Podpis | |
| Data | |

* ekspert, pracownik IP, obserwator IZ, obserwator MAiC

** niepotrzebne skreślić, oświadczenie o poufności wypełnia ekspert i pracownik IP, natomiast obserwatorzy wypełniają deklarację

Ch.5 Appendix: 4 Data recording *pro forma*

Modified Conflict Tactics Scale used for recording data

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|---|---|--|
| Researcher given number of a case | | Sample from | Lublin/ Lublin MET area/ Warsaw/ Warsaw MET area | | |
| Date of the incident (dd/mm/yy) | | Perpetrator | <u>FEMALE</u> | Subsequent incident | yes /not applicable/ No data |
| Age of perpetrator at a time of abuse | | Under the alcohol influence | yes /not applicable/ No data | Perpetrator's previous long-term relationships | yes /not applicable/ No data |
| Age of victim at a time of abuse | | Under the alcohol influence | yes /not applicable/ No data | Perpetrator's previous long-term relationships | yes /not applicable/ No data |
| Type of relationship | marriage | informal long-term relationship | Ex-marriage | Former informal long-term relationship | |
| Number of years together | | Place of residence | Village/ | Town with population less than 100,000 | City with population more than 100,000 |
| Type of residence | House / Apartment | House or apartment shared with woman's parents | | House or apartment shared with man's parents | |
| Education of a perpetrator | <u>Elementary</u> (up to 16yrs of age) | <u>Vocational training completed</u> (elementary +2-3yrs of education) | <u>Technical school graduated</u> (elementary +4yrs; vocational +2yrs of education) | <u>Equivalent to A levels completed</u> | <u>College or university graduated</u> (A levels +2yrs; A-levels +4yrs of education) |

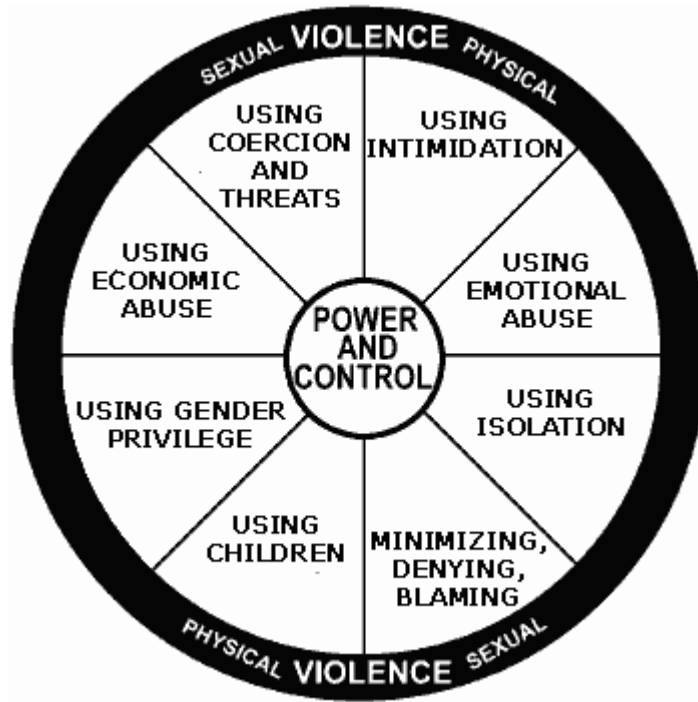
| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|---|---|--|
| Education of a victim | <u>Elementary</u> (up to 16yrs of age) | <u>Vocational training completed</u> (elementary +2-3yrs of education) | <u>Technical school graduated</u> (elementary +4yrs; vocational +2yrs of education) | <u>Equivalent to A levels completed</u> | <u>College or university graduated</u> (A levels +2yrs; A-levels +4yrs of education) |
| Estimated income of perpetrator (in comparison with victim's) | much lower/ lower/ | approx. equal/ | higher/ much higher | Abuse type | Physical/Verbal/ Both |
| Types of physical aggression towards partner | throwing objects/ shaking, pushing | hitting with fist/ kicking/ | threatening with knife, gun or a heavy object/ using knife, gun or a heavy object | | |
| Reasons for female abuse | woman's jealousy | man's adultery | man's jealousy | woman's adultery | woman's self-defense |
| | woman defending children | woman forcing partner to move out (to gain the possession of material items or property) | | withholding financial support by man | budget mismanagement by man (woman expecting more contribution) |
| | budget mismanagement (or withholding financial support) by woman | woman's alcohol problem (or acting under the influence) | | man's alcohol problem (or acting under the influence) | |
| woman's abuse towards children | yes /not applicable/ No data | Type of abuse towards children | Physical/ | Verbal/ | Both |
| | Parentage of children | Children they have together | woman's offspring from previous relationships | man's offspring from previous relationships | From their previous relationships and children they have together |

[illegible]

Ch.5 Appendix 5: Gender neutral Power and Control Wheel

Gender neutral Power and Control Wheel

(from the web page ADVOCATES AGAINST FAMILY VIOLENCE; <http://dvservices.tripod.com/id41.html>)



Ch5 Appendix 6 Categories, types of variables and the coding information

| Label | Coding information | | Data type and measurement scale | Variable type in SPSS |
|-------|--|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Id | Number on my list | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Place | Proc. Office Lublin North=1 Proc. Office Lublin South=2 | Proc. Office Warsaw Wola=3 Proc. Office Warsaw Downtown North=4 Proc. Office Warsaw Ochota=5 Regional Court for City of Warsaw=6 Regional Court for Warsaw Downtown =7 | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |

| | | | | |
|--|---|-----------------------------|---|---------|
| Lone-or-not | Alone=0 With son/s=1; daughter/s=2; children=3; her family=4; others=5 | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| Type of rela-p | Marriage=1; cohabit=2 Undergoing or planning a divorce/separation=3; separated=4' divorced=5; | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| Length of relat | No of years | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Nominal |
| Together; (living in the same property) | Separately =0 | Together =1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Other_people (accommodation shared other people) | No=0 | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Flat (type of residence) | House=0 | Flat =1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Woman_age | No of years | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Man_age | No of years | | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Age diff. | Positive No =man older | Negative No =woman older | Quantitative, Numerical, discrete | Scale |
| Woman_edu | University=2; Secondary=1; primary-vocational =0; | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Man_edu | University=2; Secondary=1; primary-vocational =0; | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Income_diff | Much higher =5 Higher=4 Approx..equal=3; lower=2; much lower =1 | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Woman_alcohol (under the influence) | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Man_alcohol (under the influence) | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Subsequent | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Length of abuse reported (since_when | Less than a year =1; 1-3 years=2; 4-6 years=3; 7-10 years=4; 11-15 years=5; 16-20 years=6; | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |

| | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|--|---------|
| | more than 20 years=7 | | | |
| Qualification (PPC_qualification) | 207.1 =0, 157.1=1; 156.1=2; 190.1=3 | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| No of legal proceedings (legalproceedings) | No; 30and more =30 | | Qualitative' Categorical | Nominal |
| Time taken by the legal proceedings | Up to 4 weeks=0; 1-3 months=1; 4-6 months=2; 7-12 months=3; 13months-1.5 year=4; 1.6-2 years=5; 2.1-3 years=6; 3.1-4 years=7; 4.1 to 5 years =8 | | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Victim interviewed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Suspect interviewed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Witnesses interviewed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative, Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Number of witnesses | Number; | 10 and more=10 | Qualitative, Ordinal | Ordinal |
| Witness categories | None=0 Woman's family member/friends(s)=1; Man's family member/friends(s)= 2 Police officer(s)= 3; Neighbour(s)=4; Children of the couple=5 More than type of witnesses=6 Court appointed specialists =7 | | Qualitative, Categorical | Nominal |
| Court-appointed specialists (Court_Special) | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Caution issued | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Charges | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Complaint withdrawn by the victim | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| How ended | Discontinued=1; Case in progress or charges=2; verdict=3; acquitted =4 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Legal qualification changed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |

| | | | | |
|---|--|---|---------------------------------------|----------------|
| Final decision appealed | No=0; | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| How many times | No=0; rest just numbers | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Complaint truthful | Alleged victim lying=0 Truthful =1; both violent =2 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Abuse type | Physical=0 Psychological/verbal=1; both=2 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| All abuse types | Absent=0; | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Physical violence, categories** | No physical violence =0 Minor violence =1; Moderate violence =2; Minor and moderate violence =3; Severe violence =4; Minor and severe violence =5; Moderate and severe violence =6; Minor, moderate and severe violence =7 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Other types of abuse | Absent=0 | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Abuse type other (other_categories) | No=0; Twisting hands/fingers =1; biting =2; scratching =3; spitting on man= 4; pulling hair=5; sending others to beat man up= 6; threatening with/attempting suicide=7; destroying his property=8; more types together=9; one additional type=10 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Verbal, emotional and/or psychological abuse: -intimidation -emotional abuse -isolation -minimizing, denying, blaming -using children -using gender privilege -economic abuse -coercion and threats -manipulating the system | Absent=0; | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Reasons of abuse | Absent=0; | Present=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| <i>Reasons for abuse, cumulative categories</i> | <i>Jealousy</i> | <i>0= not occurring 1= woman's perpetration</i> | <i>Qualitative Categorical</i> | <i>Nominal</i> |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--|--|--|----------------|
| | | 2= man's <i>perpetration</i> 3= <i>perpetration by both partners</i> | | |
| | <i>Adultery</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>woman's perpetration</i> 2= <i>man's perpetration</i> 3= <i>perpetration by both partners</i> | | |
| | <i>Woman's self defence and defending children</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>woman's self defence</i> 2= <i>woman protecting children</i> 3= <i>self defence and protecting children</i> | | |
| | <i>Forcing a man to move out</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>occurring</i> | | |
| | <i>Financial problems</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>caused by woman's mismanagement</i> 2= <i>caused by man's inadequate support/budget mismanagement</i> 3= <i>caused by both partners</i> | | |
| | <i>Alcohol problems</i> | 0= <i>not occurring</i> 1= <i>woman has an alcohol problems</i> 2= <i>man has an alcohol problem</i> 3= <i>both have an alcohol problem</i> | | |
| <i>Other reasons of abuse</i> | <i>Absent=0</i> | <i>Present=1</i> | <i>Qualitative Categorical, binary</i> | <i>Nominal</i> |
| Number of children | 0 =none, 1= one child; 2=two children 3= three and more children | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Sex of children | Boy=0 Girl=1; boy and girl =2; boys=3; girls=4 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Ages of children | up to 10 years; dependent =0; up to 15; dependent =1; up to 16-20; dependent =2; up to 25 and more; studying/dependent =3; adult; not dependent/ living with parents =4; different ages/categories =5; adult; living separately=6 | | Qualitative Ordinal | Ordinal |
| | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|---|--------|---------------------------------------|---------|
| Children from the previous relationships | No =0; man's=1 Woman's=2; man's & woman's=3; woman's and their own=4 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |
| Woman's abuse of children | No=0; | yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Man's abuse of children | No=0; | yes =1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Blue card male victim | No=0 | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Blue card female victim | No=0 | Yes=1 | Qualitative Categorical, binary | Nominal |
| Blue card | No=0; for man as victim=1 for woman as victim=2; for both as victims=3 | | Qualitative Categorical | Nominal |

** Throwing objects, shaking, pushing, hitting with open hand on the body and hitting with the open hand on the face were aggregated into "minor physical violence" category. Hitting with fist on the body and head and kicking on the legs were aggregated into "moderate physical violence" category. Kicking on the body, kicking on the face, choking, scalding, hitting with objects on the body, hitting with objects on the face/head, threats of using a knife or sharp/heavy object, using a knife or a sharp/heavy object or a gun were aggregated into "severe physical violence category". The choice was based on the severity of possible damage to the victim.

Following the identification of variable types in the database the summary statistics were performed.

Chapter 6

Ch. 6 Appendix 1: General characteristics of the sample

Table 1: Number of cases in the sampled areas

| Number of cases | Lublin N=134 | | Warsaw N=50 | |
|-----------------|--------------|---------|-------------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Year | | | | |
| Before 2006 | 1 | 0.7 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 2006 | 10 | 7.5 | 15 | 30.0 |
| 2007 | 14 | 10.5 | 5 | 10.0 |
| 2008 | 30 | 22.4 | 8 | 16.0 |
| 2009 | 26 | 19.4 | 2 | 4.0 |
| 2010 | 18 | 13.4 | 6 | 12.0 |
| 2011 | 18 | 13.4 | 10 | 20.0 |
| 2012 | 17 | 12.7 | 4 | 8.0 |

Table 2: Types of relationships

| | Type of relationship | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|---------|-------------------------------------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| | Married | | Undergoing or planning a divorce | | Divorced | | Separated | | Cohabiting | | Formerly cohabiting | |
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Lublin N=134 | 56 | 41.8 | 39 | 29.1 | 29 | 21.6 | 6 | 4.5 | 3 | 2.2 | 1 | 0.7 |
| Warsaw N= 50 | 16 | 32.0 | 23 | 46.0 | 4 | 8.0 | 1 | 2.0 | 6 | 12.0 | 0 | 0.0 |

Table 3: The use of accomplices

| Type of accomplice | Lublin sample N=106 (out of 134) 79.1% of the complete sample | | Warsaw sample N= 42 (out of 50) 84.0 % of the complete sample | |
|------------------------------------|--|---------|--|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| son(s)/step-sons | 13 | 12.3 | 2 | 4.8 |
| daughter(s) | 3 | 2.8 | 5 | 11.9 |
| children (unidentified) | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's father | 1 | 0.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's mother | 4 | 3.8 | 0 | 0.0 |
| both of woman's parents | 2 | 1.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's brother | 1 | 0.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| unspecified woman's family members | 1 | 0.9 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's new partner | 1 | 0.9 | 1 | 2.4 |
| Lone perpetration | 78 | 73.6 | 34 | 80.9 |

Table 4: Number of couples living in the same property after divorce or separation

| Sample | Couples living in the shared property after divorce or separation | |
|---------------|---|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Lublin N= 134 | 30 | 22.6 |
| Warsaw N= 50 | 5 | 10.0 |

Table 5: Length of relationship in the sampled populations

| Sample | Length of relationship in years | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|-----|------------------|-----|------------------|-----|------------------|-----|------------------|-----|
| | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11-15 | | 16-20 | | 21-25 | | 26-30 | | 31-35 | | 36-40 | | 41-45 | | 46-50 | | 50 and more | |
| | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % |
| Lublin N=55 | 5 | 9.1 | 14 | 25.5 | 7 | 12.7 | 5 | 9.1 | 7 | 12.7 | 7 | 12.7 | 1 | 1.8 | 5 | 9.1 | 1 | 1.8 | 1 | 1.8 | 2 | 3.6 |
| Warsaw N= 39 | 6 | 15.4 | 9 | 23.1 | 4 | 10.3 | 5 | 12.8 | 7 | 17.9 | 4 | 10.3 | 3 | 7.7 | 1 | 2.6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 6: Type of residence in the sampled populations

| Sample | Type of residence | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|-------------------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|----------------------------|-----|--------------------------|-----|-----------------|-----|
| | Flat | | House | | separate | | living with woman's family | | living with man's family | | rental together | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 133 | 85 | 63.9 | 18 | 13.5 | 26 | 19.4 | 1 | 0.8 | 2 | 1.5 | 1 | 0.8 |
| Warsaw N= 49 | 47 | 95.9 | 0 | 0.0 | 2 | 4.1 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |

Table 7: Age of alleged perpetrators in the sampled populations

| Sample | Age of the alleged perpetrator (woman) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|--|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|------------|------|
| | Up to 30 | | 31-35 | | 36-40 | | 41-45 | | 46-50 | | 51-60 | | 61and more | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N=64 | 6 | 9.4 | 10 | 15.6 | 10 | 15.6 | 13 | 20.3 | 11 | 17.2 | 7 | 10.3 | 7 | 10.3 |
| Warsaw N=36 | 5 | 13.9 | 8 | 22.2 | 4 | 11.1 | 3 | 8.3 | 6 | 16.7 | 8 | 22.2 | 2 | 5.6 |

Table 8: Age of alleged victim in the sampled populations

| sample | Age of an alleged victim (man) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|-----|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|------------|------|
| | Up to 30 | | 31-35 | | 36-40 | | 41-45 | | 46-50 | | 51-60 | | 61and more | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N=129 | 7 | 5.4 | 12 | 9.3 | 16 | 12.4 | 15 | 11.6 | 26 | 20.2 | 33 | 25.6 | 20 | 15.5 |
| Warsaw N=49 | 2 | 4.1 | 9 | 18.4 | 3 | 6.1 | 7 | 14.2 | 6 | 12.2 | 12 | 24.5 | 10 | 20.4 |

Table 9: Age difference between the partners in the sampled populations

| Sample | Age difference between the partners | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|-----|------------------|-----|------------------|-----|------------------|-----|------------------|------|----------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|------|------------------|-----|------------------|------|----------------------|-----|
| | Woman older | | | | | | | | | | No age Difference | | Man older | | | | | | | | | |
| | 11 years and more | | 7-10 years | | 5-6 years | | 3-4 years | | 1-2 years | | | | 1-2 years | | 3-4 years | | 5-6 years | | 7-10 years | | 11 years and more | |
| | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | F r e q | % | | |
| Lublin N= 74 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 4 | 5.4 | 11 | 14.9 | 6 | 8.1 | 26 | 35.1 | 13 | 17.6 | 4 | 5.4 | 6 | 8.1 | 4 | 5.4 |
| Warsaw N = 36 | 0 | 0.0 | 2 | 5.6 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.3 | 4 | 11.1 | 7 | 19.4 | 11 | 30.6 | 2 | 5.6 | 6 | 16.7 | 3 | 8.3 |

Table 10: Alleged perpetrator's level of education in the sampled populations

| Sample | Alleged perpetrator's level of education | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|------|--|------|-----------------------------------|------|
| | Primary to vocational | | A-levels or technical equivalent of it | | Tertiary and/or university degree | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 33 | 1 | 3.0 | 14 | 42,4 | 18 | 54.6 |
| Warsaw N= 16 | 6 | 37.5 | 3 | 18.5 | 7 | 43.7 |

Table 11: Alleged victim's level of education in the sampled populations

| Sample | Alleged victim's level of education | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|------|--|------|-----------------------------------|------|
| | Primary to vocational | | A-levels or technical equivalent of it | | Tertiary and/or university degree | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 37 | 2 | 5.5 | 15 | 40.5 | 20 | 54.0 |
| Warsaw N= 11 | 3 | 27.3 | 3 | 27.3 | 5 | 45.4 |

Table 12: Relative income difference between the alleged perpetrator and alleged victim

| Sample | Income difference between the partners | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|-----|--------------------|------|----------------|------|------------------|------|-----------------------|------|
| | Woman earning much more | | Woman earning more | | Similar income | | Man earning more | | Man earning much more | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 98 | 6 | 6.1 | 22 | 22.4 | 18 | 18.4 | 36 | 36.7 | 16 | 16.3 |
| Warsaw N= 43 | 0 | 0.0 | 7 | 16.3 | 3 | 7.0 | 25 | 58.1 | 8 | 18.6 |

Table 13: Acting under the influence of alcohol

| Acting under the influence during the acts of abuse | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------|------|-----------|------|------------------|-----------|-----|-----------|------|
| Sample | Woman | | | | sample | man | | | |
| | yes | | No | | | yes | | No | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N= 134 | 21 | 15.7 | 113 | 84.3 | Lublin N= 133 | 10 | 7.5 | 124 | 92.5 |
| Warsaw N=50 | 13 | 26.0 | 37 | 74.0 | Warsaw N= 50 | 4 | 8.0 | 46 | 92.0 |

Table 14: Length of time the alleged abuse took place

| | | Length of time the abuse takes place | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------|--------------------------------------|------------|------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-------------|-------------|--------------------|
| | | to 3 months | 4-6 months | 7-8 months | 9-11 months | 1-2 years | 3-4 years | 5-6 years | 7-8 years | 9-10 years | 11-15 years | 16-20 years | More than 21 years |
| Sample Lublin N= 106 | Freq. | 11 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 29 | 22 | 12 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 4 |
| | % | 10.4 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 4.7 | 27.3 | 18.9 | 11.3 | 3.8 | 5.7 | 3.8 | 2.8 | 3.8 |
| Sample Warsaw N= 43 | Freq. | 7 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 10 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| | % | 16.3 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 2.3 | 20.9 | 23.3 | 13.9 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 0.0 |

Table 15a: Direction of abuse

| Sample | Direction of abuse | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|-----|------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------|------|
| | None; alleged victim possibly lying | | Unidirectional; woman to man | | Bidirectional; both partners violent | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Lublin N=129 | 8 | 6.2 | 33 | 25.6 | 88 | 68.2 |
| Warsaw N=48 | 1 | 2.1 | 8 | 16.7 | 39 | 81.2 |

Table 15b: General types of abuse in the sampled populations

| Type of abuse (basic division) | | | | Sample | Type of abuse (cumulative) | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|------|-----------|------|-----------------|----------------------------|------|-----------|-----|-----------|------|
| Verbal/psychological | | physical | | | verbal/psychological | | physical | | both | |
| Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| 131 | 97.8 | 100 | 74.6 | Lublin N=134 | 32 | 23.9 | 3 | 2.2 | 99 | 73.9 |
| 49 | 98.0 | 41 | 82.0 | Warsaw N= 50 | 9 | 18.0 | 1 | 2.0 | 40 | 80.0 |

Table 16: Types of physical and psychological (emotional) abuse in the sampled populations

| Type of physical abuse | Lublin sample N= 134 | | | | Warsaw sample N= 50 | | | |
|--|-------------------------|------|---------------|------|------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | Occurring | | Not occurring | | Occurring | | Not occurring | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| throwing objects | 21 | 15.7 | 107 | 79.8 | 13 | 26.0 | 34 | 68.0 |
| Shaking | 25 | 18.7 | 105 | 78.4 | 11 | 22.0 | 36 | 72.0 |
| Pushing | 29 | 21.6 | 99 | 73.9 | 12 | 24.0 | 35 | 70.0 |
| hitting with open hand on the body | 38 | 28.4 | 90 | 67.2 | 15 | 30.0 | 32 | 64.0 |
| hitting with open hand on face | 36 | 26.9 | 92 | 68.7 | 14 | 28.0 | 33 | 66.0 |
| hitting with fist on the body | 27 | 20.1 | 101 | 75.4 | 14 | 28.0 | 32 | 64.0 |
| hitting with fist on face and head | 17 | 12.7 | 111 | 82.8 | 9 | 18.0 | 38 | 76.0 |
| kicking on the legs | 22 | 16.4 | 106 | 79.1 | 13 | 26.0 | 34 | 68.0 |
| kicking on the body | 16 | 11.9 | 112 | 83.6 | 10 | 20.0 | 37 | 74.0 |
| kicking on the face/head | 1 | 0.7 | 127 | 94.8 | 0 | 0.0 | 47 | 94.0 |
| Choking | 5 | 5.7 | 123 | 91.8 | 1 | 2.0 | 46 | 29.0 |
| Scalding | 4 | 3.0 | 124 | 92.5 | 1 | 2.0 | 46 | 29.0 |
| hitting with objects on the body | 23 | 17.2 | 105 | 78.4 | 8 | 16.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| hitting with objects on the face/head | 15 | 11.2 | 113 | 84.3 | 9 | 18.0 | 38 | 76.0 |
| threats of using knife, sharp/heavy objects or gun | 20 | 14.9 | 108 | 80.6 | 17 | 34.0 | 30 | 60.0 |
| using knife, sharp/heavy objects or gun | 13 | 9.7 | 115 | 85.8 | 8 | 16.0 | 39 | 78.0 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|--------------------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| Other | 67 | 50.0 | 65 | 48.5 | 24 | 48.0 | 26 | 52.0 |
| Type of verbal/psychological abuse | Lublin sample N= 134 | | | | Warsaw sample N= 50 | | | |
| | Occurring | | Not occurring | | Occurring | | Not occurring | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| intimidation | 108 | 80.6 | 25 | 18.7 | 34 | 68.0 | 16 | 32.0 |
| emotional abuse | 116 | 86.6 | 17 | 12.7 | 31 | 62.0 | 19 | 38.0 |
| Isolation | 31 | 32.1 | 102 | 76.1 | 11 | 22.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| minimising, denying, blaming | 99 | 73.9 | 34 | 25.4 | 44 | 88.0 | 6 | 12.0 |
| using children | 56 | 41.8 | 77 | 57.6 | 31 | 62.0 | 19 | 38.0 |
| using gender privilege | 47 | 35.1 | 86 | 64.2 | 30 | 60.0 | 20 | 40.0 |
| economic abuse | 49 | 36.6 | 84 | 25.4 | 17 | 34.0 | 33 | 66.0 |
| coercion and threats | 98 | 73.1 | 35 | 26.1 | 43 | 86.0 | 7 | 14.0 |
| manipulating the system | 91 | 67.9 | 42 | 31.3 | 39 | 78.0 | 11 | 22.0 |

Table 17: Reasons for abuse in the sampled populations

| Reasons for abuse | Lublin sample N= 134 | | | | Warsaw sample N= 50 | | | |
|---|-------------------------|------|---------------|------|------------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | Occurring | | Not occurring | | Occurring | | Not occurring | |
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| woman's jealousy | 32 | 23.9 | 92 | 68.7 | 12 | 24.0 | 37 | 74.0 |
| man's adultery | 19 | 14.2 | 104 | 77.6 | 6 | 12.0 | 43 | 86.0 |
| man's jealousy | 27 | 20.1 | 97 | 72.4 | 10 | 20.0 | 39 | 78.0 |
| woman's adultery | 24 | 17.9 | 100 | 74.6 | 11 | 22.0 | 37 | 74.0 |
| woman's self defence | 39 | 29.1 | 85 | 63.4 | 25 | 18.7 | 24 | 48.0 |
| woman defending children | 12 | 9.0 | 112 | 83.6 | 5 | 10.0 | 44 | 88.0 |
| forcing man to move out | 46 | 34.3 | 78 | 58.2 | 24 | 48.0 | 25 | 50.0 |
| no/inadequate financial support by man | 58 | 43.3 | 66 | 49.2 | 29 | 58.0 | 20 | 40.0 |
| financial problems/wrong way of managing family budget/ refusal of financial participation in the cost of living by a woman | 36 | 26.7 | 88 | 65.7 | 19 | 38.0 | 30 | 60.0 |
| woman's alcohol problems/acting under the influence | 26 | 19.4 | 100 | 74.6 | 15 | 30.0 | 34 | 68.0 |
| man's alcohol problems/acting under the influence | 28 | 20.9 | 98 | 73.1 | 12 | 24.0 | 37 | 74.0 |

Table 18a: Number of children in the couples from sampled populations

| Number of children | Lublin sample N= 128 | | Warsaw sample N= 48 | |
|--------------------|-------------------------|------|------------------------|------|
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| 0 | 8 | 6.2 | 4 | 8.3 |
| 1 | 43 | 33.6 | 17 | 35.4 |
| 2 | 61 | 47.7 | 22 | 45.8 |
| 3 and more | 16 | 12.5 | 5 | 11.6 |

Table 18b: Parentage of children in the couples from sampled populations

| Children from previous relationships | Lublin sample N= 123 | | Warsaw sample N= 47 | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|------|------------------------|------|
| | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| None | 109 | 88.6 | 36 | 76.6 |
| man's | 3 | 2.4 | 4 | 8.5 |
| woman's | 7 | 5.7 | 4 | 8.5 |
| man's and woman's | 2 | 1.6 | 0 | 0.0 |
| woman's and their own | 2 | 1.6 | 3 | 6.4 |

Table 19: Characteristics of legal proceedings

| Type of legal proceeding | | Lublin | | Warsaw | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | | Frequency | percentage | Frequency | percentage |
| Polish Penal Code classification | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | art. 207.1 of PPC (abuse) | 133 | 99.3 | 46 | 92.0 |
| | art. 157.1 of PPC (a assault) | 1 | 0.7 | 3 | 6.0 |
| | art. 156.1 of PPC (ggravated assault) | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | art. 190.1 of PPC (threats) | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Was legal qualification changed? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | No | 127 | 94.8 | 47 | 94.0 |
| | Yes | 7 | 5.2 | 3 | 6.0 |
| Lenght of legal proceedings | | N=102 | % | N=49 | % |
| | Up to 4 weeks | 28 | 20.9 | 15 | 30.6 |
| | 1-3 months | 39 | 29.1 | 18 | 36.7 |
| | 4-6 months | 18 | 13.4 | 6 | 12.2 |
| | 7-12 months | 9 | 6.7 | 4 | 8.2 |
| | 13months-1.5 years | 3 | 2.2 | 0 | 0.0 |
| | 1.6-2 years | 2 | 1.5 | 2 | 4.1 |
| | 2.1-3 years | 1 | 0.7 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | 3.1-4 years | 1 | 0.7 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | 4.1 to 5 years | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |

| | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|
| Was the alleged victim interviewed? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | Yes | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| | No | 134 | 100.0 | 50 | 100.0 |
| Was the alleged perpetrator interviewed? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | Yes | 41 | 30.6 | 11 | 22.0 |
| | No | 93 | 69.4 | 39 | 78.0 |
| Number of witnesses interviewed | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | 0 | 55 | 41.0 | 15 | 30.0 |
| | 1 | 22 | 16.4 | 13 | 26.0 |
| | 2 | 16 | 11.9 | 8 | 16.0 |
| | 3 | 13 | 9.7 | 4 | 8.0 |
| | 4 | 8 | 6.0 | 4 | 8.0 |
| | 5 | 8 | 6.0 | 3 | 6.0 |
| | 6 | 2 | 1.5 | 0 | 0.0 |
| | 7 | 3 | 2.2 | 2 | 4.0 |
| | 8 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | 9 | 5 | 3.7 | 0 | 0.0 |
| | 10 | 2 | 1.5 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Categories of witnesses | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | no witnesses | 53 | 39.6 | 15 | 30.0 |
| | Woman's family member/friends(s) | 3 | 2.2 | 3 | 6.0 |
| | Man's family member/friends(s) | 8 | 6.0 | 3 | 6.0 |
| | Police officer(s) | 4 | 3.0 | 3 | 6.0 |
| | Neighbour(s) | 7 | 5.2 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | Children of the couple | 14 | 10.4 | 6 | 12.0 |
| | More than type of witnesses | 45 | 33.6 | 18 | 36.0 |
| | Court appointed specialists | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | | | | | |
| Court –appointed specialists | | N=129 | % | N=50 | % |
| | No | 110 | 85.3 | 36 | 72.0 |
| | Yes | 19 | 14.7 | 14 | 28.0 |
| Was caution issued? | | N=133 | % | N=50 | % |
| | No | 112 | 84.2 | 46 | 92.0 |
| | Yes | 21 | 15.8 | 4 | 8.0 |
| Were charges pressed (case forwarded to the court)? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | No | 128 | 95.5 | 42 | 84.0 |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.5 | 8 | 16.0 |
| Was complaint withdrawn by the victim? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | No | 101 | 75.4 | 40 | 80.0 |
| | Yes | 33 | 24.6 | 10 | 20.0 |
| What was the decision about the case/case ending? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | Discontinued | 133 | 99.3 | 47 | 94.0 |
| | case in progress or charges | 1 | 0.7 | 1 | 2.0 |
| | verdict | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.0 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|-------|------|------|------|
| | Acquitted | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 2.0 |
| Was the final decision appealed? | | N=134 | % | N=50 | % |
| | No | 108 | 80.6 | 40 | 80.0 |
| | Yes | 26 | 19.4 | 10 | 20.0 |
| What was the typology of relationship with regard to abuse perpetration?/Was the complaint truthful? | | N=129 | % | N=48 | % |
| | alleged victim lying | 8 | 6.2 | 1 | 2.1 |
| | truthful, unidirectional violence towards a man | 33 | 25.6 | 8 | 16.7 |
| | both violent | 88 | 68.2 | 39 | 81.2 |

Ch6. Appendix 2: Database Coding Information and Descriptive Statistics

21. Descriptive statistics of quantitative (Numerical, Scale) variables

21.1.1 The frequencies of quantitative variables, Lublin sample

Frequencies

| Statistics | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---------|----------------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| | | lenght.of. relationship | woman.age | man.age | age. difference | lenght.of. abuse | number.of. children |
| N | Valid | 68 | 75 | 129 | 74 | 111 | 128 |
| | Missing | 66 | 59 | 5 | 60 | 23 | 6 |
| Mean | | 19.12 | 46.09 | 49.16 | 2.53 | 2.46 | 1.66 |
| Median | | 19.00 | 45.00 | 48.00 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 2.00 |
| Mode | | 10 | 54 | 50 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Std. Deviation | | 12.095 | 11.963 | 12.592 | 4.364 | 1.494 | .776 |
| Variance | | 146.287 | 143.113 | 158.570 | 19.047 | 2.232 | .603 |
| Skewness | | .681 | .779 | .444 | .159 | 1.437 | -.154 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .291 | .277 | .213 | .279 | .229 | .214 |
| Kurtosis | | .050 | 1.119 | -.208 | 2.651 | 1.789 | -.313 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | | .574 | .548 | .423 | .552 | .455 | .425 |
| Range | | 51 | 62 | 57 | 27 | 6 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 26 | 27 | -14 | 1 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 52 | 88 | 84 | 13 | 7 | 3 |
| Sum | | 1300 | 3457 | 6341 | 187 | 273 | 213 |

Case Processing Summary

| | Cases | | | | | |
|------------------------|-------|---------|---------|---------|-------|---------|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| length.of.relationship | 45 | 33.6% | 89 | 66.4% | 134 | 100.0% |
| woman.age | 45 | 33.6% | 89 | 66.4% | 134 | 100.0% |
| man.age | 45 | 33.6% | 89 | 66.4% | 134 | 100.0% |
| age.difference | 45 | 33.6% | 89 | 66.4% | 134 | 100.0% |
| number.of.children | 45 | 33.6% | 89 | 66.4% | 134 | 100.0% |
| length.of.abuse | 45 | 33.6% | 89 | 66.4% | 134 | 100.0% |

Descriptives

| | | | Statistic | Std. Error |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------|
| length.of.relationship | Mean | | 18.87 | 1.752 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 15.34 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 22.40 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 18.21 | |
| | Median | | 16.00 | |
| | Variance | | 138.073 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 11.750 | |
| | Minimum | | 1 | |
| | Maximum | | 51 | |
| | Range | | 50 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 15 | |
| | Skewness | | .833 | .354 |
| | Kurtosis | | .215 | .695 |
| woman.age | Mean | | 45.96 | 1.887 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 42.15 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 49.76 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 45.14 | |
| | Median | | 45.00 | |
| | Variance | | 160.225 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 12.658 | |
| | Minimum | | 28 | |
| | Maximum | | 88 | |
| | Range | | 60 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 19 | |
| | Skewness | | .956 | .354 |
| | Kurtosis | | 1.287 | .695 |
| man.age | Mean | | 48.44 | 1.894 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 44.63 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 52.26 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 47.82 | |
| | Median | | 47.00 | |
| | Variance | | 161.480 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 12.707 | |
| | Minimum | | 29 | |
| | Maximum | | 84 | |
| | Range | | 55 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 18 | |
| | Skewness | | .764 | .354 |
| | Kurtosis | | .412 | .695 |

| | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------|------|
| age.difference | Mean | | 2.49 | .677 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 1.12 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 3.85 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 2.55 | |
| | Median | | 2.00 | |
| | Variance | | 20.619 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 4.541 | |
| | Minimum | | -14 | |
| | Maximum | | 13 | |
| | Range | | 27 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 4 | |
| | Skewness | | -.456 | .354 |
| | Kurtosis | | 3.381 | .695 |
| number.of.children | Mean | | 1.64 | .124 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 1.40 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 1.89 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 1.66 | |
| | Median | | 2.00 | |
| | Variance | | .689 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | .830 | |
| | Minimum | | 0 | |
| | Maximum | | 3 | |
| | Range | | 3 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 1 | |
| | Skewness | | -.235 | .354 |
| | Kurtosis | | -.347 | .695 |
| length.of.abuse | Mean | | 2.60 | .241 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 2.11 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 3.09 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 2.45 | |
| | Median | | 2.00 | |
| | Variance | | 2.609 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 1.615 | |
| | Minimum | | 1 | |
| | Maximum | | 7 | |
| | Range | | 6 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 2 | |
| | Skewness | | 1.302 | .354 |
| | Kurtosis | | 1.176 | .695 |

21.1.2 The frequencies of quantitative variables in detail, Lublin sample

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | length.of. relationship | woman.age | man.age | age. difference | number.of. children |
|------------------------|---------|----------------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 68 | 75 | 129 | 74 | 128 |
| | Missing | 66 | 59 | 5 | 60 | 6 |
| Mean | | 19.12 | 46.09 | 49.16 | 2.53 | 1.66 |
| Median | | 19.00 | 45.00 | 48.00 | 2.00 | 2.00 |
| Mode | | 10 | 54 | 50 | 1 | 2 |
| Std. Deviation | | 12.095 | 11.963 | 12.592 | 4.364 | .776 |
| Variance | | 146.287 | 143.113 | 158.570 | 19.047 | .603 |
| Skewness | | .681 | .779 | .444 | .159 | -.154 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .291 | .277 | .213 | .279 | .214 |
| Kurtosis | | .050 | 1.119 | -.208 | 2.651 | -.313 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | | .574 | .548 | .423 | .552 | .425 |
| Range | | 51 | 62 | 57 | 27 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 26 | 27 | -14 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 52 | 88 | 84 | 13 | 3 |
| Sum | | 1300 | 3457 | 6341 | 187 | 213 |

21.1.3 Frequencies of qualitative variables in detail, Lublin sample

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | place | lone.or.not | type.of. relationship | together.or. sparate | other.people | type.of. residence |
|---------|---------|-------|-------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| N | Valid | 134 | 134 | 134 | 134 | 134 | 104 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 30 |
| Median | | 1.00 | .00 | 3.00 | 1.00 | .00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Range | | 1 | 5 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 2 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | woman.edu | man.edu | income. difference | woman. alcohol | man.alcohol | subsequent. abuse | PPC. qualification |
|---------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------------------|-------------------|-------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| N | Valid | 33 | 37 | 98 | 134 | 134 | 134 | 134 |
| | Missing | 101 | 97 | 36 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | 2.00 | 2.00 | 2.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Range | | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 2 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | Womans. accomplices. of.Viol | Blue.Card. Female. Victim | Blue.Card. Man.Victim | sex.of. children | ages.of. children | Blue.Card. Both |
|---------|---------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| N | Valid | 134 | 133 | 134 | 108 | 107 | 134 |
| | Missing | 0 | 1 | 0 | 26 | 27 | 0 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | 2.00 | 2.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 3 |

Frequency Table

Womans.accomplices.of.Viol

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | none | 106 | 79.1 | 79.1 | 79.1 |
| | with accomplices | 28 | 20.9 | 20.9 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | sex.of. children | ages.of. children | children. previous. relationships | woman. abuse. children | man.abuse. children |
|---------|---------|---------------------|----------------------|---|------------------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 108 | 107 | 123 | 124 | 125 |
| | Missing | 26 | 27 | 11 | 10 | 9 |
| Median | | 2.00 | 2.00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 4 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 4 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 1 |

Frequency Table

sex.of.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 21 | 15.7 | 19.4 | 19.4 |
| | 1 | 17 | 12.7 | 15.7 | 35.2 |
| | 2 | 38 | 28.4 | 35.2 | 70.4 |
| | 3 | 20 | 14.9 | 18.5 | 88.9 |
| | 4 | 12 | 9.0 | 11.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 108 | 80.6 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 26 | 19.4 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

ages.of.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 28 | 20.9 | 26.2 | 26.2 |
| | 1 | 20 | 14.9 | 18.7 | 44.9 |
| | 2 | 9 | 6.7 | 8.4 | 53.3 |
| | 3 | 11 | 8.2 | 10.3 | 63.6 |
| | 4 | 19 | 14.2 | 17.8 | 81.3 |
| | 5 | 6 | 4.5 | 5.6 | 86.9 |
| | 6 | 14 | 10.4 | 13.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 107 | 79.9 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 27 | 20.1 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

children.previous.relationships

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 109 | 81.3 | 88.6 | 88.6 |
| | 1 | 3 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 91.1 |
| | 2 | 7 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 96.7 |
| | 3 | 2 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 98.4 |
| | 4 | 2 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 123 | 91.8 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 11 | 8.2 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

woman.abuse.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 96 | 71.6 | 77.4 | 77.4 |
| | 1 | 28 | 20.9 | 22.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 124 | 92.5 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 10 | 7.5 | | |
| | Total | 134 | 100.0 | | |

man.abuse.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 106 | 79.1 | 84.8 | 84.8 |
| | 1 | 19 | 14.2 | 15.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 125 | 93.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 9 | 6.7 | | |
| | Total | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Frequencies**Statistics**

| | | length.of. proceedings | victim. interviewed | suspect. interviewed | witness. intviewed | witness. number | witness. categories |
|---------|---------|---------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 101 | 134 | 134 | 134 | 134 | 134 |
| | Missing | 33 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 3.00 |
| Mode | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 7 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 6 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 7 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 6 |

Frequencies**Statistics**

| | | court. specialists | caution. issues | charges | compl. withdrawn.by. victim | case.ending |
|---------|---------|-----------------------|--------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|-------------|
| N | Valid | 129 | 133 | 134 | 134 | 134 |
| | Missing | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Range | | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | legal.qualif. changed | final.decision. appeal | complaint. truthful |
|---------|---------|--------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 134 | 134 | 129 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | 2.00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 2 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | length.of. abuse | abuse.type | throwing. objects | shaking | pushing |
|---------|---------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|---------|---------|
| N | Valid | 111 | 134 | 129 | 128 | 128 |
| | Missing | 23 | 0 | 5 | 6 | 6 |
| Median | | 2.00 | 2.00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 7 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | hit.hand.on. body | hit.hand.on. face | hit.fist.on. body | hit.fist.on. head.face |
|---------|---------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| N | Valid | 128 | 128 | 128 | 128 |
| | Missing | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | kick.on.legs | kick.on.body | kick.on.face. head | scalding | choking |
|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------|---------|
| N | Valid | 128 | 128 | 128 | 128 | 128 |
| | Missing | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | hit.objects.on. body | hit.object.on. face | threats.knife | using.knife | other. categories |
|---------|---------|-------------------------|------------------------|---------------|-------------|----------------------|
| N | Valid | 128 | 128 | 128 | 128 | 134 |
| | Missing | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 0 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 |

other.categories

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|----|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 84 | 62.7 | 62.7 | 62.7 |
| | 1 | 4 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 65.7 |
| | 2 | 2 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 67.2 |
| | 3 | 10 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 74.6 |
| | 4 | 7 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 79.9 |
| | 5 | 2 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 81.3 |
| | 6 | 6 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 85.8 |
| | 7 | 2 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 87.3 |
| | 9 | 10 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 94.8 |
| | 10 | 7 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

21.1.4 Physical violence, cumulative answers, Lublin sample

Frequencies**Statistics**

| | Types of physic. Violence. Cumul.CVat | Phys.Abuse. other.cat. speified |
|---------|--|---------------------------------------|
| N Valid | 129 | 134 |
| Missing | 5 | 0 |
| Median | 1.00 | .00 |
| Mode | 0 | 0 |
| Range | 7 | 10 |
| Minimum | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | 7 | 10 |

Frequency Table**Types of physic.Violence.Cumul.CVat**

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | no physical violence used | 46 | 34.3 | 35.7 | 35.7 |
| | minor violence | 25 | 18.7 | 19.4 | 55.0 |
| | moderate violence | 2 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 56.6 |
| | minor and moderate violence | 10 | 7.5 | 7.8 | 64.3 |
| | severe violence | 9 | 6.7 | 7.0 | 71.3 |
| | minor and severe violence | 11 | 8.2 | 8.5 | 79.8 |
| | moderate and severe violence | 4 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 82.9 |
| | minor, moderate and severe violence | 22 | 16.4 | 17.1 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 129 | 96.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 5 | 3.7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Phys.Abuse.other.cat.speified

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|---|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | not applicable | 84 | 62.7 | 62.7 | 62.7 |
| | twisting hands/fingers | 4 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 65.7 |
| | biting | 2 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 67.2 |
| | scratching | 10 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 74.6 |
| | spitting on man | 7 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 79.9 |
| | pulling man's hair | 2 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 81.3 |
| | sending others to beat man up | 6 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 85.8 |
| | threatening with or attempting suicide | 2 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 87.3 |
| | more types together | 10 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 94.8 |
| | additional, not mentioned in the list | 7 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

21.1.5 Psychological abuse types, Lublin sample

Frequencies**Statistics**

| | | Intimidation | Emotional. Abuse | Isolation | Minimizing. Denying. Blaming | Using. Children |
|---------|---------|--------------|---------------------|-----------|------------------------------------|--------------------|
| N | Valid | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 |
| | Missing | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Median | | 1.00 | 1.00 | .00 | 1.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Statistics

| | | Using. Gender. Privilege | Economic. Abuse | Coertion. Threats | Manipulating. System |
|---------|---------|--------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| N | Valid | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 |
| | Missing | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequency Table

Intimidation

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 25 | 18.7 | 18.8 | 18.8 |
| | 1 | 108 | 80.6 | 81.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Emotional.Abuse

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 17 | 12.7 | 12.8 | 12.8 |
| | 1 | 116 | 86.6 | 87.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Isolation

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 102 | 76.1 | 76.7 | 76.7 |
| | 1 | 31 | 23.1 | 23.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Minimizing.Denying.Blaming

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 34 | 25.4 | 25.6 | 25.6 |
| | 1 | 99 | 73.9 | 74.4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Using.Children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 77 | 57.5 | 57.9 | 57.9 |
| | 1 | 56 | 41.8 | 42.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Using.Gender.Privilege

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 86 | 64.2 | 64.7 | 64.7 |
| | 1 | 47 | 35.1 | 35.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Economic.Abuse

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 85 | 63.4 | 63.9 | 63.9 |
| | 1 | 48 | 35.8 | 36.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Coertion.Threats

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 35 | 26.1 | 26.3 | 26.3 |
| | 1 | 98 | 73.1 | 73.7 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Manipulating.System

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 40 | 29.9 | 30.1 | 30.1 |
| | 1 | 93 | 69.4 | 69.9 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 133 | 99.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | .7 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

21.1.6 Reasons for abuse, Lublin sample

Frequencies

| | | Statistics | | | | | |
|---------|---------|-------------------|----------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Jealousy | Adultery | Self defence and defending children | Forcing man to move out | Financial problems by man and woman | Alcohol problem of man and woman |
| N | Valid | 124 | 124 | 124 | 123 | 124 | 126 |
| | Missing | 10 | 10 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 8 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 3 |

Frequency Table

| | | Jealousy | | | |
|---------|-------------------------------|-----------------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | not occurring | 70 | 52.2 | 56.5 | 56.5 |
| | woman's perpetration | 26 | 19.4 | 21.0 | 77.4 |
| | man's perpetration | 23 | 17.2 | 18.5 | 96.0 |
| | perpetration by both partners | 5 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 124 | 92.5 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 10 | 7.5 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Adultery

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 84 | 62.7 | 67.7 | 67.7 |
| | woman's perpetration | 20 | 14.9 | 16.1 | 83.9 |
| | man's perpetration | 16 | 11.9 | 12.9 | 96.8 |
| | perpetration by both partners | 4 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 124 | 92.5 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 10 | 7.5 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Self defence and defending children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 79 | 59.0 | 63.7 | 63.7 |
| | female's self defence declared/documentated | 32 | 23.9 | 25.8 | 89.5 |
| | female protecting children declared/documentated | 5 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 93.5 |
| | female's self-defence and protection of children declared/documentated | 8 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 124 | 92.5 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 10 | 7.5 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Forcing man to move out

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 77 | 57.5 | 62.6 | 62.6 |
| | declared/documentated | 46 | 34.3 | 37.4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 123 | 91.8 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 11 | 8.2 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Financial problems by man and woman

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 50 | 37.3 | 40.3 | 40.3 |
| | financial problems caused by woman | 13 | 9.7 | 10.5 | 50.8 |
| | financial problems/inadequate financial support by man | 38 | 28.4 | 30.6 | 81.5 |
| | financial problems caused by both | 23 | 17.2 | 18.5 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 124 | 92.5 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 10 | 7.5 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Alcohol problem of man and woman

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|----------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 78 | 58.2 | 61.9 | 61.9 |
| | woman's alcohol problem | 20 | 14.9 | 15.9 | 77.8 |
| | man's alcohol problem | 23 | 17.2 | 18.3 | 96.0 |
| | both have alcohol problems | 5 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 126 | 94.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 8 | 6.0 | | |
| Total | | 134 | 100.0 | | |

Other.Reasons

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 35 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 26.1 |
| | 1 | 99 | 73.9 | 73.9 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 134 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Descriptive statistics of quantitative (Numerical, Scale) variables

21.2.1 The frequencies of quantitative variables, Warsaw sample

Frequencies

[DataSet1] C:\Users\surface\Desktop\SPSS.files\Data.SPSS.March.2016.WAR.sav

Statistics

| | | length.of. relationship | woman.age | man.age | age. difference | length.of. abuse | number.of. children |
|------------------------|---------|----------------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 39 | 36 | 49 | 36 | 40 | 48 |
| | Missing | 11 | 14 | 1 | 14 | 10 | 2 |
| Mean | | 16.59 | 43.31 | 47.45 | 4.17 | 2.60 | 1.58 |
| Median | | 16.00 | 42.50 | 47.00 | 3.00 | 2.50 | 2.00 |
| Mode | | 8 ^a | 35 | 31 | 2 ^a | 3 | 2 |
| Std. Deviation | | 10.617 | 12.238 | 12.304 | 5.935 | 1.277 | .794 |
| Variance | | 112.722 | 149.761 | 151.378 | 35.229 | 1.631 | .631 |
| Skewness | | .386 | .514 | .201 | .847 | .893 | -.152 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .378 | .393 | .340 | .393 | .374 | .343 |
| Kurtosis | | -.870 | -.356 | -.779 | 1.798 | .917 | -.294 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | | .741 | .768 | .668 | .768 | .733 | .674 |
| Range | | 40 | 47 | 47 | 29 | 5 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 24 | 26 | -8 | 1 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 41 | 71 | 73 | 21 | 6 | 3 |
| Sum | | 647 | 1559 | 2325 | 150 | 104 | 76 |

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Case Processing Summary

| | Cases | | | | | |
|------------------------|-------|---------|---------|---------|-------|---------|
| | Valid | | Missing | | Total | |
| | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| length.of.relationship | 25 | 50.0% | 25 | 50.0% | 50 | 100.0% |
| woman.age | 25 | 50.0% | 25 | 50.0% | 50 | 100.0% |
| man.age | 25 | 50.0% | 25 | 50.0% | 50 | 100.0% |
| age.difference | 25 | 50.0% | 25 | 50.0% | 50 | 100.0% |
| number.of.children | 25 | 50.0% | 25 | 50.0% | 50 | 100.0% |
| length.of.abuse | 25 | 50.0% | 25 | 50.0% | 50 | 100.0% |

Descriptives

| | | | Statistic | Std. Error |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------|
| length.of.relationship | Mean | | 15.52 | 2.104 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 11.18 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 19.86 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 15.26 | |
| | Median | | 11.00 | |
| | Variance | | 110.677 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 10.520 | |
| | Minimum | | 1 | |
| | Maximum | | 35 | |
| | Range | | 34 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 19 | |
| | Skewness | | .355 | .464 |
| | Kurtosis | | -1.308 | .902 |
| woman.age | Mean | | 40.96 | 2.276 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 36.26 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 45.66 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 40.37 | |
| | Median | | 38.00 | |
| | Variance | | 129.457 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 11.378 | |
| | Minimum | | 24 | |
| | Maximum | | 71 | |
| | Range | | 47 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 19 | |
| | Skewness | | .738 | .464 |
| | Kurtosis | | .302 | .902 |
| man.age | Mean | | 45.68 | 2.383 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 40.76 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 50.60 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 45.47 | |
| | Median | | 47.00 | |
| | Variance | | 141.977 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 11.915 | |
| | Minimum | | 26 | |
| | Maximum | | 70 | |
| | Range | | 44 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 20 | |
| | Skewness | | .117 | .464 |
| | Kurtosis | | -.838 | .902 |

| | | | | |
|--------------------|----------------------------------|-------------|--------|-------|
| age.difference | Mean | | 4.72 | 1.135 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 2.38 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 7.06 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 4.49 | |
| | Median | | 4.00 | |
| | Variance | | 32.210 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 5.675 | |
| | Minimum | | -7 | |
| | Maximum | | 21 | |
| | Range | | 28 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 7 | |
| | Skewness | | .882 | .464 |
| | Kurtosis | | 1.899 | .902 |
| number.of.children | Mean | | 1.72 | .158 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 1.39 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 2.05 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 1.73 | |
| | Median | | 2.00 | |
| | Variance | | .627 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | .792 | |
| | Minimum | | 0 | |
| | Maximum | | 3 | |
| | Range | | 3 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 1 | |
| | Skewness | | .017 | .464 |
| | Kurtosis | | -.420 | .902 |
| lenght.of.abuse | Mean | | 2.68 | .198 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 2.27 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 3.09 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 2.60 | |
| | Median | | 3.00 | |
| | Variance | | .977 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | .988 | |
| | Minimum | | 1 | |
| | Maximum | | 6 | |
| | Range | | 5 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 1 | |
| | Skewness | | 1.564 | .464 |
| | Kurtosis | | 4.328 | .902 |

21.2.2 The frequencies of quantitative variables in detail, Warsaw sample

Frequencies

| Statistics | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---------|----------------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| | | length.of. relationship | woman.age | man.age | age. difference | number.of. children |
| N | Valid | 39 | 36 | 49 | 36 | 48 |
| | Missing | 11 | 14 | 1 | 14 | 2 |
| Mean | | 16.59 | 43.31 | 47.45 | 4.17 | 1.58 |
| Median | | 16.00 | 42.50 | 47.00 | 3.00 | 2.00 |
| Mode | | 8 ^a | 35 | 31 | 2 ^a | 2 |
| Std. Deviation | | 10.617 | 12.238 | 12.304 | 5.935 | .794 |
| Variance | | 112.722 | 149.761 | 151.378 | 35.229 | .631 |
| Skewness | | .386 | .514 | .201 | .847 | -.152 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .378 | .393 | .340 | .393 | .343 |
| Kurtosis | | -.870 | -.356 | -.779 | 1.798 | -.294 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | | .741 | .768 | .668 | .768 | .674 |
| Range | | 40 | 47 | 47 | 29 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 24 | 26 | -8 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 41 | 71 | 73 | 21 | 3 |
| Sum | | 647 | 1559 | 2325 | 150 | 76 |

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

21.2.3 The frequencies of qualitative variables in detail, Warsaw sample

Frequencies

| Statistics | | | | | | |
|------------|---------|-------|-------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| | | place | lone.or.not | type.of. relationship | together.or. sparate | type.of. residence |
| N | Valid | 50 | 50 | 50 | 49 | 47 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| Median | | 4.00 | .00 | 3.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 3 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| Range | | 4 | 5 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 7 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | woman.edu | man.edu | income. difference | woman. alcohol | man.alcohol | subsequent. abuse | PPC. qualification |
|---------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------------------|-------------------|-------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| N | Valid | 16 | 11 | 42 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| | Missing | 34 | 39 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | 1.00 | 1.00 | 2.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Range | | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | Womans. accomplices. of.Viol | Blue.Card. Female. Victim | Blue.Card. Man.Victim | sex.of. children | ages.of. children | Blue.Card. Both |
|---------|---------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| N | Valid | 50 | 49 | 50 | 40 | 38 | 50 |
| | Missing | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 12 | 0 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | 2.00 | 2.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 3 |

Frequency Table

Womans.accomplices.of.Viol

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | none | 42 | 84.0 | 84.0 | 84.0 |
| | with accomplices | 8 | 16.0 | 16.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Frequencies

Statistics

| | | sex.of. children | ages.of. children | children. previous. relationships | woman. abuse. children | man.abuse. children |
|---------|---------|---------------------|----------------------|---|------------------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 40 | 38 | 47 | 47 | 49 |
| | Missing | 10 | 12 | 3 | 3 | 1 |
| Median | | 2.00 | 2.00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 4 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 4 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 1 |

Frequency Table

sex.of.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 8 | 16.0 | 20.0 | 20.0 |
| | 1 | 7 | 14.0 | 17.5 | 37.5 |
| | 2 | 14 | 28.0 | 35.0 | 72.5 |
| | 3 | 3 | 6.0 | 7.5 | 80.0 |
| | 4 | 8 | 16.0 | 20.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 40 | 80.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 10 | 20.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

ages.of.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 12 | 24.0 | 31.6 | 31.6 |
| | 1 | 4 | 8.0 | 10.5 | 42.1 |
| | 2 | 4 | 8.0 | 10.5 | 52.6 |
| | 3 | 4 | 8.0 | 10.5 | 63.2 |
| | 4 | 3 | 6.0 | 7.9 | 71.1 |
| | 5 | 6 | 12.0 | 15.8 | 86.8 |
| | 6 | 5 | 10.0 | 13.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 38 | 76.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 12 | 24.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

children.previous.relationships

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 36 | 72.0 | 76.6 | 76.6 |
| | 1 | 4 | 8.0 | 8.5 | 85.1 |
| | 2 | 4 | 8.0 | 8.5 | 93.6 |
| | 4 | 3 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 47 | 94.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 3 | 6.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

woman.abuse.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 33 | 66.0 | 70.2 | 70.2 |
| | 1 | 14 | 28.0 | 29.8 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 47 | 94.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 3 | 6.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

man.abuse.children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 41 | 82.0 | 83.7 | 83.7 |
| | 1 | 8 | 16.0 | 16.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

• Frequencies

Statistics

| | | length.of. proceedings | victim. interviewed | suspect. interviewed | witness. interviewed | witness. number | witness. categories |
|---------|---------|---------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 49 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| | Missing | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 4.50 |
| Mode | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| Range | | 8 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 7 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 8 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 7 |

Statistics

| | | court. specialists | caution. issues | charges | compl. withdrawn.by. victim | case.ending |
|---------|---------|-----------------------|--------------------|---------|-----------------------------------|-------------|
| N | Valid | 50 | 49 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| | Missing | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 |

Statistics

| | | legal.qualif. changed | final.decision. appeal | complaint. truthful |
|---------|---------|--------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|
| N | Valid | 50 | 50 | 48 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | 2.00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 2 |

Statistics

| | | length.of. abuse | abuse.type | throwing. objects | shaking | hit.hand.on. body |
|---------|---------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|---------|----------------------|
| N | Valid | 40 | 50 | 47 | 47 | 47 |
| | Missing | 10 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Median | | 2.50 | 2.00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Statistics

| | | hit.hand.on. face | hit.hand.on. body | hit.fist.on. body | hit.fist.on. head.face |
|---------|---------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| N | Valid | 47 | 47 | 47 | 47 |
| | Missing | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Statistics

| | | kick.on.legs | kick.on.body | kick.on.face. head | scalding | choking |
|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------|---------|
| N | Valid | 47 | 47 | 47 | 47 | 47 |
| | Missing | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |

Statistics

| | | hit.objects.on. body | hit.object.on. face | threats.knife | using.knife | other. categories |
|---------|---------|-------------------------|------------------------|---------------|-------------|----------------------|
| N | Valid | 47 | 47 | 47 | 47 | 50 |
| | Missing | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 |

other.categories

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 35 | 70.0 | 70.0 | 70.0 |
| | 1 | 2 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 74.0 |
| | 3 | 4 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 82.0 |
| | 4 | 1 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 84.0 |
| | 8 | 3 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 90.0 |
| | 9 | 2 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 94.0 |
| | 10 | 3 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

• **Frequencies**

Statistics

| | Types of physic. Violence. Cumul. Categories | Phys.Abuse. other.cat. specified |
|---------|--|--|
| N | Valid 47 | 50 |
| | Missing 3 | 0 |
| Median | 4.00 | .00 |
| Mode | 7 | 0 |
| Range | 7 | 10 |
| Minimum | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | 7 | 10 |

Frequency Table

Types of physic.Violence.Cumul.Categories

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid no physical violence used | 9 | 18.0 | 19.1 | 19.1 |
| minor violence | 4 | 8.0 | 8.5 | 27.7 |
| minor and moderate violence | 8 | 16.0 | 17.0 | 44.7 |
| severe violence | 8 | 16.0 | 17.0 | 61.7 |
| minor and severe violence | 4 | 8.0 | 8.5 | 70.2 |
| moderate and severe violence | 4 | 8.0 | 8.5 | 78.7 |
| minor, moderate and severe violence | 10 | 20.0 | 21.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 47 | 94.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing System | 3 | 6.0 | | |
| Total | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Phys.Abuse.other.cat.specified

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid not applicable | 35 | 70.0 | 70.0 | 70.0 |
| twisting hands/fingers | 2 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 74.0 |
| scratching | 4 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 82.0 |
| spitting on man | 1 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 84.0 |
| destroying his property | 3 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 90.0 |
| more types together | 2 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 94.0 |
| additonal, not mentioned in the list | 3 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

21.2.5 Psychological abuse types, Warsaw sample

Frequencies**Statistics**

| | | Intimidation | Emotional. Abuse | Isolation | Minimizing. Denying. Blaming | Using. Children |
|---------|---------|--------------|---------------------|-----------|------------------------------------|--------------------|
| N | Valid | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | 1.00 | 1.00 | .00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Statistics

| | | Using. Gender. Privilege | Economic. Abuse | Coercion. Threats | Manipulating. System |
|---------|---------|--------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| N | Valid | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Median | | 1.00 | .00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Mode | | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Range | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Frequency Table**Intimidation**

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 16 | 32.0 | 32.0 | 32.0 |
| | 1 | 34 | 68.0 | 68.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Emotional.Abuse

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|-----------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 19 | 38.0 | 38.0 | 38.0 |
| | 1 | 31 | 62.0 | 62.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Isolation

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 39 | 78.0 | 78.0 | 78.0 |
| | 1 | 11 | 22.0 | 22.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Minimizing.Denying.Blaming

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 6 | 12.0 | 12.0 | 12.0 |
| | 1 | 44 | 88.0 | 88.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Using.Children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 19 | 38.0 | 38.0 | 38.0 |
| | 1 | 31 | 62.0 | 62.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Using.Gender.Privilege

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 20 | 40.0 | 40.0 | 40.0 |
| | 1 | 30 | 60.0 | 60.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Economic.Abuse

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 33 | 66.0 | 66.0 | 66.0 |
| | 1 | 17 | 34.0 | 34.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Coertion.Threats

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 7 | 14.0 | 14.0 | 14.0 |
| | 1 | 43 | 86.0 | 86.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Manipulating.System

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 11 | 22.0 | 22.0 | 22.0 |
| | 1 | 39 | 78.0 | 78.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

21.2.6 Reasons for abuse, Warsaw sample

▪ **Frequencies**

| | | Statistics | | | | | |
|---------|---------|-------------------|----------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Jealousy | Adultery | Self defence and defending children | Forcing man to move out | Financial problems by man and woman | Alcohol problem of man and woman |
| N | Valid | 49 | 49 | 49 | 49 | 49 | 49 |
| | Missing | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Median | | .00 | .00 | 1.00 | .00 | 2.00 | .00 |
| Mode | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 ^a | 0 |
| Range | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 3 |
| Minimum | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maximum | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 3 |

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Frequency Table

| | | Jealousy | | | |
|---------|-------------------------------|-----------------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | not occurring | 30 | 60.0 | 61.2 | 61.2 |
| | woman's perpetration | 9 | 18.0 | 18.4 | 79.6 |
| | man's perpetration | 7 | 14.0 | 14.3 | 93.9 |
| | perpetration by both partners | 3 | 6.0 | 6.1 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Adultery

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 33 | 66.0 | 67.3 | 67.3 |
| | woman's perpetration | 9 | 18.0 | 18.4 | 85.7 |
| | man's perpetration | 4 | 8.0 | 8.2 | 93.9 |
| | perpetration by both partners | 3 | 6.0 | 6.1 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Self defence and defending children

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 24 | 48.0 | 49.0 | 49.0 |
| | female's self defence declared/documentated | 20 | 40.0 | 40.8 | 89.8 |
| | female's self-defence and protection of children declared/documentated | 5 | 10.0 | 10.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Forcing man to move out

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 25 | 50.0 | 51.0 | 51.0 |
| | declared/documentated | 24 | 48.0 | 49.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Financial problems by man and woman

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 15 | 30.0 | 30.6 | 30.6 |
| | financial problems caused by woman | 5 | 10.0 | 10.2 | 40.8 |
| | financial problems/inadequate financial support by man | 15 | 30.0 | 30.6 | 71.4 |
| | financial problems caused by both | 14 | 28.0 | 28.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Alcohol problem of man and woman

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|----------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | not occurring | 26 | 52.0 | 53.1 | 53.1 |
| | woman's alcohol problem | 11 | 22.0 | 22.4 | 75.5 |
| | man's alcohol problem | 8 | 16.0 | 16.3 | 91.8 |
| | both have alcohol problems | 4 | 8.0 | 8.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 49 | 98.0 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 2.0 | | |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | | |

Other Reasons

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|---|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | 0 | 13 | 26.0 | 26.0 | 26.0 |
| | 1 | 37 | 74.0 | 74.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 50 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Ch.6 Appendix 3: Profiles of alleged victims and perpetrators

Table 21: The profile of an average alleged perpetrator

| | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1.4.1 The average alleged perpetrator profile | | |
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Age: | 45 | 42 |
| Education: | university degree/higher education | university degree/higher education |
| Acting under the influence of alcohol (other drugs not common): | No | No |
| Accomplices involved (lone-or-not): | No | No |
| Interviewed by the police: | Yes | Yes |
| Abuse towards children: | No | No |

Table 22: The profile of an average alleged victim

| 1.4.2 The average alleged victim profile | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Age: | 48 | 47 |
| Education: | university degree/higher education | university degree/higher education |
| Acting under the influence of alcohol (other drugs not common): | No | No |
| Interviewed by the police: | Yes | Yes |
| Abuse towards children: | No | No |

Table 23: The profile of an average couple dynamics

| 1.4.3 Couple dynamics profile | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Age difference between the partners: | 2 (man older) | 3 (man older) |
| Type of relationship | Marriage | Undergoing or planning a divorce |
| Length of relationship: | 19 years | 16 years |
| Income difference: | woman's income lower than her partner | woman's income lower than her partner |
| Subsequent abuse | Yes | Yes |
| Type of residence: | Living in the same property, a flat, not shared with man's or woman's family members | Living in the same property, a flat, not shared with man's or woman's family members |
| Number of children | 2 | 2 |
| Parentage of children | Children of the couple (not from the previous relationship) | Children of the couple (not from the previous relationship) |
| Sex of children: | Boy and girl | Boy and girl |
| Ages of children: | All up to 10 years of age | All up to 10 years of age |

Table 24: The profile of characteristics of legal proceedings

| 1.4.4 Legal proceedings profile | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Feature (modal/mode value) | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Length of proceedings: | 1-3 months | 1-3 months |
| Witnesses interviewed: | Yes | Yes |
| Number of witnesses (median): | 1 | 1 |
| Court-appointed specialists | No | No |
| PPC qualification: | § 207.1 | § 207.1 |
| Legal qualification changed: | No | No |
| Caution issued: | No | No |
| Charges for the alleged perpetrator: | No | No |
| Complaint withdrawn by the victim: | No | No |
| Final decision appealed | No | No |
| The Blue Card for man or woman as a victim: | No | No |
| Case ending | Discontinued | Discontinued |
| Typology of relationship | Both partners violent | Both partners violent |

Table 25: The profile of abuse perpetration in an average relationship

| 1.4.5 Abuse perpetration profile | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| Feature | Lublin sample | Warsaw sample |
| Abuse type: | Verbal/psychological and physical | Verbal/psychological and physical |
| Length of time the abuse takes place: | 1-3 years | 4-6 years |
| Physical: | No physical violence used by about (34%) of the women. When used, it is most likely to use minor | Minor, moderate and severe physical violence prevalent (used by 20% of women). No physical |

| | | |
|--------------------|---|--|
| | physical violence (approx.19%) More than 16% of women used a mix of minor, moderate and severe violence | violence used by 18% of women. Severe violence, and minor and severe violence in combination was used by 16% of women. |
| Psychological: | Emotional abuse; intimidation; minimizing, denying, blaming; coercion and threats; manipulating the system prevalent | Emotional abuse; intimidation; minimizing, denying, blaming; using children, using gender privilege, coercion and threats and manipulating the system prevalent |
| Reasons for abuse: | <p>In most cases more than one reason for abuse</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Over 43% of men were considered by their partners not contributing enough financial support or mismanaging the budget, • while 27% of women mismanaged the budget • Over 34% was forcing man to move out • Suspected or proven female's infidelity (jealousy and adultery) occurred in 25 percent of cases; • Suspected or actual infidelity of male partner in 28 percent of cases • Approximately 24% of women and 20% of men jealous; • Approx.18% of women and 14% of men adulterous • Approx. 29% of women declaring self defence and | <p>In most cases more than one reason for abuse</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 58 percent of cases men not contributing enough financial support for the family needs • 38% of women mismanaged the budget • Over 48% was forcing man to move out • Suspected or proven female's infidelity (jealousy and adultery) occurred in 25 percent of cases • Suspected or actual infidelity of male partner in 25 percent of cases • Over 24% of women and over 20% of men jealous; • Approx.22% of women and 12% of men adulterous • Approx. 50% of women declaring self defence and 10% defending |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | <p>9% defending children</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 19% of women and 21% of men had alcohol problems• In approx. 74% of cases there were additional reasons for abuse declared | <p>children</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 30% of women and over 24% of men had alcohol problems• In 74% of cases there were additional reasons for abuse declared |
|--|--|--|

Ch.6 Appendix 4: Results of Chi² and Z-test of two proportions with Boneferroni adjustment

Appendix 4.1 Results of Chi2 test

| 1. Perpetration of abuse with accomplices or alone and reasons for abuse | | | | | | | |
|--|--|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observations) | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
| Lone-or-not | Jealousy | Lublin | 124 | 2.185 | 0.535 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Jealousy | Warsaw | 49 | 1.082 | 0.781 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Jealousy | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 173 | 1.408 | 0.704 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Adultery | Lublin | 124 | 1.369 | 0.713 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Adultery | Warsaw | 49 | 1.068 | 0.785 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Adultery | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 173 | 2.418 | 0.490 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Self-defence and defending children | Lublin | 124 | 20.216 | <0.001 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Self-defence and defending children | Warsaw | 49 | 7.824 | 0.020 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Self- | Joint (Lublin | 173 | 27.051 | <0.001 | rejectsH0 about | There is a |

| | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-----|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| | defence and defending children | and Warsaw) | | | | independence | relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Financial problems | Lublin | 124 | 8.782 | 0.032 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Financial problems | Warsaw | 49 | 14.839 | 0.002 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Financial problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 173 | 15.937 | 0.001 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Alcohol problems | Lublin | 126 | 4.261 | 0.235 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Alcohol problems | Warsaw | 48 | 7.067 | 0.070 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Alcohol problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 175 | 10.484 | 0.015 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| | | | | | | | |
| Fisher's Exact Test | | | | | | | |
| | | | | Exact Sig. (2-sided) | Exact Sig. (1-sided) | Verdict | Meaning |
| Lone-or-not | Forcing a man to move out | Lublin | 123 | 0.512 | 0.321 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Forcing a man to move out | Warsaw | 49 | 0.138 | 0.110 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Forcing a man to move out | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 172 | 0.253 | 0.139 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

2. Abuse type and reasons for abuse

| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
|------------|------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
|------------|------------|-------------|-----------------|--------------------------|---------|---------|---------|

| | | | (observations) | | | | |
|------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|--------|-------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Abuse type | Jealousy | Lublin | 119 | 10.684 | 0.566 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Jealousy | Warsaw | 46 | 7.830 | 0.551 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Jealousy | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 10.236 | 0.595 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Adultery | Lublin | 118 | 11.509 | 0.486 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Adultery | Warsaw | 46 | 7.858 | 0.548 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Adultery | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 6.508 | 0.888 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Self-defence and defending children | Lublin | 119 | 16.909 | 0.153 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Self-defence and defending children | Warsaw | 46 | 0.915 | 0.989 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Self-defence and defending children | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 15.215 | 0.230 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Forcing a man to move out | Lublin | 119 | 3.808 | 0.433 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Forcing a man to move out | Warsaw | 46 | 0.124 | 0.989 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Forcing a man to move | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 159 | 8.556 | 0.073 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

| | | | | | | | |
|------------|--------------------|---------------------------|-----|--------|-------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| | out | | | | | | |
| Abuse type | Financial problems | Lublin | 119 | 10.790 | 0.547 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Financial problems | Warsaw | 46 | 13.944 | 0.124 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Financial problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 15.647 | 0.208 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Alcohol problems | Lublin | 121 | 12.490 | 0.407 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Alcohol problems | Warsaw | 46 | 8.264 | 0.508 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Abuse type | Alcohol problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 167 | 14.319 | 0.281 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

| 3. Number of children and reasons for abuse | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observations) | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
| Number of children | Jealousy | Lublin | 119 | 4.110 | 0.904 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Jealousy | Warsaw | 47 | 5.129 | 0.823 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Jealousy | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 3.029 | 0.963 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Adultery | Lublin | 119 | 11.537 | 0.241 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Adultery | Warsaw | 47 | 15.449 | 0.079 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Adultery | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 8.646 | 0.471 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Self-defence | Lublin | 119 | 19.242 | 0.023 | rejects H0 about independence | There is a relationship |

| | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|----------------------------------|------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | and defending children | | | | | | |
| Number of children | Self-defence and defending children | Warsaw | 47 | 9.344 | 0.155 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Self-defence and defending children | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 18,425 | 0.031 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Number of children | Forcing a man to move out | Lublin | 118 | 0.575 | 0.902 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Forcing a man to move out | Warsaw | 47 | 2.236 | 0.525 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Forcing a man to move out | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 165 | 0.521 | 0.914 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Financial problems | Lublin | 119 | 21.453 | 0.011 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Number of children | Financial problems | Warsaw | 47 | 7.651 | 0.570 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Financial problems | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 166 | 19.643 | 0.020 | rejectsH0 about independence | There is a relationship |
| Number of children | Alcohol problems | Lublin | 121 | 6.477 | 0.691 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of children | Alcohol problems | Warsaw | 47 | 15.239 | 0.085 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Number of | Alcohol | Joint (Lublin | 168 | 6.715 | 0.667 | supports H0 about | There is no |

| | | | | | | | |
|----------|----------|-------------|--|--|--|--------------|--------------|
| children | problems | and Warsaw) | | | | independence | relationship |
|----------|----------|-------------|--|--|--|--------------|--------------|

| 4. Perpetration of abuse with accomplices or alone and abuse types | | | | | | | |
|---|------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | Sample from | Number of cases (observations) | Chi ² results | P-value | Verdict | Meaning |
| Lone-or-not | Abuse type | Lublin | 129 | 4.572 | 0.334 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Abuse type | Warsaw | 47 | 6.208 | 0.102 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |
| Lone-or-not | Abuse type | Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) | 176 | 3.697 | 0.449 | supports H0 about independence | There is no relationship |

Ch.6 Appendix 4.2. Results of Z-test of two proportions with a Bonferroni adjustment

1.3 Lone-or-not and self-defence and defending children

a. Lublin sample

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children Crosstabulation

| | | | Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|---|---|---|--------|
| | | | not occurring | female's self devence declared/doc umented | female protecting children declared/doc umented | female's self- defence and protection of children declared/doc umented | Total |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | Lone | Count | 68 ^a | 24 ^{a, b} | 1 ^b | 3 ^b | 96 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 86,1% | 75,0% | 20,0% | 37,5% | 77,4% |
| | with help of other people | Count | 11 ^a | 8 ^{a, b} | 4 ^b | 5 ^b | 28 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 13,9% | 25,0% | 80,0% | 62,5% | 22,6% |
| Total | | Count | 79 | 32 | 5 | 8 | 124 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|--|-----|---|---|--------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "female's self-defence declared " | and | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence declared" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence declared" | | |
| | "female's self-defence declared" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | WOMAN ABUSES WITH THE HELP OF ACCOMPLICES | |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|-----|---|------|---|
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH THE HELP OF ACCOMPLICES |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | | |

b. Warsaw sample

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Reson for Abuse: Self defence and defending children Crosstabulation

| | | Reson for Abuse: Self defence and defending children | | | Total |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|---|--------|
| | | not occurring | female's self defence declared/doc umented | female's self-defence and protection of children declared/doc umented | |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | lone | Count | 21 a, b | 18b | 2a |
| | | % within Reson for Abuse: Self defence and defending children | 87,5% | 90,0% | 40,0% |
| | with help of other people | Count | 3a, b | 2b | 3a |
| | | % within Reson for Abuse: Self defence and defending children | 12,5% | 10,0% | 60,0% |
| Total | | Count | 24 | 20 | 5 |
| | | % within Reson for Abuse: Self defence and defending children | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reson for Abuse: Self defence and defending children categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
 >missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
 >need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
 >non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|--|-----|---|------|---|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female's self-defence declared" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence declared" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH THE HELP OF ACCOMPLICES |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | and | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female's self-defence & protecting children declared/documentated" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH THE HELP OF ACCOMPLICES |

c. Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) sample

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Reasons for abuse: Self defence and defending children Crosstabulation

| | | | Reasons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | | | | Total |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|--|---|---|--------|
| | | | not occurring | female's self defence declared/doc umented | female protecting children declared/doc umented | female's self-defence and protection of children declared/doc umented | |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | Lone | Count | 89 ^a | 42 ^a | 1 ^b | 5 ^b | 137 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 86,4% | 80,8% | 20,0% | 38,5% | 79,2% |
| | with help of other people | Count | 14 ^a | 10 ^a | 4 ^b | 8 ^b | 36 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 13,6% | 19,2% | 80,0% | 61,5% | 20,8% |
| | Total | Count | 103 | 52 | 5 | 13 | 173 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reasons for abuse: Self defence and defending children categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|--|-----|--|------|-------------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female's self-defence declared" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "female's protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female's self-defence and protection of children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female's protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female's self-defence and protection of children declared/documentated" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female's protection of children declared/documentated" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence and defence of children declared/documentated" | | |
| | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|--|
| | "female's self-defence declared/declared" | | "female protecting children declared/declared" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| | "female's self-defence declared/declared" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/declared" | | |
| | "female's self-defence declared/declared" | | "female protecting children declared/declared" | | |
| | "female's self-defence declared/declared" | | "female's self-defence and protection of children declared/declared" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/declared" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female's self-defence and protection of children declared/declared" | | |

1.5 Lone-or-not and financial problems

a. Lublin

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman Crosstabulation

| | | | Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|---|--|------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|--------|
| | | | not occurring | financial problems caused by woman | financial problems/ inadequate financial support by man | financial problems caused by both | Total |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | Lone | Count | 42 ^a | 13 ^a | 25 ^a | 16 ^a | 96 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 84,0% | 100,0% | 65,8% | 69,6% | 77,4% |
| | with help of others | Count | 8 ^a | 0 ^a | 13 ^a | 7 ^a | 28 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 16,0% | 0,0% | 34,2% | 30,4% | 22,6% |
| Total | Count | | 50 | 13 | 38 | 23 | 124 |
| | % within Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|--|-----|---|------|-------------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by a woman", | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by a woman", | when | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |

b. Warsaw sample

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman Crosstabulation

| | | | Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | | | Total |
|------------------------------|---|---|--|------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|--------|
| | | | not occurring | financial problems caused by woman | financial problems/inadequate financial support by man | financial problems caused by both | |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | lone | Count | 14 a, b | 5 a, b | 8 b | 14 a | 41 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 93,3% | 100,0% | 53,3% | 100,0% | 83,7% |
| | with help of other people | Count | 1 a, b | 0 a, b | 7 b | 0 a | 8 |
| | | % within Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 6,7% | 0,0% | 46,7% | 0,0% | 16,3% |
| Total | Count | | 15 | 5 | 15 | 14 | 49 |
| | % within Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reasons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
>missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
>need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
>non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|--|-----|--|------|------------------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by a man" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | WHEN WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "financial problems caused by a man" | and | financial problems caused by both" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | financial problems caused by a man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |

c. Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) sample

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Reasons for Abuse: Financial problems by man and woman Crosstabulation

| | | | Reasons for Abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | | | Total |
|------------------------------|---|---|--|------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|--------|
| | | | not occurring | financial problems caused by woman | financial problems/inadequate financial support by man | financial problems caused by both | |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | lone | Count | 56 ^a | 18 ^a | 33 ^b | 30 ^{a, b} | 137 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 86,2% | 100,0% | 62,3% | 81,1% | 79,2% |
| | with help of other people | Count | 9 ^a | 0 ^a | 20 ^b | 7 ^{a, b} | 36 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 13,8% | 0,0% | 37,7% | 18,9% | 20,8% |
| Total | Count | | 65 | 18 | 53 | 37 | 173 |
| | % within Reasons for Abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reasons for Abuse: Financial problems by man and woman categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
>missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
>need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
>non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|---|------------|---|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by a woman" | when | WHEN WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by a man" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused a man" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by a man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by a woman" | | "financial problems caused a man" | | |

1.6 Lone-or-not and alcohol problems

c. Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) sample

Is woman a lone perpetrator? * Reasone for Abuse:Alcohol problem of man and woman Crosstabulation

| | | | Reasone for Abuse:Alcohol problem of man and woman | | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|-------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|--------|
| | | | not occurring | woman's alcohol problem | man's alcohol problem | both have alcohol problems | Total |
| Is woman a lone perpetrator? | lone | Count | 81 a, b | 29b | 20a | 9a, b | 139 |
| | | % within Reasone for Abuse:Alcohol problem of man and woman | 77,9% | 93,5% | 64,5% | 100,0% | 79,4% |
| | with help of other people | Count | 23a, b | 2b | 11 a | 0a, b | 36 |
| | | % within Reasone for Abuse:Alcohol problem of man and woman | 22,1% | 6,5% | 35,5% | 0,0% | 20,6% |
| Total | | Count | 104 | 31 | 31 | 9 | 175 |
| | | % within Reasone for Abuse:Alcohol problem of man and woman | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reasone for Abuse:Alcohol problem of man and woman categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
 >missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
 >need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
 >non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "alcohol problems caused by both" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "alcohol problems caused by a man" | | "alcohol problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "woman's alcohol problems" | | |
| | "alcohol problems caused by a man" | | "alcohol problems caused by both" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |
| | "not occurring" | | "alcohol problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "woman's alcohol problems" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "woman's alcohol problems" | | |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "woman's alcohol problems" | and | "man's alcohol problems" | when | WOMAN ABUSES ALONE |
| | "woman's alcohol problems" | | "man's alcohol problems" | | WOMAN ABUSES WITH ACCOMPLICES |

3.3 Number of children and self-defence and defending children

a. Lublin sample

Number.of.children * Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children Crosstabulation

| | | Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | | | | | |
|--------------------|-------|---|---|---|---|--------|--------|
| | | not occurring | female's self devence declared/doc umented | female protecting children declared/doc umented | female's self- defence and protection of children declared/doc umented | Total | |
| Number.of.children | 0 | Count | 4a | 3a | 0a | 0a | 7 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 5,4% | 9,4% | 0,0% | 0,0% | 5,9% |
| | 1 | Count | 30a | 11 a | 0a | 1 a | 42 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 40,5% | 34,4% | 0,0% | 12,5% | 35,3% |
| | 2 | Count | 35a | 14 a | 3a | 3a | 55 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 47,3% | 43,8% | 60,0% | 37,5% | 46,2% |
| | 3 | Count | 5a | 4a, b | 2a, b | 4b | 15 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 6,8% | 12,5% | 40,0% | 50,0% | 12,6% |
| | Total | Count | 74 | 32 | 5 | 8 | 119 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Resaons for abuse: Self defence and defending children categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
 >missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
 >need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
 >non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|---|-----|--|------|----------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | when | THE COUPLE HAD NO CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | when | THE COUPLE HAD ONE CHILD |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |

| | | | | | |
|--|--|------------|--|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | when | THE COUPLE HAD TWO CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |

c. Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) sample

Number.of.children * Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children Crosstabulation

| | | Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children | | | | | |
|--------------------|--|--|---|---|---|--------|-------|
| | | not occurring | female's self devence declared/doc umented | female protecting children declared/doc umented | female's self- defence and protection of children declared/doc umented | Total | |
| Number.of.children | 0 | Count | 6a | 5a | 0a | 0a | 11 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children | 6,2% | 9,8% | 0,0% | 0,0% | 6,6% |
| | 1 | Count | 37a | 21a | 0a | 1a | 59 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children | 38,1% | 41,2% | 0,0% | 7,7% | 35,5% |
| | 2 | Count | 47a | 19a | 3a | 8a | 77 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children | 48,5% | 37,3% | 60,0% | 61,5% | 46,4% |
| | 3 | Count | 7a | 6a, b | 2a, b | 4b | 19 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children | 7,2% | 11,8% | 40,0% | 30,8% | 11,4% |
| Total | Count | 97 | 51 | 5 | 13 | 166 | |
| | % within Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Reasons for Abuse: Self.defence and def. Children categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|---|-----|--|------|-----------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | when | THE COUPLE HAD NO CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | when | THE COUPLE HAD ONE CHILD |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/ documented" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/ documented" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documented" | when | THE COUPLE HAD TWO CHILDREN |

| | | | | | |
|--|--|------------|--|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female self-defence declared/ documentated" | | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "female protecting children declared/documentated" | | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "female self-defence and protecting children declared/documentated" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |

Statistically significant difference in proportions

3.5 Number of children and financial problems

a. Lublin sample

Number.of.children * Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman Crosstabulation

| | | Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | | | | | |
|--------------------|-------|--|--|--|--|--------|--------|
| | | not occurring | finaincial problems caused by woman | financial problems/ina dequate financial support by man | financial problems caused by both | Total | |
| Number.of.children | 0 | Count | 5a | 1a | 1a | 0a | 7 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 11,1% | 7,7% | 2,6% | 0,0% | 5,9% |
| | 1 | Count | 22a | 5a | 8a | 7a | 42 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 48,9% | 38,5% | 21,1% | 30,4% | 35,3% |
| | 2 | Count | 17a | 7a | 21a | 10a | 55 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 37,8% | 53,8% | 55,3% | 43,5% | 46,2% |
| | 3 | Count | 1a | 0a, b | 8b | 6b | 15 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 2,2% | 0,0% | 21,1% | 26,1% | 12,6% |
| | Total | Count | 45 | 13 | 38 | 23 | 119 |
| | | % within Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Resaons for abuse: Financial problems by man and woman categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the ,05 level.

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
>missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
>need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
>non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|--|--|-----|--|------|-----------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD NO CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD ONE CHILD |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD TWO CHILDREN |
| | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|--|-----|--|------|-------------------------------|
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | financial problems caused by the man" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |

c. Joint (Lublin and Warsaw) sample

Number.of.children * Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman Crosstabulation

| | | Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|--|---------------|------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|--------|
| | | | not occurring | financial problems caused by woman | financial problems/ina dequate financial support by man | financial problems caused by both | Total |
| Number.of.children | 0 | Count | 6a | 1a | 2a | 2a | 11 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman | 10,2% | 5,9% | 3,8% | 5,4% | 6,6% |
| | 1 | Count | 27a | 6a | 15a | 11a | 59 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman | 45,8% | 35,3% | 28,3% | 29,7% | 35,5% |
| | 2 | Count | 25a | 10a | 27a | 15a | 77 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman | 42,4% | 58,8% | 50,9% | 40,5% | 46,4% |
| | 3 | Count | 1a | 0a, b | 9b | 9b | 19 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman | 1,7% | 0,0% | 17,0% | 24,3% | 11,4% |
| Total | | Count | 59 | 17 | 53 | 37 | 166 |
| | | % within Reasons for Abuse.Financial problems by man and woman | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

>Warning # 3211

>On at least one case, the value of the weight variable was zero, negative, or
>missing. Such cases are invisible to statistical procedures and graphs which
>need positively weighted cases, but remain on the file and are processed by
>non-statistical facilities such as LIST and SAVE.

| Type of relationship | Between | | | | |
|---|---|-----|---|------|-----------------------------|
| No statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD NO CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD ONE CHILD |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by | when | THE COUPLE HAD TWO CHILDREN |

| | | | | | |
|---|--|-----|--|------|-------------------------------|
| | | | the woman" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the man" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| | not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by the man" | | |
| | "financial problems caused by the woman" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |
| Statistically significant difference in proportions | "not occurring" | and | "financial problems caused by the woman" | when | THE COUPLE HAD THREE CHILDREN |
| | "not occurring" | | "financial problems caused by both" | | |

Ch. 6 Appendix 5: Statistical information about the general population of Poland used for the comparison with research results using “N-1” Chi² tests

5.1. The number of children in couples divorcing in 2010; data from the yearbooks for Lublin and Warsaw Districts⁸⁹

Table 26 General Statistical Office for Lublin and Warsaw Districts data on number of children in the couples divorcing in 2010⁹⁰ (Statistical Yearbook for 2011 in Lublin District and Statistical Yearbook for 2011 in Warsaw District)

| Children in the couples divorcing in 2010 | Lublin N= 2483 | | Warsaw N= 8314 | |
|---|-------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| 0 | 994 | 40.03 | 3597 | 43.26 |
| 1 | 999 | 40.23 | 3081 | 37.06 |
| 2 | 433 | 17.43 | 1395 | 16.78 |
| 3 and more | 107 | 4.31 | 241 | 2.90 |

⁸⁹ The categories 3 children and 4 and more children have been merged to allow a comparison with data from the researched sample

⁹⁰ The categories 3 children and 4 and more children have been merged to allow a comparison with data from the researched sample

5.2. The structure of Education in Poland in 2009; data from the Report on the State of Education 2010 by Instytut Badan Naukowych (2011)⁹¹

Table 27 Structure of education in Poland⁹²

| Modified table on structure of education in Poland in the year 2009 (people aged 25-64) | | |
|---|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | Percent |
| Tertiary and/or university degree | 5261370 | 25.00 |
| A-levels or technical equivalent | 6490900 | 30.70 |
| Primary to Vocational | 937500 | 44.30 |
| Total | 21130 000 | 100,00 |

5.3 Age difference between the partners in Warsaw and Lublin; modified Table 9

Table ²⁸ General age differences between the partners (modified Table 9)

| Sampling place | Woman older | | No age difference | | Man older | |
|----------------|-------------|---------|-------------------|---------|-----------|---------|
| | Frequency | percent | frequency | Percent | frequency | Percent |
| Lublin N=74 | 15 | 20,3 | 6 | 8,1 | 53 | 71,6 |
| Warsaw N=36 | 3 | 8,3 | 4 | 11.1 | 29 | 80,6 |

⁹¹ p.20, <http://eduentuzjasci.pl/publikacje-ee-lista.html?start=155> retrieved from on 23.03.2019

⁹² Data on the structure of education in males and females separately is unavailable